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19, 38, 61, 80, 98, 116, 135, 154, 172, 190, 219, 228, 245, 266, 289, 310, 332, 352, 368, 390, 411, 433, 452, 470, 487, 505.

ERRATA.

Page 125, col. ii, line 25 from bottom. For "Edward R." read "Edward W."

Page 126, col. ii, line 30 from bottom. For "Russell" read "Russell Garnier."

Page 162, col. i, lines 4 and 31. For "*Corriera*" read "*Corriere*."

Page 165, col. ii, line 38. For "Adam" read "Adams."

Page 183, col. i, line 14. For "1894" read "1895."

Page 217, col. iii, line 25. For "proportionate" read "proportion to." Lines 30, 35. For "imports" read "imposts."

Page 233, col. i, line 31. For "Sedgwick" read "Sidgwick."

Page 259, col. i, line 35. For "comprehension" read "comparison." Col. ii, line 37. For "sons" read "schools." Line 52. For "encouraging" read "converging."

Page 313, col. iii, line 20 from bottom. For "Conference" read "Convention."

Page 326, col. i, line 43. For "Adams" read "Armes."

Page 339, col. ii, line 18. For "Derby" read "Palmerston."

Page 349, col. iii, line 9. For "William" read "Wilmot."

Page 402, col. ii, line 45. For "rosary" read, "nectary."

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 3, 1895.

The Week.

THE dissolution of the Government-bond syndicate is announced in terms which may imply merely that the time for which it was organized has expired, or that the speculation has not turned out as was expected, or that the secretary of the treasury has done something in the premises which he ought not to have done. The words are these:

"The action of the United States Treasury on currency questions having stopped progress in the sale of bonds for the account of the 5 per cent. bond syndicate, and the period of thirty days mentioned in the notice of November 2 having expired, the syndicate is dissolved."

The Street has interpreted this as a hint that the secretary has turned against his friends by recommending a measure of currency reform which, if passed, would bring on the market some $200,000,000 of bonds now held as security for national banknotes, thus weakening the bond market and preventing the syndicate from reaping the profit which they had reason to expect. If this has been the effect of the secretary's recommendation, it was unintentional, of course, and in any case it ought not to have been referred to in this public way. The compulsory feature of the secretary's recommendation (the clause which requires banks to take up their security bonds and issue circulating notes on the new plan within a certain time) has been abandoned, and the probability now is that the whole bill will fail, so far as the present Congress is concerned. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that the price of the bonds will again advance to 119 or higher. But even if it were otherwise, the Government has no bargain, express or implied, to do or refrain from doing anything with reference to a resale of the bonds by the syndicate to the public. Any suggestion or implication of this sort is in very bad taste.

The withdrawal from the Treasury, since the last bond sale was effected, of ten or twelve millions of gold *more* than has been exported during the same time, has drawn attention again to the unstable condition of the national finances, a condition due in part to a deficit of revenue, and in part to the Government's banking responsibilities—*i. e.*, its responsibility for the ultimate gold reserve of the country. It is not unlikely that a new bond sale may be advertised before the present Congress adjourns. That would not be a bad thing. It would put the greenback in a more glaring light than ever, and it might possibly induce Congress to take some step looking to the retirement and extinction of that pestiferous element of our currency. If no such step is taken, and if the withdrawal of gold continues, the President may find it necessary to call an extra session of Congress to relieve the country from the distrust, both at home and abroad, which rests as an incubus on the nation's prosperity. There may be other reasons for an extra session. If the deficit in the revenue continues, it will be necessary to impose new taxes. Nobody can yet say what sum the income tax will yield, or how soon the revenue from sugar will become effective. In the event that both these sources should be disappointing, an increase of the tax on beer would be the most inviting experiment. But in any event the greenbacks must go.

The output of gold continues to increase in the United States as well as in Russia and in South Africa. The *Engineering and Mining Journal* has information which leads it to think that Leadville will become a greater gold-mining than it ever was a silver-mining camp. It is estimated that the Leadville yield for the year will be $2,000,000. The extraordinary showing made in the Little Johnny gold property has been supplemented by "a most important discovery of gold ore in the Triumph shaft on a claim adjoining the Little Johnny on the south." The discovery has greatly stimulated exploration in that quarter. The richness of the South African field has caused a tremendous "boom" in the mining share-market in London, and the rage has extended to Paris and other parts of the Continent. Probably there will be a reaction, and a good many people will get their fingers burned, but the speculation is merely indicative of a large increase of the world's gold production over the extraordinary figures of the fiscal year 1893, which were the largest in the world's history.

The Hartford *Courant*, commenting upon Congressman De Forest's bill making postmasters hold office during good behavior and forbidding removals for political causes, remarks that "the principle is sound, but it is ludicrous to see outgoing Democrats trying, in the name of reform, to tie their men into the places they have turned Republicans out of." It is one of the peculiarities of civil-service reform that every forward step must be taken by the party which has control of the offices, and, human nature being what it is, is most likely to be taken when that control is threatened. The Republicans had been in possession of the entire civil service for more than twenty years, and the Democratic "tidal-wave" of 1882 foreshadowed the change of administration which was decreed by the voters in 1884, when the civil-service law was passed by an expiring Republican Congress early in 1883. The most important extensions of the "classified service" during Cleveland's first administration and during Harrison's term were made after the elections had shown that a change of parties was imminent. As the passage of the original law followed a sweeping political revolution, it would be only natural that the reform should receive a great impetus after another political revolution like that of last fall. One advantage of this method of extension is that it can be effected with but little opposition, the spoilsmen of the dominant party being prevented from grumbling by the notion that they are "tying" their office-holders in—though, as a matter of fact, incompetent and unfit men are less likely to retain place under the merit system than under the spoils system.

The really important thing is to get a general recognition by the public of the fact that "the principle is sound," and progress in this direction is now not only steady but rapid. Business men throughout the country are having the superiority of the new system to the old one brought home to them in a way that makes it impossible for defences of the spoils theory to carry any weight with them. Take, for instance, that demonstration of the value of the reform which Postmaster-General Bissell cites in his annual report from the experience of the railway mail service. It will be remembered that Cleveland issued an order bringing this service under the rules during his first term, but unfortunately so near its end that Harrison could suspend the order until Wanamaker had a chance to loot it. Records are kept of the number of "correct routings" and of errors made by the employees. In 1888 the proportion had been 3,694 to 1; after the Wanamaker sweep, errors increased so rapidly that the proportion of correct routings fell in 1889 to 2,834 to 1. Under the protection of the civil-service law the proportion has risen until in 1893, when no changes were made for political reasons after a change of national administration, the record was 7,144 to 1. In other words, blunders happen less than half as often under the merit system as under the spoils system. There is no arguing against such facts as these, and the Congressman who should now go before the business men of any city to sneer at reform in the Post-office Department would be laughed at. Indeed, the business men of Atlanta, Ga., nearly all of whom are Democrats, recently gave a dinner to the superintendent of the railway mail service for that part of the country, who secured his place under a Republican President.

A late decision of the Supreme Court affirms the constitutionality of a State law

which prohibits the selling of any substance compounded in whole or in part of fats, oils, or any oleaginous material not produced from milk or cream, "which shall be in imitation of yellow butter." There is nothing in the law implying that this is an unwholesome article of food. If the thing is in imitation of yellow butter, not of white butter, it must not be sold. A majority of the court holds that this law is constitutional. Chief-Justice Fuller and Justices Field and Brewer do not concur with the majority. A dissenting opinion is filed by the chief-justice, maintaining that the law in question must be construed according to its natural and reasonable effect, as an attempt to regulate trade between the States, which is the prerogative of Congress solely. As the law in question does not put the prohibition on the ground of public health, but merely on the ground that the article looks like butter, it follows that any State law which prohibits the sale of things on the score of their appearance would be sustained by the courts. Thus the importation of worsteds might be prohibited because they look like woollens, or the sale of oak if it looks like walnut, or of steel if it looks like iron. Especially might all imitations be prohibited, even though the seller should put the word Imitation on them, as they do in the shop windows in Paris.

California is now afflicted with a new apprehension, namely, of being overrun by the Japanese. The new treaty with Japan, which has just been negotiated, gives the people of each nation the right of free entry into the other; and this is declared on the Pacific coast to be the opening of the gates for "a new Asiatic irruption." The San Francisco *Bulletin* says that "there are many people among us who believe that Japanese immigration is more threatening than the Chinese." It is at least a consolation to know that the Chinese bugbear is not so alarming as it used to be. As for the Japanese, it will doubtless seem very heartless to the people on the Pacific coast, but the truth is that the rest of the country cannot easily be excited over this new outcry. Even the professional politicians cannot see any votes in a plank declaring that "the Japanese must go."

It is very melancholy to see the name of Lyman Trumbull attached to a series of Populist resolutions in Chicago, which boldly take the ground that the obstruction of all the great highways of the country last summer as a means of compelling a carriage-builder in one State to "arbitrate" with his workmen, was a rising against "monopolies" which ought not to have been suppressed by the standing army; and that suppressing it and opening the highways was an "oppression of the poor," whom it had thrown out of employment all over the Union. Melancholy, too, is his declaration that it is the duty of the Government to "regulate the value of money," and to coin gold and silver at a ratio of 16 to 1, no matter what the market ratio may be. In fact, nearly every Populist platform is a fountain of despondency for the intelligent lover of his race.

Inspector Williams closed his testimony on Friday, and when he left the stand he "was congratulated by his friends." For what? Presumably because he had not been forced directly to confess acts of criminality. One of the curious things about the Lexow investigation is the frank admission of everybody that the fate of all accused or suspected officials hangs upon the ability of Mr. Goff to prove their guilt. When, a few days ago, the news went over the town that Capt. Schmittberger had confessed, and was giving testimony against Martin and other officials, the usual form of communicating this news was, "Schmittberger is giving away Jimmy Martin." So it has been in all cases. It is never said that a witness is accusing an official, but is "giving him away." This assumption, openly made by their friends as well as their enemies, that they are guilty, reflects the general sentiment of the city. There is not a person of intelligence in the community who has any doubt that most of the inspectors, captains, sergeants, and members of the force have shared in the blackmail collected, and that a proportion of it has gone also into Tammany district treasuries.

The explanation which Inspector Williams gave of his wealth is, like that advanced by all other suspected officials, ludicrously childish. He began his police career in 1866 with $15,000 or $20,000 in a friend's safe, and with a few building lots "in the northern part of Japan"; he has never had since that time a salary of more than $3,500, yet he is to-day worth between $40,000 and $50,000, owns a house in town, a handsome country place, a yacht, has an interest in ship-building in Maine, and lives in the style of a very rich man. The only account he gives of his wealth is that a friend, who was interested in a brand of whiskey which Williams has been accused of promoting, once gave him $5,000 or $6,000 which he had made for him in Wall Street, Williams not investing a penny as a basis for the transaction. He has never, he says, received a penny of blackmail from any source, does not know what a "dive" or a "panel-house" is, and though he has been tried eighteen times by the Police Board, has been charged by a grand jury with many serious offences, has been accused by Mayor Hewitt of others equally serious, and has been implicated as a sharer in blackmail by many witnesses during the present inquiry, he declares that one and all of these accusations are lies and their authors liars. The most remarkable thing about the whole matter is that Williams really believes that he has made a good showing of himself.

After Williams came "Jimmy" Martin, police commissioner, and, though Mr. Goff had only a short session with him, he extracted from him the valuable admission that he was "sorry to be connected with" a department against which such testimony had been brought as this investigation had produced against the Police Department. As for himself, Martin was in complete ignorance of all the blackmailing and other infamous practices till the committee began its work. He had heard more about them before he became a commissioner than he had since. He did not even know that the captains were getting rich. He did know, however, that politics had a good deal to do with the force, and that in making appointments he had given preference to those recommended by his political friends. All witnesses who had testified to his detriment, by showing that he had shared in blackmailing and other crimes, had "lied" in his case as in that of Williams. He could give no reason why the Police Board had not discovered that the "department was rotten all the way through," was frank to admit that it would have gone on in that way if the investigation had not taken place, but was sure that a single-headed control would not be a good thing, "because the man at the head would be so busy that he could not know what was going on." As on his own declaration a four-headed commission had been totally ignorant of what was going on, it is very plain that we must look to other authorities than Jimmy for reform suggestions.

The testimony of Superintendent Byrnes seems to clear him of complicity in the levy of blackmail on the small people of the community, but it opens up another field of abuse which is far more difficult to deal with. A system cannot be sound or wholesome which permits a police officer to accumulate a fortune of $300,000 in a few years through gifts or "points" from rich men. These gifts are made either to get him to do his duty, or to get him to do in his official capacity something which is not his duty. In the first case they must be set down as sheer bribery. In the second the officer, while in the public service, allows himself to be secretly hired by wealthy men to devote to their service powers or talents which he owes to the community. In a great city like New York, rich men are constantly getting into "scrapes" of one sort or another from which there is often no legal escape. The aid of a police officer in providing illegal means of escape, or in using his office to overawe or cajole, is often under such circumstances invaluable. We do not mean to say that it should never be rendered. The scandal

and unhappiness to innocent third persons which some kinds of exposure often cause, are so frightful that a great right may often be purchased cheaply by a little wrong. But no police officer ought to receive enormous fees for any such services. If it is right to render them, he owes them for nothing. If it is wrong to render them, he ought not to render them at all. We do not think we exaggerate when we say that a police officer to whom such chances are open, soon begins to look on his salary with contempt, and that, if he is a superior officer, his state of mind very soon comes to the knowledge of his subordinates, and they learn to cast about outside for additions to their pay. With a captain and inspector making strokes of fortune in Wall Street, through police services, it is almost inevitable that the more stupid or less fortunate fellows should come down on the "madames" and the policy-men.

When we come to talk of a remedy, we confess we are puzzled. All government—at least all successful government—is based on the presumption that the bulk of office-holders will be honest and do their duty. For general dishonesty there can be no legal remedy. Our main reliance in securing public servants must be on *character*. Unless we can get commissioners of police and inspectors and captains who have pride enough and self-respect enough to refuse money for doing their duty, we cannot prevent it by legal penalties only. How, for instance, are we to know for long years that a police officer is growing rich through the favors of Wall Street men, and how can we apply penalties unless we have evidence? This makes care in the work of reorganizing the force of enormous importance. It ought to be commanded by men who care for their reputation, and have been bred in some school of honor and duty, and to whom their social standing is precious. The funny political adventurers who would freely go to jail for $1,000, and would, like Fisk's father, tell twelve lies for a York shilling, with whom we have been filling our "bi-partisan commissions" for years past, must be got rid of, or we shall have in a very few years from this time over again the state of things which we are now deploring. In fact, the "bi-partisan commission" is itself the most fertile source of corruption ever concocted, because it makes responsibility impossible.

Mayor Strong has given us a most gratifying indication of the new era which his administration is to open for the city in selecting Col. George E. Waring, jr., as Commissioner of Street-Cleaning. The shock of an appointment like this to the old-timers of politics must be tremendous. Col. Waring is actually not in politics at all. He is merely an engineer, and one of the first professional sanitarians of his time. No such man has entered the Street-Cleaning Department since its formation. We doubt if in the whole country a man more entirely fit for the position could be found. He was the agricultural and drainage engineer of the Central Park at the time of its construction, served throughout the war with distinction, and since that time has been in active practice as an engineer of drainage, acting in that capacity for various towns and cities. He has had experience in the management of large forces of men, is a born organizer and leader, and has no other conception of public office than to conduct it in the best possible manner. In addition to all these qualifications he is a man in the prime of life, with a vigorous constitution, and a knowledge of men and of the world which will make it very difficult for the politicians either to wear him out or to deceive him. Under his direction the problem of cleaning the streets of the city will for the first time be met in a scientific and thoroughly capable manner, and we can have no doubt of the outcome.

The City Club has made an inquiry into the qualifications of the election officials as disclosed by their records at the last election. It is shown that fully three-fourths of them were incompetent, and that the responsibility for their selection rests upon the Police Board. It is also shown that in other respects the administration of this board in regard to election matters is equally bad, and no one can read the facts brought out by the City Club and escape the conclusion that control of elections ought to be taken away from the Police Department entirely, and placed under a separate bureau, like the present Bureau of Elections, with carefully drawn powers and specified duties. Such separation, in addition to giving us more competent election officials, would take away from Platt-Tammany politicians their last excuse for a bi-partisan police board.

The presidents of Indiana colleges, at their conference in Indianapolis on Thursday, decided to prohibit intercollegiate football contests between the students of the institutions over which they preside. Their action will no doubt cause a great outcry, and they will be called "physical wrecks" and enemies of their race and country; but really they must be regarded as the true friends of football. All they legislate against is the abuses of the game, which its hottest advocates admit must somehow be checked or else the whole thing abolished. Indiana students can play the manly game as much as they choose on their own grounds. They can personally collide day after day with a violence and vigor which will assure even Prof. Richards that they will make good citizens and be the safety of the nation in the next great war. All they are to be prohibited from doing is to furnish a public spectacle of brutality, for glory and gate-money. They can take each other off into private corners of the college campus and "knee" and "slug" each other to their heart's content, but they can no longer plunge the athletic alumnus and their sisters and sweethearts into a frenzy of delight by doing it before a yelling audience at $2.50 per seat. It is perhaps too much to hope that our cultured college presidents in the East should follow the example of these Hoosier schoolmasters, but the least they can do with decency is to confine intercollegiate football hereafter to college grounds. Such a step would itself do away with many of the gravest evils connected with the game, though we believe the entire Hoosier programme will yet have to be adopted.

The dissatisfaction with the young Kaiser seems to find every day bolder expression in Germany. Not only have the Socialists been openly disrespectful to him in the Reichstag, but the Berlin architects have been turning him into ridicule. He has declared himself so dissatisfied with the new Reichstag building that he struck the name of Herr Wallot, the architect, off the list of those proposed for the gold medal of the last exhibition and substituted that of a favorite of his own, Mme. Parlághy. Moreover, he ordered the inscription "To the German People" to be erased from the plan of the building originally submitted to him. The painters have now revenged themselves by making the ornaments at their annual banquet bits of ridicule of the Emperor, his taste, and his musical compositions, and of Mme. Parlághy, his favorite painter. No such demonstration could, of course, take place unless there was a good deal of strong popular feeling behind it. It is a fresh illustration of the difficulty, of which we spoke the other day, of setting up a feudal monarchy with a free press and free parliament in a modern state. The Emperor's notion of himself was always ridiculous. During the first few years of his reign he instructed all the first teachers in Germany in the proper methods of instruction, called a convention to elevate the working classes, and told the soldiers they were to obey only God and himself, or rather God through him, and were to shoot their fathers and mothers if he ordered them. His occasional manifestations of his wisdom since then have been in all respects worthy of the Middle Ages, but he has not until now ventured to dispute the judgment of a profession on the merit of one of its own practitioners. Not only has he given a slap in the face to the architects, but he has also given one to the painters, showing that he considers himself a universal genius. He evidently has Frederick the Great in his mind, but forgets how much the world has changed since Frederick reigned. One of the leading German papers has had the courage to call attention to the depreciatory terms in which the foreign press now speaks of their wonderful ruler.

PLATT AND CROKER.

We presume very few people in this city were aware until recently that "Senator" T. C. Platt worshipped in Dr. Parkhurst's church. To those who knew of it Dr. Parkhurst's recent announcement that one Platt was worse than "five Crokers" was extremely startling, because every one felt that no one was so likely to be acquainted with Platt's moral and spiritual condition as his pastor. In politics, too, it is rare for a man's pastor to abandon him. As a rule, his pastor and his wife stick to him to the last, no matter what the world may say of him. Nay, the cases have not been infrequent where "old pastors," from whose spiritual care he has long passed away, come forward when he is in trouble, to testify to the purity of his character and the nobility of his aims. The abandonment of Platt by his pastor, therefore, was not only an unusual event in the spiritual world, and sent a shock of dismay through the country editors, but it left Platt in a condition from which few politicians have ever emerged with credit. But in America the old proverb, "Never despair," has a force and meaning unknown in older societies. Here pastors come and pastors go, but the sinner flows on for ever. Platt is not a man to be dismayed by the loss of one pastor in a town full of clergy. He promptly found another. He met by luck, at a banquet of the Black Lake Fishing Club, a divine who differs from Dr. Parkhurst *toto cœlo*, as Croker says, concerning Platt's character. His name is Dr. Burrell, and he says Platt's character is as good as Dr. Parkhurst said it was bad. In fact, he said it made "his blood boil" to have any one call Platt a bad man. So Platt has gone to his church.

There is a certain force in Dr. Burrell's objection to having Platt likened to Croker as a man. Individually he has a great many points of superiority to Croker. He has, for instance, a lawful occupation. He has never been accused of murder or other legal offence. He has never fought in the ring, or been a street "tough." He has been respectably brought up, and has received a fair education. His circular to the country editors, if his own, was a composition of some literary merit. Though last, not least, he has a pastor, and is a regular attendant at church. But where Dr. Burrell is in error is in supposing that Dr. Parkhurst, or any one else, just now is occupied with Platt as a man. He is considering him as a politician, or, if any one likes the phrase better, as a "boss." At the same time we admit that a man like Dr. Parkhurst is very unlikely to separate the man from the politician in forming moral judgments about him. He does not believe, any more than Mr. Coudert, in two personalities, one wicked and the other righteous, or in two consciences, one tender and the other tough, in the same American citizen. In other words, one cannot abuse Platt the Boss without casting reflections on Platt the pewholder.

Where Dr. Burrell is in error is in supposing that Platt the Boss differs in any essential particular from Croker the Boss. The great difficulty of the situation to-day is that their view of "politics" is the same, and their methods are the same, and their relation to the Legislature is the same. Both are private individuals, with influence, acquired in various ways, over their party in this State. Both receive money for party purposes in the form of blackmail from individuals and corporations; both spend it without rendering any account. Croker clearly retains a large portion of it for his own private use. Of this we are unable to accuse Platt, but this is the only distinction we can make between them. If Dr. Burrell can get his parishioner to sue us for libel for alleging that Platt exacts large sums from corporations, exactly as Croker does or did, and uses it to retain his control of the Legislature, or, in other words, as a vast corruption fund, we shall be exceedingly obliged to him, and he will do the community a great service.

This control of the Legislature, thus acquired, sometimes by direct donation, sometimes by pecuniary help during the canvass, sometimes by the bestowal of office, is used by both in like manner to maintain their hold on the contributors to the corruption fund. By "owning" the Legislature they are able to threaten the corporations, and by threatening the corporations they are able to retain possession of the Legislature. The possession of the Legislature furnishes a basis for a large number of "deals" with the other side, in which not only are the interests of the community disregarded, but, through the indifference to character and fitness which "deals" always involve, a gentle stream of corruption is diffused through the whole population, which makes it difficult to secure any reform until the abuse gets so scandalous, as in the case of the police, as to threaten the social fabric itself.

We are very sure that most intelligent men in this city who have engaged in reform during the past few months are of opinion that the expulsion of Croker from power is only half the work to be done. The other half is the expulsion of Platt from power and the break-up of the system of management which he practises and represents. It belongs to a much earlier age, and is destined surely to perish under the operation of the secret ballot. But we can ill afford to wait for that. We are perfectly sure that any signs of bossism in dealing with city affairs at this juncture will meet with condign punishment at the next election; but it would be hard to have to sit still till then in order to give Platt a fresh lesson. If, therefore, Dr. Burrell can induce him to abandon the boss business, and either sink into obscurity as an expressman, or else devote himself to the support of the Committee of Seventy, he will not only render a great service to Platt's own soul, but to this long-suffering city. Platt's intelligence is apparently not strong. His present rôle gives him a prominence which he is naturally reluctant to relinquish, and he pays small heed to the arguments of Mugwumps and reformers. But if approached by his pastor on the spiritual side, and made to see the moral splendor of the sacrifice which we ask of him, it might be that scales would fall from his eyes, and the real wrong of his present trade be revealed to him.

SOCIALISM (LIMITED).

The new president of the Federation of Labor, John McBride, signalizes his accession to that office and his defeat of the loquacious Gompers by an interview on wealth and its responsibilities and proper distribution. On this subject every labor leader is expected to have pronounced views. Indeed, the main object of labor organizations nowadays is not, as simple-minded people might imagine, to create wealth by work, but to assist in the correct distribution of wealth already created. McBride announces himself as a "limited socialist." By this he means that he would not have the Government take over immediately all forms of production, but only the railroads to begin with, and then, one by one, such industries "as the people may elect from time to time." "As to wealth," observed the limited McBride, "I think that the time has come to prevent the accumulation of vast fortunes"; and he would prevent it by confiscating them to the state, "and thus back into the pockets of the people."

This explanation of limited socialism seems a trifle vague, but we must remember the limited opportunity offered a philosopher in a newspaper interview. Luckily we find the subject treated in ampler style in a book just published by C. Osborne Ward of the United States Department of Labor. Mr. Ward is also a (for the present) limited socialist. He would have the Government display even an excess of caution in nationalizing industry. He would go so slow that the most timid would not take alarm. Like McBride in this respect, he is unlike him in working out his idea in detail, and showing how at least a beginning might be made. It is this that makes his book worth considering. Most socialists have neither the patience nor the head to picture the actual operation of a Government workshop. To work out the details of all industries in Government hands would, indeed, be a task to make the Prussian General Staff throw up its hands in despair. It is much easier to say that the thing ought to be done, and therefore it can be done; that it ought to work well, therefore it will. But Mr. Ward tried his hand at planning a single Government factory, and this is enough to

make his book notable among socialistic publications.

Another reason for calling attention to it is that its title is such as to hide its great merits, if not its aim and meaning, from the casual and unwary reader. It is called 'The Equilibration of Human Aptitudes and Powers of Adaptation,' and is sent forth with flattering notices from the leading Populists in Congress and influential labor organs. The author himself says it is meant to fill "the gap that yawns between Darwin and the millennium." One naturally looks for a great deal of profound reasoning in a book destined to close so wide a crack, and there are, in fact, 174 pages of it, which those, like ourselves, having no head for metaphysics will be glad to skip and come at once to the practical part. Here we have lucidly laid down the process of acquiring control by the Government of railroads, telegraphs, and telephones. We are to start out by "organizing a thoroughly honest political party." The way to do this is to found it "upon principles" and not "ambition." Having got your honest party, it will be safe to buy up the railroads, though we must say there is a suspicious scurrying over pounds, shillings, and pence just here, equal to that of Dickens's treasurer of a charitable society. But with the railroads once owned, it is certain that there would be no strikes or strikers. "How can the striker wish to destroy that which is his own?"

The blessings which would flow from national telegraphs are in like manner considered mainly as affecting labor privileges. When a great blizzard like that of 1888 cuts off communication between New York and Boston, it would not be the rich alone who could cable to London and thence to Boston, but "the humble citizen" could do the same thing. Prof. Commons has shown how the great beauty of municipal street-cars would be that men out of work could ride up and down gratis in search of a job, and now Mr. Ward points out the powerful inducement to nationalizing telegraphs in the fact that men like Debs could send their labor despatches free of cost, blizzard or no blizzard.

But Mr. Ward is at his best, and is also more original, when on the process of "socializing manufacturing industry." We should "never think of opening a manufactory" on Government account, he tells us, in the hope of competing with others. Such a factory would have "a greater and nobler object than that of paltry gain." The hands are to "work less time and receive a little more pay" than others, and naturally there will be an "annual deficit to pay out of the national treasury for a considerable time." But this need make no difference. The new mills will have a great advantage over competitive factories: "They have no desire for profit." Their only desire is "to supply humanity with pure, honest goods." On the other hand, the competitive mill cares for nothing whatever but profit, and "without profit it will languish and die." In this way Mr. Ward thinks gradually to kill off the competitive mills, even if they do for a time combine in secret against the Government mill, and lampoon and libel that institution devoted to pure and honest goods and the welfare of humanity. But he does not see that the process would be far more summary. Their operatives would all desert them on the spot, and take the first train to Washington to get that less work and more pay. This is an old principle of human nature, especially of labor nature, and would work infallibly. It works even with office-holders. When Amos Kendall and Major Lewis were given two offices by Jackson to divide between them, Lewis was given his choice, and promptly elected to take the one in which there was the least work.

Thus it appears that Mr. Ward has hit upon a greater principle than he is aware of. His limited socialism would run into unlimited socialism in a single day. The great principle of scorning profit and paying the difference out of the national treasury would get universal application the moment it got application at all. Mr. Ward's plan might do away with strikes, as he says it would, but it would bring the entire laboring population of the country in a raging mob about that Government factory where higher pay was to be had for less work. An old-fashioned strike, with all its terrors, would be nothing to that. Socialism, in fact, can never be a limited-liability company. Like the folly with which it is advocated by well-meaning men—and Mr. Ward appears to be a thoroughly earnest and well-meaning man—it must be perfectly unlimited.

CHEAPENING PRODUCTION.

Mr. William Garrett, the well-known inventor, of Joliet, Ill., in a recent lecture stated that wire nails are so cheap that it is estimated that if a carpenter drops a nail, it is cheaper to let it lie than to take time to pick it up, and this might suggest the inquiry whether cheap nails make a cheap carpenter. Mr. Garrett's statement has led the *Iron Age* to do some figuring, with interesting results. Assuming that it takes a carpenter ten seconds to pick up a nail which he has dropped, and that his time is worth 30 cents per hour, the recovery of the dropped nail would cost 0.083 cent. There are 200 sixpenny nails in a pound, and they are worth on an average 1.55 cents per pound, making the value of one nail 0.0077 cent. In other words, it would not pay to pick up ten nails at the assumed loss of time and rate of pay of the carpenter. There could not be a more striking illustration of the results of our industrial conditions: the extreme cheapness of manufactured articles per unit and as measured in terms of labor payments per hour or per day.

In the United States the industrial situation proves that high-priced labor is the most efficient; that the cost of production of large quantities is really less per pound or per yard where high wages are paid and in connection with capital and machinery than where low wages are paid to ignorant laborers. This statement of the philosophy of high wages points the way towards improvement in such of our industries as are now feeling more than ever before the competition with the poorly paid labor of foreign countries. The condition of the farmer in the United States is one which merits the attention of all who are trying to forecast the future. Certainly the prices of the great staples are very low. Whether there is any profit to the agricultural producer at present prices is a disputed question. Farmers are everywhere complaining of the lack of profit, but this of itself is not a good criterion of their condition. It is not many years since it was possible for the New Englander or the small farmer from Europe to take up land in the West at a low price per acre, borrow the greater part or even the whole of the capital required, and by the profit from a few years' crops pay off the indebtedness. That he cannot do this now is not an evidence that farming, even at present quotations for products, does not yield some return on the money invested in farms and farm machinery; for it must be remembered that the farmer needs very little cash except to pay interest and taxes—his living and that of his family being practically assured from his own land. The advantages of house-rent, food, and fuel, which figure so largely in the expenses of the city artisan, are not enough considered by the average farmer when he thinks upon his condition. Yet, when all is said, it must be admitted that the lot of the grower of farm products for export is a hard one.

The attention of the world has lately been drawn to the wheat-grower. In England the profits of wheat production have steadily declined, principally under the competition of American breadstuffs; and it is now America's turn to prepare for the competition of other countries. We have every reason to believe that the world's production of wheat, or at least that portion of it which is sold in European markets, will for a time be large. The Argentine Republic has been increasing its exports of wheat largely of late. There is no reason for doubting that the building of the great Russian railway through Siberia will bring upon the world's markets an increasing quantity of wheat from the fertile lands of Siberia—lands which somewhat resemble the wheat-growing acres of our own Northwest, but from which there has not been until now any cheap outlet. Our consul-general at St. Petersburg says there is a large emigration from Russia to Siberia, where land can be hired at $1.70 per acre, and where laborers receive 15 and 21 cents a day, taking the Russian ruble at its gold valuation. The net return to the farmer in the interior of the Argentine Republic is set down at 37 cents per bushel of wheat in gold,

about the price which our own farmers in Dakota and Minnesota are now obtaining for their grain.

From this brief statement of facts it is evident that the struggle for the wheat markets of the world for the next few years must be one wherein the fittest will survive. Under these circumstances it is important to remember that the growing of wheat, like the manufacture of nails, is not a question of price but of profit. The problem that is set before the farmers and the people of the United States is this: How shall we apply to the staple crops the improvements which, in manufacturing, now allow the outturn of 125 six-penny wire nails for one cent? It must be admitted that the problem is even more difficult of solution in agriculture than in manufactures, yet apparently we have entered upon an era when the question of cheapening the cost of farming must be considered if we are to hold our own in exports against countries whose soil is as fertile as ours, and where labor cheaper than ours, but correspondingly inefficient, is employed. In spite of the improvements in farm machinery, such as in ploughs and mowing-machines, we are still using some methods of agriculture which have not greatly changed since the days of the Pharaohs. For example, farming greatly needs a new motive power. It is possible that this new power may come from the application of electricity in some form to agriculture. If so, we shall see the horse and the mule driven from domestic use on farms just as we have seen them driven from our surface railroads by the introduction of the trolley. The problem of producing our great staple crops at the cheaper cost per pound or per bushel is one of the great questions of our day. It may be that the problem will be solved by the application of other forces than human or animal power, and if so we may assume that it will be in cotton-planting, as it has proved to be in cotton-spinning, that the new methods will demand higher intelligence, and therefore will pay high wages for the laborer, though at a reduced cost per unit of production or manufacture.

The past history of our people warrants the belief that they will meet the new conditions of competition and overcome them by inventions, and in general by the application of brains to their business. Cotton can now be grown in Texas at 2½ cents per pound. Has there been a corresponding reduction in the cost of growing wheat? We have no data for answering this question, but we are confident that there will be such a reduction, since the cheapening of nails and of everything that the farmer buys is *pro tanto* a cheapening of his cost of production.

CHRISTIAN UNITY.

The Paris *Figaro* published, a few days ago, a despatch from Rome to the effect that the Pope was anxious to do in the West what he had just succeeded in doing in the East; and that, with the object of effecting a union of the churches, he intends drawing together at the Vatican a number of Catholic prelates of England and America, in order to confer with them as to the best means of realizing his plan. It was added in this despatch that the Pope particularly desires the advice of Cardinals Gibbons and Taschereau.

The information that the Pope had succeeded in the East in bringing about church unity, or even Christian unity, cannot have failed to astonish profoundly every one who has been following the papal endeavors in that direction. To speak of it as a success is unwarranted by facts; for the truth is that these endeavors have completely failed. Pope Leo's encyclical exhorting the rulers and nations of the world to effect Christian unity by submission to the See of Rome failed to produce any impression upon the Lutheran and the Greek. Then it was proposed to invite the orthodox Greek Episcopate to meet in Rome in order to discuss the question of uniting the Greek and the Roman creeds. This plan had to be given up, as the adherents of the Greek Church showed a very marked disinclination to being absorbed by the Roman Catholic Church. The introduction of the old Slavic liturgy, which was expected to give a mighty impulse to the Roman-Greek propaganda, led, on the other hand, to open mutiny and revolt on the part of Roman Catholic rural communities against their clerical leaders. Consequently the Vatican had to cut down those invitations to the members of the dissenting churches of the Orient, the "Oriental Dissenters," who were to be persuaded into acknowledging the authority and supremacy of the Pope.

But even this programme, minimized as it was, proved impracticable. All the opinions handed down by Eastern propagandists concurred in the assertion that more than individual submissions to the Roman Church could not be expected. Thus the programme had to be curtailed once more; the conference to be held at Rome had to be limited to the question of more closely linking to Rome the Oriental churches which are already united with the papal church. It is generally known that the Roman Church has supported, for centuries, a very active and expensive propaganda in Asiatic Turkey; it is aided, financially and diplomatically, by France since the Turkish sultans accorded to the Frenchmen a protectorate over the Catholics in the Orient. Even the curtailed programme, now almost mutilated into a nonentity, turned out to be impracticable. Of the five Oriental patriarchs, only the Melchitic and Syrian answered the call, whereas the Maronitic and Chaldaic patriarchs sent substitutes, while the Armenian patriarch stayed away; it is said that the Turkish Government prevented him, by main force, from going to Rome. The result of the conferences was absolutely negative. The Oriental dignitaries did not make the slightest concessions; they asserted their full independence; nay, they even demanded the revocation of a certain papal decree concerning mixed marriages. This was the outcome of what the Roman despatch to the *Figaro* calls the "successful" efforts at Christian unity.

This outcome is anything but surprising. The idea of gathering the entire Christian world into one grand body, to bring about a unity of faith and a unity of government, is sublime—too sublime to be realized. It resembles other Utopian fancies, such as the eternal peace and the general disarmament. This opinion is corroborated by no less a personage than Cardinal Gibbons, whose advice, according to the *Figaro* despatch, the Pope is so anxious to hear. To be sure, the cardinal, in his comments on the encyclical, wholly commends the Pope's great scheme; but, speaking of "another cry for unity," that from the Parliament of Religions at the World's Fair, he firmly expresses his disbelief in the possibility "that such endeavors for Christian unity can accomplish their purpose." Such efforts, he says, will not induce the Calvinist to give up his predestination or the Methodist his particular doctrines. The Lutheran will not add to his two sacraments, nor the Episcopalian to his three. The Anglican and the Greek will continue to deny Roman supremacy, and the Catholic cannot be separated from the see of Rome.

The cardinal points out the difficulty of making us "sink our individual differences," and the absence of a bond so strong that "by its cogency it would compel all to put aside their individual conceptions and private opinions, and to accept a common universal creed or formula of faith and a uniform code of morality." Religion consists, as Cardinal Gibbons asserts, not only in charity, but also in doctrines and dogmas; "doctrine must precede practice, principles must precede actions." This point of view accepted, why should it apply only to a "parliament of religion" and lose its argumentative strength with a papal encyclical? The authority of the Pope in religious matters does not extend beyond the circle of his church; the non-Catholics are sharply opposed to the Roman dogmas, while those who have outgrown any kind of dogmas are quite as certain not to submit to the Vatican. To expect a church to submit to, and be absorbed by, a "centre of Christian truths" would be equivalent to asking for its disruption.

The idea of church unity, or, in the parlance of the Vatican, "the return of the prodigal sons to the paternal house," is by no means an invention of the nineteenth century. As far back as the fifteenth century the Roman Church negotiated with the Greek Government and clergy, who, scared by the Osmanic invasion, entreated the assistance of the Pope. But finally, in spite of all endeavors towards unity and reconcilia-

tion brought to bear at the Florence council, the patriarch of Constantinople, the urban and rural clergy, and the monks of Mount Athos declared their preference for the secular yoke of the Turks over the spiritual yoke of the Roman Church. From 1552 to 1560 numerous attempts were made to bring the Protestants back to the Roman fold. Peaceable endeavors failing, the Pope, King Philip II., Emperor Ferdinand III., and the Jesuits found it easier to convert the recalcitrant schismatics after the Bismarckian fashion of blood and iron. The papal church has never for a moment resigned its claim to superior power and primacy, but none of its frequent efforts at establishing this claim has been successful, and the explanation of these failures is given in Cardinal Gibbons's own words, notwithstanding the fact that they were not intended to be applied against that hereditary claim of the Catholic Church.

SOME CONTINENTAL LIBRARIES—IV.

FLORENCE, December 10, 1894.

PASSING over Florence for the present, since our winter's stay in that city would give opportunity for a more extensive acquaintance with its libraries later on, our next bibliothecal visits were to several of the Roman libraries. Of these, we saw the Vittorio Emanuele, the central one of the Government libraries, the library of the Vatican, and the private collection of MSS. and fifteenth-century editions known as the Boncompagni Library. A catalogue of this collection by Enrico Narducci was printed in 1893, and noticed by the *Library Journal* at the time of its appearance. A visit to this library was a privilege I could not have expected, as the villa (the Ludovisi) is entirely closed to visitors this year; but, through the proffered courtesy of his Excellency the Duke of Fiano, I was enabled to spend two mornings in turning over a number of its most curious and interesting MSS. and handling many of its rare editions, as well as to see the "Aurora" and the "Fame" of Guercino, which adorn the ceilings of two of the palace rooms through which we passed.

The Vittorio Emanuele occupies a central position in the building of the Collegio Romano, though its entrance, on a narrow side street, is rather hard to find. The first floor is used partly for the reading, reference, and catalogue rooms, while its collection of several hundred thousand volumes and pamphlets is placed largely on the two floors above. The law of 1873, suppressing the religious orders in Rome, and making over their property to the Government, led to the appropriation of various conventual libraries and to their consolidation under the title of Biblioteca Vittorio Emanuele, and three years later the library was opened to the public, with a collection of 120,000 volumes arranged and catalogued. Of the sixty-nine monastic libraries forming its basis, that of the Jesuits, of 50,000 volumes, was the largest and most valuable. As might be expected from the method of its formation, the Vittorio Emanuele has a preponderance of theological works and a great many duplicates. I was told that there were as many as thirty or forty copies of some works, and I could easily believe it as I looked at the rows of duplicates lining the corridors and occupying the whole of several rooms, both shelves and floor. Order is rapidly being brought out of this chaos, however, and the library intends before long to publish a list of its duplicates, with a view to disposing of them. As there are many desirable and rare works among them, the opportunity will be an interesting one for collectors.

Other prominent features of the library are its collection of Chinese and Japanese books, the cataloguing of which is soon to be undertaken by one of the professors of the University; of Aldines and Elzevirs; of bibliography; and of works concerning the "Risorgimento Italiano," as the gradual emergence of united Italy from its long complication of disorders is called. A fund, formerly of 4,000 lire and now of 2,000 per year, has been provided for the growth of this last collection. Especial treasures of the library are a copy of Petrarch's Sonnets, of St. Augustine's 'De Civitate Dei,' and of Tacitus, all of Venice, 1470, from the press of Vindelinus de Spira. The only palimpsest is one of St. Augustine over Pliny, which is somewhat injured by an unsuccessful attempt to restore the original. A case that especially interested me was one containing old printed copies of pasquinades. A copy of the "Trionfi" of Petrarch contained a curious illustration in xylography, thought to be the earliest attempt at that kind of printing.

Ninety-four rooms of the Vittorio Emanuele are devoted to its collection, many of them, however, being small rooms in which only special collections are placed. Bound periodicals and works in process of publishing have separate rooms assigned them. The usual arrangement of the main library is by form rather than subject-matter. The general reading-room was fairly well filled at the hour at which I visited it, eleven A. M. One of the tables was reserved for women, but was not occupied at the moment. The library has, in all its public rooms together, about three hundred places for readers and students, according to its report of 1893. The periodical-room is devoted entirely to the use of current periodicals, of which 349 may be found in this room. I noticed, among those in English, the *Nineteenth Century* and the *Contemporary Review*. Two hundred and nine periodicals in English are reported as possessed by the library, but as no distinction is made in the report between bound sets and current subscriptions, this number must represent both.

The reference-room is chiefly for professors, literary men, and the more serious class of students. Its shelves are full of works of reference, to which visitors may help themselves, and an attendant is always present to give assistance if needed. Not more than three or four persons were seated at the two long tables in this attractive room, and the perfect silence attested their absorption in their work. The bibliographical room, opening out of this, contained a good working collection of bibliography, including various semi-trade publications. I missed, however, such works as Cushing's 'Anonyms' and 'Pseudonyms,' though the similar work of Halkett and Laing for English literature stood on the shelves. The 'American Catalogue' and 'Poole's Index' with its continuations held a prominent place, however. I have noticed in booksellers' shops here that the 'English Catalogue' and the *Publishers' Circular* seem to be the only source of information as to books printed in English; so that an American book, unless reprinted in England, would be quite unknown to dealers here. When one considers, also, that the editions of American authors chiefly *en évidence* on this side are those of the Tauchnitz Library, under the head of "British Authors," and of the "English Library" of Heinemann & Co., it is not to be wondered at that there should be a certain doubt and haziness in the minds of the Continental peoples as to American achievements in literature.

In the cataloguing-rooms I found exemplified the use of the Leyden catalogue to a greater extent than I had yet seen it. Three rooms are already devoted to the catalogue itself, the walls being lined with the small books containing the cards, while the entrance-room is for the use of persons applying for books. The Leyden books can be opened at the back, and fresh cards inserted in the proper places without difficulty, as most persons familiar with library systems know. The shelves are labelled with syllables indicating the contents of the book standing above each label; and the book itself, with a number indicating its place on the shelves. "But when these books are full?" I asked. "Ah, then," with a shrug, "another room!" And therein lies the objection, not only to Leyden, but to all card catalogues. It was gratifying to see the facility with which people used the system, several men and two women being engaged in consulting the catalogue during the short time that I remained in the room. Having made a list of the books wanted and given it in at the desk, the applicant retires to the reading-room or reference-room, as the case may be, and waits for his books to be brought. If he intends to come in the evening, he must engage his books during the day, as no books are brought from the collection in the evening. This is owing to the difficulty of providing artificial light for so large a building, and to the reduced number of attendants on duty in the evening.

More than 156,000 volumes were given to more than 88,000 readers during the year 1892, from the latest report. For reading away from the library something over 7,000 volumes were lent, while 207 were received from other libraries as loans. When I asked in regard to the method of obtaining books for home reading, the usual reply was given, "There are many formalities to be gone through," and I found, as I supposed, that the rules in force at the library of St. Mark were the same as here. Owing to some ambiguity in the printed rules, I find I minimized the difficulties, in my letter from Venice, in stating that citizens did not require a guarantor in order to draw books for home use. The rule for them is the same as for strangers, except that their guarantor may be any one of a long list of officials named, while strangers are limited to their consul or his representative.

Fifty-three thousand lire was the sum expended on books in 1892. The exchange of Government publications with other countries is a source of growth to the Vittorio Emanuele, and the long rows of our own sheep-bound documents were almost the only American publication of any extent that I observed on the shelves. The library is also one of those designated by the Government as repositories for one copy each of every work printed in Italy. As I made the rounds of the many rooms under the able conduct of Signor Luciani, conservator of MSS., I was continually impressed with the work that had been accomplished in only twenty years in making a well-rounded collection out of such a confusion of material, and in informing the whole with so modern and progressive a spirit.

The Vatican Library, as shown to strangers, is apparently "'Hamlet' with *Hamlet* left out," as, with the exception of a few MS. trea-

sures, shown under glass, there is no collection of books or MSS. visible. But the entire walls of the long rooms traversed are bordered with closed cases filled with *codici*, to the presence of which the custodian testifies by occasionally opening one of the doors. But admission, even to this part of the library, seems to go by favor. One party is admitted, the next is told that the rooms are not open to visitors. On comparing experiences with various other persons, some of whom had and some of whom had not been allowed to enter, we found it impossible to guess at the principle of selection influencing the custodians, and contented ourselves with being thankful that we had been among the elect. Of the treasures exhibited in this part of the library a brief list may be given, little idea as it can yield of the impression made by the sight of them. There were letters written by Luther, by Henry VIII., and by Anne Boleyn, the juxtaposition suggesting the whole drama of the English Reformation; a MS. of Thomas Aquinas; an illuminated sixth-century MS. copy of the 'Æneid'; a copy of Pliny's 'Natural History,' opened at a page illustrated by Raphael; a splendid breviary belonging to Matthias Corvinus, the old book-collecting King of Hungary; the famous Codex Vaticanus; and St. Augustine's Commentary on the Psalms over Cicero's 'Republic'—a most interesting palimpsest.

Fascinating as this part of the Vatican collection is, it was not new to me, and was not the part I was most desirous of seeing, and, after having succeeded in finding the prefect, Monsignor Carini, I had no difficulty in obtaining entrance to the Biblioteca Leonina, as the new part of the library is called. The entrance is through the courtyard of the palace and up two flights of stairs, bringing one to an anteroom lined with portraits of the cardinal librarians of the past, among which are some very fine faces. In conversation with Monsignor Carini, before visiting the library, he remarked that it is only two or three years since it was thrown open unreservedly to students, having been regarded by previous pontiffs as their private library. The alacrity with which the privileges now offered have been seized upon by students from all over the world is very gratifying to Pope Leo and to the entire administration, of which Cardinal Capecelatro, Archbishop of Capua, is the head. The prefect added that women were not yet admitted to the library as students, but I reminded him that Miss Williams, an American woman, had published a year or two ago a study of Raphael's 'Hours' from cartoons found in the collection, through the courtesy of the authorities. He admitted that an exception had then been made, and spoke also of the case of another American woman (Mrs. Nuttall) who had been engaged in the study of some Mexican documents.

The MSS. room, in which students are occupied in consulting various *codici* from the cupboards we had previously seen, is presided over by the Prefect. If printed works bearing on the subject of a codex are required, the student may go below to the consultation-rooms, where there is a card catalogue, find what he wants, and have it taken up to the MSS. room. The library hours are from nine to one until after Easter, then from eight to twelve until July 1st, when the three months' vacation begins. It would not do to stand too long gazing into the Promised Land, already occupied by an advance-guard, and I followed the Prefect to the consultation-rooms, between the MSS. room and the Archives, where two members of his staff succeeded to the task of explanation. In order to obtain space for this library of consultation, rooms formerly used as an armory were taken, provided with an enclosed staircase leading to the MSS. room and with a passage to the Archives, protected against dampness by the construction of vaults underneath, and finally put under the protection of St. Thomas Aquinas by placing here a fine statue of him, a gift to Pope Leo. The Angelic Doctor thus became, to use the phrase of Mons. Ugolini in his interesting brochure on the library, "l'angelo tutelare della nuova biblioteca." The main rooms, seven in number, not including the Archives, are finely lighted, furnished with plenty of tables and chairs, and the books, many of them in new and handsome bindings, render the walls most attractive. Considering that the purchase of books for the express use of students of the *codici* has but recently begun, the collection is already a useful one and of considerable size. An excellent card catalogue has been made and is free to students.

The arrangement of the books on the shelves was peculiar, and offered a new method of "relative location," to use a technical term; but an account of it would be of too limited interest for insertion here. The space nearest the staircase in the library of consultation contains the works likely to be needed by students of *codici*, arranged partly by subject, partly by language, and partly by form; the remaining space being given to works needed by students of the archives, arranged by countries. These consist largely of gifts from the countries themselves, sent in answer to a general notice from the Pope of the projected opening of the library to the public and a request for State publications. England sent the Calendar of State Papers, Chronicles and Memorials of Great Britain and Ireland, Calendar of Documents of Scotland, etc.; but all that can be said of the American section is said by Mons. Ugolini in his brochure: "To America has been assigned a separate section near that of England." Since American scholars, and through them the people at large, have already begun to profit by the treasures of the Vatican Library, does it not seem as if an attempt should be made towards recognition of the fact?

Aside from the library of consultation, there are three rooms in this wing, containing the collections of printed books owned by the Popes previous to the founding of the new library. These are known as the Palatine, the Ara Cœli, the Zelada, and the Mai collections; the last two named from the cardinals who gathered and owned them. New rooms have been provided also for the Archives, and into one of these I was privileged to look through a glass door, with the usual result of seeing darkly. However, it was not the study-room, which is forbidden even to the eye of woman. Is it because women cannot keep a secret? There must be some important ones in all such collections, and there is no telling to what degree of deprivation Eve's unfortunate curiosity may have condemned all her daughters.

Nothing may be removed from the library even to other parts of the palace without the express permission of the Pope, and any one transgressing this rule, or intentionally mutilating a book, document, plate, etc., is subject not only to the legal penalties for such cases made and provided, but to that of major excommunication. From this not even the cardinal librarian would be exempt, should he wilfully err. This is a papal prerogative which many a librarian in our own country would like to have transferable for use in extreme cases in his own library. A telephonic apparatus for use through the library makes the work of administration easier, but seemed almost as incongruous among the *codici* as the little incandescent-wire light which I found in a side chapel at St. Mark's. The quarrel between comfort and convenience on the one hand, and picturesqueness and congruity on the other, is likely to continue, however, during the next century, if indeed all the picturesqueness be not dead long before the century closes.

MARY W. PLUMMER.

PRINCE EUGENE.—II.

PARIS, December 18, 1894.

AFTER the departure of Murat, Prince Eugene assumed the heavy task of representing the Emperor in Germany. He had already many doubts as to the fidelity of the Austrians and the Saxons; he was uneasy about Italy, uneasy about the health of his wife. Marshal Ney, after his great effort in Russia, had left the army; many generals had gone back to France; the troops were utterly demoralized. Napoleon wrote letter after letter urging Eugene to keep and garrison all the strongholds—Cüstrin, Glogau, Spandau; but the Russian armies were slowly advancing, and Prussia was all ready to join their cause. He was fortunate enough, before leaving for Italy, to take part (and a very important part) in the battle of Lützen. Napoleon placed under his orders all the troops which were in Italy and the Illyrian provinces. Eugene left Dresden, stopped a moment at Munich, and six days afterwards found at Milan his wife and his children—Joséphine, already six years old, Eugénie, and Auguste.

Napoleon's position was becoming more and more difficult. Murat was on the point of joining the Allies; the King of Bavaria had already done so, and sent Prince Thurn und Taxis to his son-in-law, offering him, if he would join the cause of the Allies, the crown of Italy—a tempting offer to a man of thirty-two, who must have felt that Napoleon would in the end succumb before the coalition. But Eugene would not abandon the French cause; he refused the proposition made to him. He wrote from Verona, November 29, 1813, to his sister, Queen Hortense (married to Louis, the King of Holland): "An Austrian *parlementaire* asked, at our outpost, permission to hand me very important papers. I had just mounted. I went and found an aide-de-camp of the King of Bavaria, who had been under my orders in the late campaign. He was sent to make me the finest propositions for myself and my family, and the King assured me that the Allies were willing to guarantee me the kingdom of Italy. All this was seasoned with many protestations of friendship. It would have been very seductive for anybody but myself." His wife, Princess Augusta, had ceased to have any direct relations with her own family since Bavaria had declared war against France.

The campaign of 1813 was the closing chapter in Eugene's military career. While some of the Emperor's lieutenants were beaten in Germany, Eugene achieved successes over the Austrians in Italy, and maintained all his possessions. Napoleon, who was fighting in France itself against overwhelming forces, never gave Eugene positive orders to join him in France. The latter was consequently in great embarrassment, as Murat was preparing to take arms against Napoleon. He wrote to the Em-

peror asking for positive orders. Napoleon told him to retreat on the Alps in case Murat should declare war against France. Eugene began at once a retrograde movement, but Murat did not formally come out. The order which Eugene had received was conditional; nevertheless, Napoleon blamed Eugene for not having properly interpreted it. Eugene was very much grieved on hearing of Napoleon's anger. Thiers, in his 'History of the Empire,' says: "Napoleon recalled Prince Eugene to France only at the end of January, when the Prince was engaged in the most difficult operations, and could retreat only after a victory. He could not be in Lyons before the end of March, and at that moment Napoleon must be conqueror or vanquished. [The Allies had determined to make a winter campaign.] Besides, this retreat was the voluntary abandonment of Italy—that is to say, the loss of a pledge which, in the Congress at Châtillon, was to be of the highest value. Though Napoleon was fighting now only for the line of the Rhine, to have in his hands the Mincio and the Po, and to keep them firmly, was a way of making easier the concession of the Rhine by way of compensation."

Napoleon had become so suspicious that he forbade the Vice-Queen to remain in Italy for her approaching confinement; she intended to remain at Monza, but received an order to go to Paris. "I am indignant," she writes to Eugene on the 19th of February, 1814, "and I don't wonder people abandon Napoleon. Could anybody be more ungrateful? You, who sacrifice everything for him, who do wonders, receive only reproaches. . . . But nothing ought to hinder us from following the path of virtue and honor to the last day of our life." She evidently sees the end coming, and speaks of going to America with her husband, for "she is truly disgusted with the great things of this world." It is interesting to find Napoleon, in the midst of his extraordinary campaign in France, marching between Blücher and Schwarzenberg, fighting at Laon, at Craonne, yet finding time to write from Soissons to Eugene (March 12, 1814):

"My son, I have a letter from you and one from the Vice-Queen, both extravagant to the last degree. You must have lost your heads. It was from a sentiment of dignity that I desired that the Vice-Queen should come to Paris for her confinement, and I knew her too well to think that she would like to be in that state in the midst of Paris. I might have written before, but then Paris was threatened; since it is so no longer, nothing is more simple. . . . It is not flattering to our age that your answer to the King of Bavaria should have procured for you the esteem of all Europe; as for myself, I cannot pay you any compliment, as you have merely done your duty, which is a simple thing."

Napoleon had perhaps a right to write in this style to his adopted son, to the man who owed everything to him; he was mistaken when he thought that Paris was safe. Eugene gained a battle over the Austrians under Bellegarde on the Mincio. On the 15th of February, Murat threw off the mask and declared war on France. Fouché had been his counsellor, and had secretly seen him at Modena; Fouché had also seen Eugene. He says in his Memoirs, which are now rare: "Eugene confessed to me that Murat had secretly offered to divide Italy with him, after having sent away the French troops, and that he had repulsed this extravagant offer; that his declaration of war threw him (Eugene) into the greatest possible embarrassment, and that he did not think that he could hold his position long if Murat helped the Austrians with any spirit."

The first successes of Napoleon kept Murat for some time undecided, but after a while his troops advanced. The Vice-Queen was obliged to leave Milan and to shut herself up in the fortress of Mantua, as she was very near her confinement. Soon after her departure, Eugene received the news of the capitulation of Paris. All was now over. Napoleon signed his abdication at Fontainebleau; in this act of abdication he renounced the thrones of France and of Italy, and stipulated in the treaty of the 10th of April that a suitable establishment should be made by the Allied Powers for his adopted son in Italy. The King of Bavaria wrote to Eugene, April 11, 1814: "The Allies wish you well, my dear Eugene." On the 13th of April the Princess was delivered of her fifth child, a princess, in Mantua. What was to become of Eugene? He concluded an armistice with Bellegarde, and made solemn adieux to his French troops, who were sent back to France. He took leave of the Italians, and reminded them that he had been their ruler for nine years; he then left with his wife and children for Munich, where his father-in-law had offered him a shelter.

Eugene, in the new circumstances in which he was placed, found a generous and warm support in the Emperor Alexander of Russia. Leaving his wife and children in Munich, he set out alone for France, at the call of his mother, Josephine. He wrote on the 9th of May to his wife:

"My good Augusta, I arrived this morning at Malmaison very early. I found the Emperor and my sister [Hortense] in very good health. . . . I could not come here without presenting myself to the King of France after an authorization to appear at the Tuileries. Louis XVIII. received me very well, and inquired after you with much interest. . . . But now to our own affairs. We must not expect to be very well treated. They all want to divide the cake among themselves."

Eugene, we must say frankly, falls from his high pedestal of a hero in this new period which follows the abdication of Napoleon. It is said that when he was introduced to Louis XVIII., he was announced as the Marquis de Beauharnais, and that Louis XVIII. interfered and said to his gentleman in waiting: "Say Prince Eugene." The recognition of Eugene as a Prince, the kindness shown to him by the Emperor Alexander, the favor shown to Queen Hortense, who was recognized as Duchess of Saint-Leu, with a pension of 400,000 francs a year, make one think of certain verses which are found in one of Victor Hugo's poems:

"Et battez-vous pour des Altesses
Qui se feront des politesses
Pendant que vous, vous pourrirez?"

Eugene was certainly a good husband and father, and thought much of his family. His fame would have something more poetical about it if he had tied himself body and soul to the man who was his adopted father, and who had lifted him to his own Olympus. We can understand easily what the feelings of Napoleon were when, during the Hundred Days, Prince Eugene remained neutral, and did not join a cause which was thought desperate.

When Josephine died at Malmaison, the Emperor Alexander was at her death-bed with Eugene and Queen Hortense. They buried her in the little church at Rueil, and on her monument may be read these simple words: "À Joséphine—Eugène, Hortense." During the Hundred Days Napoleon paid a visit to Malmaison. Eugene was then at Vienna, where the European Congress had met and was holding its sittings. The Allies only half trusted him, and he writes to his wife that he has spies round him. By the protection of Alexander, Eugene was allowed afterwards to live in Munich with his family, while the castle of Bayreuth was prepared for him. After the downfall of Napoleon he became the Duke of Leuchtenberg. Napoleon mentioned him with affection in his will, and left him the golden candlestick which he used at Saint Helena. Eugene lived now entirely for his family; he had in his palace a room in which he preserved carefully all the objects which Napoleon had given him.

Prince Eugene died on the 21st of February, 1824. His monument, in white marble, was made by Thorwaldsen, and on the cross which surmounts it were engraved the two French words, "Honneur et fidélité." His eldest daughter, Joséphine, had become in his lifetime Queen of Sweden. Two years after his death, the second daughter, Eugénie, married the reigning Prince Frederic of Hohenzollern-Hechingen; the third became the wife of Dom Pedro, Emperor of Brazil. His eldest son, Auguste, married Doña Maria de Gloria, Queen of Portugal, but died of consumption at the age of twenty-four. The second son married the daughter of the Emperor Nicholas, the Grand Duchess Maria of Russia, and was made Imperial Highness. The son of this Duke is the present Duke of Leuchtenberg.

Correspondence.

CURRENCY REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I break silence so far as to give expression to reflections which I hear on all sides?

Mr. Carlisle has prepared a bill which involves nothing less than a revolution in our whole system of currency. Why should that bill be left to find its way to Congress through the roundabout channel of a standing committee? Why should the conduct of that bill in the House be left to Mr. Springer, member from a district in Illinois, instead of the responsible head of the national finances? Why should the debate proceed from the point of view of local, party, and private interests, without the intervention of any person representing the whole country, the administrative system, or the Treasury? Why is the Secretary of the Treasury confined to buttonholing members or dancing attendance in the lobby?

If Mr. Carlisle could stand up before 356 men and show the country that he was master of his subject, had thought out and was prepared to meet every objection and argument, his bill probably would (and there would be good reason why it should) pass into law. If, on the other hand, he was brought to confusion and self-contradiction, showing both ignorance and incapacity, the President would be obliged to accept his resignation and take some other man—probably that member of the party who had shown himself strongest in debate, and who would gladly resign his membership for the honor, even though the chances were of his speedily losing both and being sent to join Mr. Carlisle. By and by a man would appear who could hold his own against all comers, precisely as if the object sought were a champion billiard-player or prize-fighter, and then the applause and outcry of the whole country would compel Congress to adopt his views.

All this seems so simple and obvious that most people conclude that there must be some

fatal constitutional objection. There is none at all except the obstinacy with which Congress clings to its usurpation of all the powers of government. The 356 equal members don't want to see anybody admitted who holds a place superior to theirs; to give the executive any share in the Government except that of a blind instrument to carry out their commands; to see any body representing the interest of the whole country coming to interfere with the private schemes and party combinations which are their very reason of existence. The fact will have to be faced that the interest of the country and the interest of Congress under its present methods are diametrically opposed. The greatest political problem of the future, far overshadowing in importance the currency or the tariff or civil-service reform, is which of these interests is going to prevail.

If the President would send a message to Congress asking that the Senate committee report of February 4, 1881, should be put into practice, or even that the Secretary of the Treasury should be allowed to develop his plans in public debate in the House, he would do the country a political service such as no President has done since Abraham Lincoln. If Congress was still sulky and obstinate, what finer issue could there be to take to the country in the next Presidential campaign? G. B.

Boston, December 22, 1894.

EXPLORATIONS IN CRETE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prof. Halbherr returned to Rome this week after an absence of an entire year in Crete, where, as is known to many of your readers, he has been engaged in archæological work for the American Institute of Archæology. I have had the pleasure of examining some of the objects found, the drawings of many others, topographical plans of several ancient sites that have been carefully studied, and the copies of some two hundred inscriptions found; and I feel fully justified in saying that the results of the year's explorations are greater than have ever before been secured by any archæologist in Crete, except by Prof. Halbherr himself in his earlier labors, and even these are surpassed by the variety of the present harvest and by the lapse of time over which it extends. His inscriptions form a series from about six centuries before Christ on to Christian times, while the other objects go back to the second millennium before our era and close with imperial Rome. Those who have looked to Crete as a necessary factor in the solution of the question of prehistoric Greece and the early civilization of the Levant will find here much food for study and comparison.

A short résumé may be of interest. Among the vases from various sites, those of the so-called Theran type appear to be the earliest; then follow the Mycenæan, in varying stages, from the earliest till they mass into the geometric style and advance towards archaic Greek. Some of the terra-cotta statuettes present a peculiar stamp which Prof. Halbherr inclines to assign to the Eteocretans; others repeat the well-known attitude of the Cypriote goddess. A number of steatite stones, apparently employed as amulets, are of an extremely archaic cast, and some of them are incised, on one or more faces, with figures and marks, which will be studied in connection with the theory of a prehistoric hieroglyphic and syllabic system of writing in Crete. These stones were employed also in the historic Greek epoch, and some specimens are thought to be Gnostic. The question of burning and of inhumation in the Mycenæan period gains evidence from both sides. At Erganos, in the beehive tombs, inhumation was alone employed; elsewhere incineration was found to be usual. On two sites it was possible to discern the remains of the Mycenæan palace, though the interior plan was hardly to be traced.

Among sculptural remains are several important pieces from Gortyna, metopes of different epochs, a noble head of a goddess, and some heads of distinguished Romans. Two terra-cotta heads are of great beauty, and a relief of a dancing girl, with a somewhat novel motive, is very charming. Some other specimens are not without interest.

No inscription of great length, like the famous Code of Gortyna, has rewarded the explorer's efforts, but many are of great value from the epigraphic and dialectic point of view. Gortyna has yielded a number, of the archaic boustrophedon epoch, from the period of the closed *eta* onward, and one is boustrophedon in the Ionic alphabet. They represent decrees, laws, treaties, etc. The Macedonian has a notable series, one of which gives a fixed date (so rare in Cretan inscriptions) in the reign of Demetrius Poliorcetes. The most important belonging to the Roman days is a Latin rescript, which will be edited by Prof. Mommsen, who has taken great interest in it.

Prof. Halbherr's explorations have covered two-thirds of the eastern part of Crete, embracing twenty-one journeys from his headquarters at Candia, so that he may be said to have garnered the harvest there of archæological material so thoroughly that systematic excavations will next be necessary before much further advance can be made.

Dr. Taramelli, a pupil of Prof. Halbherr's, was of great assistance to him in the early summer, after which he travelled in western Crete until he was attacked by a fever that prostrated him completely, and he was sent home. He has now so far recovered that it is expected that he will be able to contribute an article on early pottery to the publication to be made by the Institute.

Prof. Halbherr is to be congratulated upon the success that has crowned his labors, in the midst of enormous difficulties, which he has surmounted with rare patience and sagacity. Among his other services, epigraphists will thank him for the cast which he has had taken of the great Gortynian inscription, thus securing a permanent record of it, even should the original be destroyed. A. C. Merriam.

Rome, December 6, 1894.

A CHAPTER OF ALASKA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *New England Magazine* for January, 1895, appears a most grotesque "Chapter of Alaska"; it is not only grotesque, but the writer of it has been shamefully imposed upon, for no sane man, knowing the history of Charles Bryant, would attempt to place that person in the position which the author of this article does.

In the first place, Capt. Charles Bryant never placed his foot on Alaskan soil (nor did he ever see more of it than its shadowy outlines from the deck of a whaling vessel in the North Pacific Ocean) during the two or three cruises made in those waters, in which he sailed from Honolulu for sperm and right whales, as a ship's mate; he never commanded a whale ship in his life; as a ship's mate it was his duty every day on the cruise to enter in the log those notes of weather, whales, etc., which the owners of all whale ships required.

His first personal knowledge of the Alaskan country was gained in 1869, when he went up to that region as a special agent of the Treasury Department, in company with one Dr. H. H. McIntyre, also a special agent. These gentlemen were sent out by the Secretary of the Treasury to look into the state of affairs on the Seal Islands, which had been badly stirred up in 1868 by some greedy Americans, who threatened to exterminate the fur seals. Neither Bryant nor McIntyre knew anything about these seal islands of Alaska until they heard of them in the fall of 1868 from these American adventurers, who came down to Washington to try and get some special control of the life thereon through Congress.

These two men, Bryant and McIntyre, made their reports in the fall of 1869. These reports were not the result of any study of the seal life, but all that related to that subject in both of them was founded on a translation of Bishop Veniaminoff's account of the islands published in 1842 at St. Petersburg, which translation was read to them on the islands by a Russian Creole who had been in the service of the old Russian Fur Company.

McIntyre reported in favor of leasing the islands, and, immediately after that, resigned his position in the Treasury and entered the service of the men who were then in Washington striving to get the lease law of 1870 passed. Bryant did not so report, because Boutwell, the Secretary, did not want to have these interests of our people so leased to a private corporation. Bryant preserved a discreet silence during the contest between the Secretary and the would-be lessees, which ended in the defeat of the former; then Boutwell sent Bryant up to watch these bad men, and McIntyre in especial; and he stayed there just as long as he could stay—seven years—until Bristow removed him. Now the author of this "Chapter of Alaska" tells the readers of the *New England Magazine* that, upon the flimsy notes of whales and weather in the North Pacific made by Charles Bryant, a totally illiterate man, the argument of Charles Sumner was made in favor of the purchase of Alaska! Why, there were at that hour hundreds and hundreds of such log-books, and their writers all within reach and hail, between New London and Provincetown.

This article may have been written in good faith by Mr. C. E. Cabot; but there is scarcely a paragraph in its composition which relates to Charles Bryant that is not wholly if not partially untrue, and to those who remember Bryant in Alaska during 1869, not a line that does not provoke their mirth.

John W. Bingham.

New London, Ct., December 28, 1894.

NOBLESSE OBLIGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I do not know whether you have received the thanks of many of those who are especially interested in collegiate education for your vigorous condemnation of the spirit among faculties and students which makes the present abuses in athletics possible. You at any rate deserve the gratitude of every one who believes that the most necessary outcome of a young man's education, without which all else must be "as sounding brass or a tinkling cymbal," is that spirit which makes him fear to do anything and everything to secure

victory, and gives him the ability to accept defeat quietly when victory cannot come to him through superior skill. It is a lack of the capacity for moral scorn which is really at the root of the trouble. This is clearly seen by your correspondent "A. H.," in No. 1537 of the *Nation*, and I dare say that, like myself, many a college professor could give other instances to parallel those which he has adduced.

But the fault is by no means entirely on the part of the students. It is not easy to make all college presidents and professors perceive that it is a serious moral offence for a base runner to skip "second" or "third" when the umpire does not chance to see him, or for their own "nine" or "eleven" to smuggle in an expert player who is not really a member of their college. On the part of older men this obtuseness may arise from a lack of familiarity in their earlier years with good sport, and a consequent ignorance of the principle that sport ceases to be sport when it involves any evasive or ungentlemanly conduct. Of course, too, the unfortunate competition for students between many of our colleges furnishes a temptation to overlook secret offences, and makes anything but concerted action on the part of the faculties to remedy these abuses extremely difficult. Hence, like "A. H.," every one hears, "They all do it if they can." In regard to these violations of the spirit of good sport, I believe the lack of moral sensitiveness is less common among our younger teachers, and, if this be so, there is hope that a higher tone in athletics may gradually come to prevail. At present, however, there is a crying need in our education of *noblesse oblige*.—Yours truly, X.

USE OF THE WORD "SPINSTER."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following is copied (in response to "A. D. H.'s" inquiry in the *Nation* of December 20, 1894) from the British *Historical Manuscripts Commission Report*, No. 10, appendix, part iv., at page 468:

"Entertaining evidence respecting an obsolete use of the familiar word 'spinster,' that has hitherto escaped the curiosity and vigilant inquisitiveness of our antiquaries. There is no need to remind the educated reader of the etymology of the designation that has long been regarded as applicable only to unmarried women of the lower social grades. Every one is aware that, so long as the spindle ranked with the spear, 'spinster' was the appropriate designation of gentlewomen whose knightly brothers were no less generally described by a title pointing to their dexterity with the lance or the sword. Every one knows how Sir Henry Spelman, in the 'Glossarium Archæologicum,' accounts for women of the nobler sort being described as 'spinsters' in legal documents, and how the famous antiquary commemorates the knight who caused his eleven sons and eleven daughters to be painted upon his tomb, the men girt with their swords and the women represented with their spindles. No less generally is it known that, when the familiar designation of a gentlewoman, the old equivalent of the Latin 'generosa,' was falling out of fashion in James the First's time, Chief Justice Coke robbed the time-honored term of its ancient dignity, and quickened its downward course from the gentry to the populace, by declaring authoritatively: '*Generosus* and *Generosa* are good additions; and, if a gentlewoman be named spinster in any original writ, etc., appeale, or indictmente, she may abate and quash the same; for she hath as good a right to that addition as Baronesse, Viscountesse, Marchionesse, or Duchesse have to theirs.' But what few people know, what most readers—probably every reader—of this page will learn from it for the first time, is that Elizabethan gentlewomen in some parts of England were too proud of the homely designation to relinquish it on marriage, and that it was the practice of legal draughtsmen to apply the term to married no less than to unmarried gentlewomen. In the presentments (23 Elizabeth) of persons of the age of sixteen or upwards, for neglecting to attend church or chapel, the searcher of the Essex muniments comes upon the names of the following ladies, as spinsters *and* wives:

"(1.) Margarett Tirrell, spinster, otherwise styled Margarett Tirrell, wife of Thomas Tirrell, esquire (the words of Latin record being Margaretta Tirrell, spinster, *alias* dicta Margaretta Tirel uxor Thome Tirrell armigeri).

"(2.) Mary Gascoigne, spinster, otherwise styled Mary Gascoigne, wife of George Gascoigne.

"(5.) Katherine Mompson, spinster, otherwise styled Katherine Mompson, wife of . . . . Mompson, gentleman.

"(8.) Maria, Lady Petre, spinster, otherwise styled Maria, Lady Petre, wife of Sir John Petre, of Westhorndon, knt. (the words of the Latin record being alias dicta Maria domina Petre uxor Johannis Petre de Westhorndon predicta militis).

"(9) Edmund Danyell, esquire, and his wife, Margarett Danyell, spinster.

"Sometimes in these presentments women, described as spinsters, are described also as wives of men respecting whose calling and quality there is a significant silence. In other cases the spinsters are described as the wives of men who are described in terms leaving no room for doubt they were not of rank to impart gentility to their wives. The presentments also abound with cases of women, married to yeomen, mechanics, tradesmen, labourers, and other persons of ungentle quality, who are described as wives without being at the same time styled spinsters. It follows that gentle wives of ungentle men held to their right to be styled spinsters, as an indication of their gentility by birth; that so late as the twenty-third year of Elizabeth 'spinster' was the English equivalent of the Latin 'generosa.' But already the worshipful designation had lost much of its ancient force, and though not fallen was falling into disrepute. In the following reign and generation, Coke's dictum so effectually degraded the name from the dignity accorded to it by the usage of successive centuries, from the days of Alfred to the days of Elizabeth, that Thomas Blount (author of the 'Glossographia or Dictionary of Hard Words,' 1656, and the 'Law Dictionary,' 1671) knew nothing more of the word, apart from its etymological force, than that it was 'the addition usually given to all unmarried women, from the Viscount's daughter downward.' On ceasing to be a sign of gentility, the designation was dropt by gentlewomen on marriage even if they had borne it in their maidenly estate. On becoming merely the equivalent of 'single woman' it was held full cheap by women of all grades, whether matrons or maids.

"I am at the more pains to call attention to this recovery of a long lost signification of the word 'spinster' because it is something more important than a mere antiquarian curiosity. It has for so long a time been the practice of genealogists, and other serious historians, to regard spinsters as necessarily without husbands and lawful issue, that it is well to assure them spinsters could also be matrons and mothers in the sixteenth and earlier centuries." * * *

Richmond, Virginia, December 22, 1894.

Notes.

A memoir of the late Dr. John Lord, the historical lecturer, is in course of preparation by the Rev. Alex. S. Twombly, D.D., of Newton, Mass., who desires the loan of letters and other material for his purpose.

A committee of Harvard alumni has been formed to establish a suitable memorial of the late Dr. Andrew P. Peabody. Subscriptions of ten dollars or less will be welcomed, and may be sent to the treasurer, Mr. Amory A. Lawrence, No. 68 Chauncy Street, Boston.

The twelfth General Centennial Catalogue of the Alumni and Officers of Columbia College forms a volume of 620 pages, octavo, and in addition to the customary matter of such documents contains a Locality-Index, alphabetical by States or countries and places, revealing the whereabouts of more than 8,000 living alumni. These addresses are first given in connection with each name under the several divisions of graduates—arts, medicine, law, mines, political science. A labor so great and so disinterested will not fail to be appreciated by the great body thus brought in touch with one another, as well as by a much wider circle of friends and associates who lack the college tie. We ought also to mention the condensed biographical data as more extensive than ordinary. The Catalogue is sent postpaid on receipt of a dollar for paper copies, or a dollar and a half for cloth-bound, by the committee, Prof. J. Howard Van Amringe and John B. Pine.

Macmillan & Co.'s announcements for the opening months of the new year embrace a "Rural Science Series," edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey of Cornell; 'The Aims of Literary Study,' by Prof. Hiram Corson of Cornell; 'Mental Development in the Child and the Race,' by Prof. J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton; Borgeaud's 'Adoption and Amendment of Constitutions in Europe and America,' translated by Prof. C. D. Hazen of Smith College; 'A Student's Manual of English Constitutional History,' by Dudley J. Medley; 'The Life and Letters of R. W. Church, Dean of St. Paul's'; 'Summer Studies of Birds and Books,' by W. Warde Fowler; 'Alexander III. of Russia,' by Charles Lowe; a 'Life of Adam Smith,' by John Rae; Paulsen's 'Character and Historical Development of the Universities of Germany,' translated by Prof. E. D. Perry of Columbia College; Rätzel's 'Völkerkunde,' translated by A. J. Butler, in three volumes, illustrated; and 'Rational Building,' the article *Construction* translated by Geo. Martin Huss from Viollet-le-Duc's 'Dictionnaire Raisonné de l'Architecture Française.' Just ready is Plato's 'Republic,' edited by the late Prof. Jowett and Prof. Lewis Campbell. The third edition of Mr. Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' is to appear next week. Noteworthy also is "a series of reprints of famous works of fiction which may fairly be considered to have taken an established place in English literature," each to contain "a preparatory notice written by a critic of distinction," and about forty full-page and other illustrations. Maria Edgeworth's 'Castle Rackrent' and 'The Absentee' head the list.

W. B. Clarke & Co., Boston, are putting out the *Aeronautical Annual* for 1895, edited by James Means, with many curious illustrations.

'American Charities,' by Prof. Amos G. Warner, is in the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co.

'The Evolution of Modern Capitalism: A Study of Machine Production,' by John A. Hobson (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners), is a labored defence of state socialism as a phase of the evolution of society. In fact, the author maintains that those who protest against the increase of governmental control over industry are bringing "an indictment against a natural order of events, on the ground that nature has taken a wrong road of advancement." It is obvious that this principle involves many important, not to say extraordinary, consequences, which it is unnecessary to specify. Although argument of this kind can hardly be taken seriously, yet there is a great deal in Mr. Hobson's essay that is suggestive and interesting, and many of the secondary results of the application of machinery to production are impressively stated. Especially noteworthy is the analysis of the

waste involved in competition, on account of the excessive increase of the means of production.

Less deserving of attention is Mr. J. Stephen Jeans's 'Trusts, Pools, and Corners' (London: Methuen & Co.), which, indeed, contains little more than is known to any diligent reader of the daily newspapers, and is, so far as concerns our American combinations, very much behind the times.

A convenient and useful as well as timely little book is 'The Federal Income Tax Explained,' by Messrs. John M. Gould and George F. Tucker (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). The authors start from the fact that the phraseology of the law of 1894 follows wherever possible the language of the similar statute of war-times. As the words, phrases, and clauses of the latter have been passed upon and settled in meaning by the courts, the utility is obvious of a collection of nearly two hundred of the cases in which the terms of the law were brought up for adjudication.

'Electricity at the Columbian Exposition,' by J. P. Barrett, Chief of Department (Chicago: R. R. Donnelly & Sons Co.), which is prefaced by a full-page portrait of the author, does not claim to be more than a compilation of the circulars of the exhibitors. It is profusely illustrated with photogravures of electrical apparatus which give one an excellent idea of the external forms of electrical machinery exhibited at the Fair. The scope of the book did not permit of the introduction of diagrams and representations of electrical connections which might be desired by the student. The author calls attention to the remarkable fact that all the lighting of the Columbian Exposition, for decoration as well as for service, and the operation of all machinery, was done, for the first time in the history of expositions, by electricity.

Mr. William Arthur Price, in his useful 'Treatise on the Measurement of Electrical Resistance' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), points out that the measurement of electrical resistance bears a relation to electricity analogous to that of the comparison of masses in quantitative chemistry. Mr. Price has had a large experience in the construction of resistance coils, and his treatise contains the results of his experience in winding, insulating, measurement of temperature coefficients, and calibration of coils. English forms of resistance-coils and boxes and measuring instruments are given, to the exclusion of German and American designs. The rapid development of practical applications of electricity has led in America to the improvement of many forms of electrical measurement apparatus. In a new edition it would be desirable to mention Weston's ammeters and voltmeters, Prof. Anthony's arrangement of coils in a resistance box, and Prof. Carhart's modification of the Clark cell. A full index would increase the value of Mr. Price's work.

A notable contribution to the scientific study of forestry is Somerville's translation of Prof. Robert Hartig's 'Text-book of the Diseases of Trees,' revised and edited by Dr. H. Marshall Ward (Macmillan). Hartig has been studying the diseases of trees for more than twenty years, has published a good many papers on the subject, and has at last produced the systematic treatise of which the present volume is a translation. The diseases of trees are here classified as (1) those produced by flowering plants, (2) those produced by cryptogams, (3) such as result from wounds, (4) those due to unfavorable conditions of the soil, and (5) those due to unfavorable atmospheric conditions. Fully two-thirds of the book is devoted to diseases caused by fungi, and about forty-five pages to wounds, only two pages of which are occupied with a consideration of defoliation of trees by insects. Injuries from sun-cracks, from frost, and from fire are duly considered, and the work closes with a classified list of diseases. It must be remembered, in using this book, that it deals mainly with European trees and their diseases, and that it is altogether probable that in America, as we have our own silva, so we may have some of our own diseases which affect our trees.

Under the title of 'Les Merveilles de la Flore Primitive' (Geneva: Georg & Co.; Paris: Georges Carré), M. A. Froment gives a discussion of the probable character of the vegetation of the carboniferous age. He speaks familiarly about the carboniferous ferns, calamites, lepidodendrons, etc., and tells us that the richness of the soil at that period furnished the primitive flora with mushrooms at least forty feet in diameter! He reasons from the rate of sedimentary deposit of the Nile that, to produce a coal-bearing formation of only two thousand metres, a period of 980,000 years must be allowed. The connection between the delta of the Nile and the coal-deposits of Europe and America is not very clear; but the process of argument may perhaps be guessed at by reading later on in the same pamphlet a little essay, in which is a discussion of the Australian continent considered (hypothetically, of course) as a fallen meteoric mass! "Little by little, as the weight and volume of the planets increase, their equilibrium is disturbed, and in the course of time, after milliards of ages, the face of our solar system will be changed." The sun will gradually grow cold, the swollen planets will circle round it with whirlpool speed, and the smaller will become the prey of the larger. "Quel épouvantable cataclysme!"

M. Paul Stapfer has written the latest study of France's great moralist, 'Montaigne' (Paris: Hachette), and, as might be expected from the writer and the subject, the result is most satisfactory. The book reads well, a prime requisite in a volume treating of so easy and fascinating a *causeur* as Montaigne. The moralist is studied from as unconventional a point of view as possible; M. Stapfer desiring not to reproduce and perpetuate the legends current about Montaigne, but to present as real and faithful a portrait of the man as is possible nowadays. That Montaigne was something more and something else than the lazy and selfish sceptic that most people see in him, is what M. Stapfer sets out to prove in his two hundred very interesting pages. And that the complex nature of Montaigne, which has baffled and misled many a critic, is, on the whole, well and clearly analyzed in this book, that the man is better revealed, that his work is more readily understood, is the best testimony one can bear to the excellence of M. Stapfer's conscientious and able study.

M. Georges Pellissier's 'Nouveaux Essais de Littérature Contemporaine' consists, with the exception of the essay on Vigny, of a number of reviews of works no longer recent, by Zola, Bourget, Loti, Lemaître, and some others. The article on Vigny is a discussion of Brunetière's lecture in his course on the evolution of lyric poetry in France in the 19th century. This is by far the most interesting essay in the book; its more general character gives it a value which the review of specific works lacks.

Two capital novels come from the press of Paul Ollendorff, the one 'La Chevelure de Madeleine,' by M. Jean Rameau, the other 'Un Roman de Femme,' by M. Pierre Maïl. Both may be read in the home circle, both are interesting and even fascinating, full of the pure breath of nature, clean, and free from the exaggeration of psychological analysis so much in vogue among certain writers. M. Rameau takes us into the heart of the Pyrenees, and introduces us to an abbé who is not a saint, but a mortal, a charming girl who knows her own mind without subtly questioning it, a frank young fellow who is neither wholly good nor very bad, and a curious study of a peasant sorcerer. M. Maïl's story is of the Breton coast and its wild storms, and the contrast of the struggle in a man's heart against a love which he ought to yield to at once. There are superb descriptive pages in both books—sea and mountain charm equally.

Part viii. of the "Anecdota Oxoniensia" (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) entitled 'Hibernica Minora,' is edited by Kuno Meyer. Its contents are motley enough. The first section, pp. 1–37, consists of a fragment of an Irish commentary on the Psalter. The manuscript is probably of the fifteenth century, but the original of which it is a corrupt transcript may have been composed in the eighth century. Meyer gives the Irish text, with variants; also a translation, notes, and glossary. In substance, the commentary is based upon the well-known writings of Hilary, Isidor, Bede, etc. The doctrine does not differ from that of the early mediæval church. A goodly number of Old Irish forms are discernible under the scribal garb of the fifteenth century, but there are scarcely any "finds" for the etymologist or grammarian. The rest of the volume is of an altogether different order, being stories—or fragments of stories—of the great Ulster-Leinster cycle. To the reader who is familiar with Irish myth, the present collection does not offer much that is new. The most characteristic story, that of MacDáthó's Pig, is a variant of an older version in the Book of Leinster.

Part vii. of the "Anecdota" is remarkable as a specimen of Clarendon Press typography. It reproduces the contents of a Welsh manuscript of the 14th century, the types imitating or suggesting the abbreviations, the faint, retouched, or red letters, and the underlinings and interlineations of the manuscript. Yet the page is both clear and pleasing to the eye. The first 76 pp. are an *elucidarium*, or treatise upon the obscure points of theology. There is some connection between this Welsh text and an *elucidarium* in Latin (printed in the appendix), attributed by some to Lanfranc, by others to Anselm. But the Welsh can scarcely be a direct translation from the Latin. The rest of the volume consists of Welsh versions of well-known mediæval themes, such as the "Vision of Paul," the "Transitus Mariæ," the "Epistola Presbyteri Joannis," etc.

Part ix. of the "Anecdota" is more remarkable for the nature of its contents. It is the earliest known translation of the Old Testament into Basque. The translation is the work of a French-Basque Protestant clergyman, one Pierre D'Urte of St. Jean de Luz, about 1700. It comprises the whole of Genesis, and Exodus as far as xxii., 6. Internal evidence shows that it has been made neither from the Hebrew nor from the Vulgate, but from the Genevan (French) translation. The MS. is in the library of the Earl of Macclesfield, Shirburn Castle.

The distinguished German professor of political economy, Wilhelm Roscher, died June 4, 1894, in the seventy-seventh year of his age. He lived to complete the fifth and concluding

volume of his "System der Volkswirthschaft," the manuscript of which was found on his desk and has now been published by his son, Dr. Carl Roscher, under the special title, 'System der Armenpflege und Armenpolitik' (Stuttgart: Cotta). It is the substance of lectures delivered at the University of Leipzig since 1890, and begins with an interesting introductory chapter on the pathology of poverty, followed by a discussion of the therapeutics and prophylactics of poverty, or the means employed and found most effective for its cure and prevention, such as hospitals and asylums for poor children and adults, foundling-hospitals, savings-banks, pawn-shops, coöperative stores, life and accident insurances, and similar institutions for encouraging frugality and alleviating misfortune. There is also an admirable account of the character and treatment of the poor, not only in Germany, but also in England, France, America, and other countries, to which are added some excellent observations on the evil influence of the praise of poverty by the Catholic Church, an influence that extends even to Catholic political economists like Périn, who expatiates on "le bienfait de la pauvreté," and quotes with approval the injunction of St. Francis: "Be imitators of Christ in poverty; for our Lord was born poor, lived poor, taught poverty, and died in poverty." A section of the work is also devoted to trades-unions and to the uses and abuses of international associations for promoting the interests and protecting the rights of laborers. There is a good index.

Dr. F. Liebermann's paper on "The Text of Henry I.'s Coronation Charter," which was recently read before the Royal Historical Society, has been separately printed, and will also appear in the Transactions of the Society. Henry I.'s charter was called *Magna Carta* at the beginning of the thirteenth century, if not earlier, and it exerted considerable influence upon the constitutional struggle under King John. In the twelfth century there were more than thirty originals of the charter, one addressed to each county, but these have all been lost. Dr. Liebermann, with his usual ability and industry, attempts a critical reconstruction of the document on the basis of twenty-eight ancient texts.

To the fact of the compiler's being the father of children, "aged eight and nine," we owe the 'Index to *St. Nicholas*, vols. i.-xxi.,' which Mr. W. M. Griswold, Cambridge, Mass., has just added to his famous Q. P. series. Having bought the complete set of that periodical, he determined to make it available to his young people, and now he shares the key with the public at large. We doubt if the childish age was ever thus catered to before, or if any juvenile magazine was so honored.

'A Manual of Topographic Methods,' by Henry Gannett, chief topographer, constitutes Monograph XXII. of the United States Geological Survey. It is largely occupied with technical accounts of instruments, field methods, and tables for use in computations; but the fifth chapter is of more general interest, as it concerns the sketching of maps, and the necessity of understanding something of the forms that are to be sketched. The illustrations here are from actual topographic forms, as mapped by the Survey. In several matters Mr. Gannett's terminology, arrangement, and explanations are open to criticism. It is a misuse of a technical term to say that the Great Plains on the boundary of Colorado and Kansas, at an elevation of about 14,000 feet, are "near base-level." It is not well reasoned to instance the volcanic necks of New Mexico under forms produced by uplift. "Ridge" is an unhappy name for so slight an elevation as that of a flood-plain near its stream. These, however, are small affairs compared to the inculcation of the general principle that the topographer must be well trained in the meaning of topographic forms. It is to be hoped that our scientific schools will use Mr. Gannett's monograph as a guide to better instruction of their students. We regret to note that the important subject of Inspection is dismissed in nine lines.

The Geological Survey of Alabama, under the direction of Prof. E. A. Smith, has just issued a geological map of that State which must be regarded as an important addition to our scientific cartography. The base map, on a scale of about eight miles to an inch, is compiled from the records of the Land Office and Geological Surveys in Washington. Upon this, some thirty colors give an elaborate indication of the distribution of the geological formations. The State is thus easily seen to be divided into two chief areas. A large southwestern half, of coastal formations, dips gently southward and overlaps the descending extremity of the folded rocks of the Appalachians, which occupy the smaller northeastern half. In the latter, the topographical trend is distinctly northeast and southwest; in the former, it is about northwest and southeast; this contrast being the geographical product of a great geological unconformability between the two systems of rocks here included. A large sheet of text accompanies the map, giving a concise account of the several formations, their fossils, economic products, and soils, together with reference to the various survey reports in which they are described. We wish Prof. Smith might now direct attention to preparing, as only an experienced geologist can, a general geographical account of his State, in text, map, and pictures, which should serve as important an end in the secondary schools as his excellent geological map will serve in the universities.

Prof. M. W. Harrington, chief of the Weather Bureau, has lately issued an elaborate series of rainfall-charts of the United States in large folio form. Twelve charts give the precipitation for the months, four for the seasons, and one for the year. Then follow a number of smaller charts of snowfall, of monthly maxima and minima of rainfall, and so on. The text to accompany the charts is promised at an early date.

The late Robert Louis Stevenson's interest in Samoa, and the extraordinary influence which he exerted over the natives, are strikingly seen in one of the last incidents of his life. A few months ago some chiefs, grateful for kindness shown them by him during their imprisonment for rebellion, immediately on their release, instead of going home to their own places and families, came to him and offered to build a section of road for him as a free gift. With some reluctance, on account of their poverty and the need of their families, Mr. Stevenson consented for the sake of the good it would do to men to whom all manual labor was but recently a degradation. He explained these circumstances to some white guests who were assembled at the opening of the road, closing with these words: "It has been made for me by chiefs, some of them old, some sick, all newly delivered from a harassing confinement, and in spite of weather unusually hot and insalubrious. I have seen these chiefs labor valiantly with their own hands upon the work, and I have set up over it, now that it is finished, the name of 'The Road of Gratitude' (the road of loving hearts), and the names of those that built it." Then, turning to the chiefs, he pleaded with them to give up war and to defend their country by occupying and using it. "It is the man who makes roads, who plants food-trees, who gathers harvests, and is a profitable servant before the Lord, using and improving that great talent that has been given him in trust, that is the brave soldier; that is the true champion."

In our late notice of "Recent American Poetry" the name of the author of 'Madonna, and Other Poems' was misprinted "Merritt" for Harrison S. Morris. The error unfortunately was transferred to the index.

—A circular has been recently issued by Joseph Wright, M.A., Ph.D., Deputy Professor of Comparative Philology at Oxford, appealing for help in completing the materials for the proposed English Dialect Dictionary. The Dictionary will aim to include the complete vocabulary of all dialect words which are still in use or are known to have been in use at any time during the last 200 years. The Professor of Anglo-Saxon at Cambridge, the Rev. Walter Skeat, coöperates with Dr. Wright, and the English Dialect Society has for the last twenty years devoted its resources to the accumulation and printing of rare glossaries and unpublished collections of all kinds with a view to this comprehensive Dictionary of Dialects. Seventy volumes had been by the end of last year published by that society, and Dr. Wright has over a million slips, each dealing with one dialect word, containing the source with quotation, date, and county. A rough arrangement into alphabetical order has already been made, and those concerned—including not only Profs. Wright and Skeat, but many other specialists in England, Germany, and America—consider that it is urgently necessary to begin publication as soon as possible. Delay is dangerous, since every year makes accurate information harder to obtain. Pure dialect is rapidly disappearing, and it is therefore most important to begin publication this year if possible. Before this can be possible, however, further help in completing the material is required. Two hundred workers could in a very short time do all that is needed.

—In the collection of material two objects have to be kept in view: (1.) Every known dialect word (dialect being used in its widest sense for non-literary English) must be registered on a separate half-sheet of note-paper. This is necessary even though slang and vulgarisms may eventually be excluded from the Dictionary, and in spite of the existence of printed glossaries and word lists. (2.) A complete collection of illustrative quotations is indispensable, and correspondents are invited to send phrases actually heard from the mouths of the people. The pronunciation should be indicated. Books wholly or partially written in dialect should be carefully ransacked according to rules laid down by the editor. Finally, many novels, magazine articles, agricultural treatises, county histories, etc., contain dialect words which turn up even in newspapers and more unlikely quarters. Helpers are needed to keep a lookout for these and to make note of them with full reference to date, page, and column. *Notes and Queries* is being searched from the beginning. Readers should do nothing without first communicating with Prof. Wright, 6 Norham Road, Oxford.

—The Fifth Annual Report of the College Settlements Association announces an important step in its growth, viz., legal incorpora-

tion under the laws of Massachusetts, with a gift of $300 as "the beginning of a permanent fund." During the year ending September, 1894, the Woman's College of Baltimore (making the twelfth college) has been admitted to corporate membership, while thirteen colleges outside of the association, including the Universities of Oxford, Paris, and Leipzig, have supplied twenty-six collegiate subscribers. At the New York settlement a healthy sign of local growth is the appearance among the juvenile organizations of the Anti-Cigarette Club and the Clean City League. These college settlements—notably the Boston one—have naturally come into very direct and sympathetic contact with "organized labor." Although the representatives of the colleges are careful to state that their effort has been "to reconcile and not antagonize classes, and always . . . to bring into closer and better understanding the ranks of labor and capital," it is certain that when a settlement becomes the headquarters for local organized labor interests, and the centre for a sort of trades union propaganda, it at least risks being misunderstood by one of the two parties in interest. The extent of actual misunderstanding will be the measure of the college women's power of conciliation. To exercise this function effectively a settlement must select its friends and speakers from among prominent business men and employers of labor, as well as from among "prominent workingmen" and professional students; this has hardly yet been done by the enthusiastic and devoted residents of Denison House. Furthermore, if college settlements are to take any helpful hand in the solution of the labor question, they must introduce a more permanent tenure of office among their rank and file. The facts needed for such work are neither garnered nor grasped in a day, nor in six months, nor mainly by feminine intuition and logic. Subtracting from the fifty-five residents at the New York Settlement those who stayed less than a month, we have twenty-one; of this remainder, six were registered for one month, thirteen from two to ten months (average six), while but two were on duty one consecutive year. Of Philadelphia's thirteen residents during twelve months, two stayed one year, two over six months, nine between one and three months, an average of less than four months. At Denison House, Boston, in close affiliation with Wellesley College, among the eighteen residents, there was a similar spirit of flitting, the average residence being about four months.

—Teachers of Latin in our colleges ought to be grateful to Dr. H. W. Hayley of Harvard for having provided them with a singularly clear and useful 'Introduction to the Verse of Terence' (Boston: Ginn & Co.). In the compass of 25 pages the undergraduate can here find about all that he needs to know of the metrical construction of this poet—a subject which is always a stumbling-block to the beginner, and which is often avoided altogether by teachers—mainly, perhaps, because there has been no convenient manual in which their pupils (and themselves?) may find the needed information. This excuse no longer exists, for although the present little book is evidently the work of a finished scholar, yet its language is so simple and the principles are so plainly set forth that only the merest dullards can fail to comprehend. Dr. Hayley's modesty disclaims anything in the way of originality, but there are several places (notably his treatment of the fifth foot of the senarius) where he has discovered how to make clear, brief statements of facts in matters where there has hitherto been much darkening of counsel. The book is provided with references to larger works for more advanced students.

—The centennial of the Rutland (Vt.) *Herald* was celebrated on December 8, 1894, by the issue of a centennial number, one feature of which was a reproduction of the first number of the first volume, dated "Monday, December 8, 1794." Of the fifty newspapers in the United States a century ago, only five were published south of Pennsylvania, six in that State, ten in New York, eleven in Massachusetts; in Connecticut and New Hampshire five each. The Rutland *Herald* claims that only twelve papers—four of them in Massachusetts and three in New Jersey—have, like itself, reached the century mark. The memorial *Herald* is largely filled with accounts of the surroundings amid which it had birth and being. These details will no doubt form the basis of a better history of early Vermont than has ever been written. The latter end of the *Herald* has, however, forgotten much of its beginning. No complete file of its issues can be found at its office of publication or in Rutland. None is known to exist anywhere. Probably there was one in the newspaper collection which Henry Stevens, having spent twenty years in gathering, had brought to Montpelier and stored in the capitol—a building which was burned, with all the papers, in 1857. Vermont has since built a fireproof capitol, and treasures there whatever ancient papers are still to be obtained, but many links in the chains of issues are lacking. An instance has just come to the knowledge of the present writer. A Vermonter went to Montpelier in the course of researches which required him to examine *Spooner's Journal*, vol. xv., 1798. He sought that volume in vain throughout the State collection. Much to his surprise, it was shown him afterwards among the 8,000 bound volumes of newspapers in the rooms of the Wisconsin Historical Society.

—It can hardly be said that it was one of the greatest of Frenchmen, or of French writers, who passed away when Jean Macé died on December 13, but it was one of the most useful and helpful of men, and the author of a book which may fairly enough be called a classic. He was of modest origin, the son of a workingman, but he received a good education at the Collège Stanislas, and was for some time a professor there. Afterward he served for three years in the army; then was a private secretary; and later, in 1848, he became one of the editors of the *République*. The second of December filled him with such disgust that he left Paris and retired to a pensionnat at Bebelnheim. Here he had an opportunity to study thoroughly the minds and souls of children, their likings and dislikings, and what was easy and what hard for them. From these studies, much later, sprang his books. In 1861 he published his 'Histoire d'une bouchée de pain,' a book which is known the world over. It has appeared in innumerable editions in France, and still holds its own as a favorite gift-book and school prize-book. Other works in the same special *genre*, in which success is so hard to win, followed, and none were failures. In 1864, with M. Hetzel, he founded the popular *Magasin d'éducation et de récreation*. Somewhat later he devoted himself to the work of establishing communal libraries in the Haut-Rhin, and afterwards merged this work in that of his Ligue de l'Enseignement, which is very like the work done by the University Extension in England. It aims at furnishing, by means of free libraries and public lectures, mental and moral instruction and sustenance to apprentices and workingmen of all ages and of every trade. Since this epoch the history of the Ligue has been its founder's history. It has flourished in direct proportion as republicanism has flourished in France, and is now, the *Temps* says, one of the most valuable of the influences which make for righteousness and the much-needed purification of the Republic. On the 8th of December, 1883, Jean Macé was elected irremovable Senator in the place of the Comte de Lasteyrie. He died in his eightieth year.

—A curious type of character is illustrated by a biography which recently appeared in a Russian periodical. Prince V. V. Vyazemsky, who died near Moscow in 1892, had lived for thirty years in complete solitude. He was a very wealthy landholder, the owner of several thousand serfs. He freed his serfs in 1850, and set himself to acquire the knowledge which he regarded as indispensable for his peace of mind and equanimity of soul. He put in practice the theories of Count L. N. Tolstoi long before the latter began to advocate them, or, apparently, to hold them. Close acquaintance with the laboring classes, with their mental poverty and their entire lack of spiritual interests, prompted Prince Vyazemsky to mingle with the masses as a common laborer, in the hope that he might bring to bear, even on a single one of these masses, a moral and mental influence. His wife would not listen to his "ideas," or consent to modify the thoroughly worldly life which they were leading in Moscow. They had no children; each occupied a wing of the mansion. The Prince came to the conclusion that marriage does not result in personal happiness, while it does weaken a man's mind and spiritual energies. He provided handsomely for his wife, left home without a penny in his pocket, and hired himself to a bookbinder. A year later he settled on his estate, distributed all his land among his peasants, and for thirty-five years lived in a tiny hut in the forest, which he built with his own hands. He reduced his wants to a minimum, did everything for himself, and rarely visited Moscow. He was always glad to see people when they came to him. He was an accomplished entomologist and ornithologist, was possessed of a remarkable memory, knew the poetry of Pushkin and Lermontoff by heart, had read Shakspere through several times, and had a special love for Goethe's "Faust." He put in practice all the theories now known as "Tolstoyan," and it is probable that Count Tolstoi was influenced by him, as the two men lived only sixty miles apart, and the famous author could hardly have failed to hear about Prince Vyazemsky.

AN OXONIAN'S VIEW OF HARVARD.

Harvard College by an Oxonian. By George Birkbeck Hill. Macmillan. 1894.

In many ways this is a remarkable book. It displays an open mindedness rare in any foreigner, rarest of all in an Englishman criticising America or an American institution. It has humor. It is a marvel of minute research, as any one familiar with Dr. Birkbeck Hill's edition of Boswell knew it would be. But perhaps the most remarkable quality of all in the book is the sureness of its touch: Dr. Hill, as if by instinct, goes right to the characteristic traits of Harvard, and divines the attitude of

its professors and of the students as if he belonged interchangeably to either body. Thus to catch the atmosphere as well as the form and substance of Harvard College required special gifts, supplemented by much industry.

Not content with personal observation and questioning, Dr. Hill fitted himself by reading the various histories of Harvard, the President's Reports, and the more recent material in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine;* and then he opened a quarry of information never hitherto properly worked—the biographies of eminent Harvard men. The historian of Harvard may deem it fortunate that so many of the Americans whose lives have been worth writing were either students or teachers at Cambridge. Dr. Hill has ransacked this material, from the Life of J. Q. Adams to the 'Letters' of Lowell and the 'Reminiscences' of A. P. Peabody, and from it all he has drawn the pith, with the result that his view of Harvard is both contemporaneous and historic, both academic and personal, and that he has made a book interesting not merely to Harvard graduates, but to whoever, on either side of the Atlantic, cares for a mellow description of university life.

But of course the first consideration is that this is the work of an Oxford scholar, a man trained among other traditions and by other standards, whether of social or of scholastic life—a critic, therefore, whose opinion should have the added value due to comparison. What, then, is the estimate which Dr. Hill, and Oxford through him, sets on Harvard? In almost all cases, the verdict is surprisingly favorable. In all that relates to university organization, we infer that Dr. Hill ranks Harvard above Oxford. He lets us see —what until recently Englishmen preferred to ignore themselves and to hide from strangers —the extent which favoritism plays in the appointment of teachers, the abnormal position of the holders of fellowships, the injustice wrought by sinecures, the hypocrisy which Church-of-Englandism breeds there and elsewhere in English society. In a land where outward conformity opened the door to rich prizes, a sceptic like Thirlwall might hold a bishopric, a pagan like Jowett might be master of Balliol, without creating any remark; for conscience and conformity rarely coincide. But what American has not been astonished, after intercourse with some English don that showed him an agnostic, to find that he had subscribed to the Thirty-nine Articles? The absence of this cant at Harvard particularly struck Dr. Hill; for Harvard, he knew, sprang from a theocratic community, and did not succeed in emancipating itself from the fetters of both Church and State until thirty years ago, and only nine years ago gave up compulsory worship.

It would be a mistake, however, to imagine that the manner of appointments at Harvard is always as smooth as Dr. Hill states. If any one believes that all the members of a department have merely to get together and decide on the name of a prospective colleague in order to secure his appointment, such a belief is not warranted. The present writer has heard the most eminent member of one of the chief departments say that his advice has never been asked on any appointment since he joined the department a good many years ago; and the same is probably true, with but few exceptions, throughout the college. The news that a man scarcely known to the college public has been called to fill a chair at Harvard has been repeated so often that nobody is now surprised at it. And although the overseers usually confirm the nominations submitted to them, it is inaccurate to say, as Dr. Hill says, that they always do so. Sufficient embarrassment has been caused by their holding over, or even rejecting, a nominee, to warn the Corporation that it cannot take their confirmation for granted.

We need not apologize for thus laying stress on what seems to be a consideration more personal than would naturally come within the province of a review like the present, for Harvard University to-day embodies a single personality to a degree equalled by very few institutions in the whole wide world. President Eliot has left his stamp everywhere: the various faculties, the Corporation, the overseers, have all helped to transform Harvard during the past twenty-five years, but to him rightly belongs the chief credit. He has made the University presidency not unlike the national presidency when Lincoln filled it—the seat of an autocrat, but of an autocrat wise and strong enough to exercise, by constitutional methods, the great authority due to the power of his personality and not merely to the prestige of his office. Dr. Hill, like Mr. Bryce, marvels at the importance of the American college president compared with the vice-chancellor of an English university. The latter has all the trappings of traditional dignity; he wears special, Britishly gorgeous garments, and is attended by beadles and others, in order that there may be no mistake that he is the Venerable One; and yet his power is slight when measured with that of the Harvard president, to whom the students—such is the unadmirable custom at Cambridge—do not bow in passing.

What we may call the magnification of the president's authority was not, as Dr. Hill remarks, contemplated in the early days, when Harvard presidents were knocked about by religious sectaries, or dismissed to die in poverty. Only a century and a quarter ago one of them was hooted out of office by the students; a little later, another was constantly quailing before the truculent John Hancock. We come down to Quincy before we reach a president at all corresponding to Mr. Eliot in the power to suffuse the institution with his personality. To such an extent did Quincy master details that his successor, Everett, could not long bear a strain which involved such drudgery as picking out wall-papers and carpets. One wonders whether Mr. Eliot's successor may not likewise be overwhelmed by the mass of petty duties which Mr. Eliot's great energy, executive capacity, and control of details have enabled him to discharge with apparent ease. A point worth noting, although we believe Dr. Hill has overlooked it, is that, while at Harvard the ratio between the number of teachers and the number of students has steadily increased, so that there is now one teacher to every nine students, instead of one to sixteen when President Eliot began his administration, the personnel of the administrative and executive departments has increased in no such proportion.

No one can approach even the outskirts of Harvard without hearing the hum of mighty workings. Work—we had almost said "hustle"—seems to be the motto of every one. The Corporation is so thoroughly a business body that it has not a member who may be said to be the especial representative of the humanities: indeed, of thirteen Fellows elected to the Corporation since 1868, but one, Francis Parkman, may be said to have stood primarily for learning. The machinery of the University has grown so large that the type of man whom the Corporation now choose to perpetuate their body is not a scholar, but either a successful financier who can aid them in their investments, or a successful jury-lawyer who can defend their interests in court. If we were told that the board of trustees of a law school had had but one lawyer, or that of a medical school had had but one physician, in a quarter of a century, we should suspect a paradox; and yet this is coming to be the prevailing condition not only at Harvard, but at the other American universities, where the rapid increase of wealth to be administered calls for business men rather than scholars.

Dr. Hill found that the scholarship of the best graduate students at Harvard is on a level with that of the high-honor men at Oxford—the Graduate School being, in the academic department, the real field of University teaching; but the average scholarship of the undergraduates falls short of the English standard. He shrewdly remarks that the great proportion of women teachers in the public schools may account for the imperfect preparation with which many youths go to college. He speaks strongly in favor of the scheme recently proposed at Harvard to separate students, according to their ability, into "classmen" and "passmen." The able student, he says, "must no longer be made to work on the same lines as the dunce and idler, merely doing well what they do ill." As a matter of fact, the able student usually chooses "hard" courses, whereas the dunce or idler chooses "soft" courses, or "snaps." Nevertheless, as Dr. Hill urges, a distinction should be made. "To attain the highest success the student has to reach the top in each one of the sixteen courses through which he has passed in his four years at college. Whether he has stood on the summit of sixteen mole-hills or sixteen mountains matters not a whit." On the other hand, we infer that Dr. Hill would not cite the experience of Oxford to support another recent proposition at Harvard—that scholarships be left open for all competitors, irrespective of their financial needs. One feels that the high-honor men in England work for money prizes more than for knowledge—as must be the case when a man by passing a successful examination wins what is practically a life annuity of £200 or £300. Of the system of examinations by which wranglers and first-class men are produced, Dr. Hill says:

> "It does to perfection that which it was meant to do. It fits men for the great world—for success at the bar and in public life. It turns out great lawyers and great statesmen. It keeps up a constant supply of leading-article writers—men who can rapidly make themselves masters of facts and as rapidly set them forth in a clear and able form. It confers dexterity and readiness. On the other hand, it breaks down a certain number—perhaps not many—by the excessive strain it puts upon them, and it unfits still more for the scholar's life. It is for success, not for knowledge, that the struggle has been, and it is success and not knowledge that too often is its great reward."

What Dr. Hill chiefly missed at Harvard was the intellectual sociability which is the delight of Oxford. "Each of the [Oxford] common-rooms," he says, "is a centre of kindly feeling and hospitality. Of these we have twenty, Harvard has not one. It will be easier for Oxford to take to herself all the good there is in the Harvard system than for Harvard to add to her vigorous and admirable organization all that charm and pleasantness of life which make an Oxford man's college scarcely less dear to him than Oxford herself." The line of contrast is well drawn, and yet we may ask how far the delightfulness of the English common rooms has depended on such

conditions as the conversion of professorships and fellowships into sinecures, and the fierce competition for money prizes, which are part of the mediæval system that the English universities are trying to get rid of. Moreover, more than a beginning in this direction has been made at Harvard in the formation of intellectual clubs, whose members meet their instructors freely, and in the seminaries, where the formal work of a department is carried forward voluntarily by the teachers and pupils.

And this brings us to say that Dr. Hill's remarks on the social life of the students are inevitably incomplete. He has, however, been guided by persons who were in the main trustworthy, although the senior who told him that Harvard students never carry canes and always refer to each other as "boys," instead of "men," was evidently setting a trap for the credulity of an amiable stranger. So, too, the average American will smile at the verdict of an Englishman who confesses that, having seen only the end of one baseball game, he thought baseball but a poor sport compared with cricket—"almost as much below cricket as skittles is below billiards." Dr. Hill criticises the present athletic mania, in which, according to him, American colleges have outstripped the English, although the latter may soon be expected to catch up. We are glad to record that the American practice of charging high prices for tickets to college games amazes a foreigner. "Charge nothing, and do not provide seats, and you will not be troubled by large crowds," is, in substance, Dr. Hill's remedy for the existing evils.

But we must forego taking up in detail many a topic which we had marked for discussion. We should give a wrong impression of Dr. Hill's book if we implied that it is formally argumentative. Far from it: Dr. Hill enlivens his pages with a multitude of amusing anecdotes, and he is remarkably fair and uninsular. The differences between the English and the Harvard systems are often to be inferred from his point of view quite as much as from his downright statements. The result, to Americans, is certainly gratifying, for it is shown that in plant and organism Harvard has nothing to learn from Oxford or Cambridge, and that, under the present régime at least, the spirit which animates the teachers and students at Harvard is a spirit of hard work such as is to be found only among a select minority at the English universities. We can say now with more assurance than could have been said even ten years ago, that Harvard seems to be succeeding in developing a type of university unlike either the English or the German, but better adapted than either to our American conditions, and capable of fostering the highest scholarship.

A SPANISH AMERICAN ANTHOLOGY.—I.

Antología de Poetas Hispano-Americanos. Publicada por la Real Academia Española. Tomo I., México y América Central; Tomo II., Cuba, Santo Domingo, Puerto Rico, Venezuela; Tomo III., Colombia, Ecuador, Perú, Bolivia. Madrid. 1893-'94.

THAT ingenious and delightful novelist and critic, D. Juan Valera, sometime Spanish minister to the United States, has remarked that, though the English-speaking portion of America has manifestly far outstripped the Spanish in material prosperity, the latter has more than held its own in letters. Few North Americans, we imagine, are competent to estimate the justice of this opinion; for few, very few, have the least knowledge of what has been done in literature in that great continent that occupies the southern half of our own hemisphere. It is not impossible to find among us scholars acquainted with the poetry of Persia and India, of China and Japan; but whither would one turn for an authority on the writers of Chile or Brazil? Our traders maintain fitful relations with these lands, our newspapers devote some meagre columns to their political affairs; but our critics have hitherto shown an almost complete indifference to the intellectual activities that obtain there. Even the Bureau of American Republics, we believe, did not venture into this field—a fact to be explained only on the ground that it was not supposable, according to our statesmen, that a North American could care anything about it.

Nevertheless, there is no country in South America that does not boast a somewhat extensive literature, nor any that has not produced men of letters whose work is of more than local interest and value. As long ago as 1863 the eminent German scholar Ferdinand Wolf, in his 'Histoire de la littérature brésilienne' (a far better treatise, by the way, than any as yet written about our own literature), revealed to European readers the existence of an astonishingly rich literary tradition among the Portuguese dwellers in the New World. From time to time, also, the attention of the curious may well have been attracted by the title of some one of the numerous anthologies of Spanish-American poetry—the 'América Poética' of Gutiérrez (Valparaiso, 1846), the 'Lira Americana' of R. Palma (Paris, 1865), the 'América Poética' of D. Cortés (Paris, 1875), the 'América Literaria' of Francisco Lagomaggiore (Buenos Aires, 1883), the 'Poesías de la América Meridional' of Anita J. de Wittstein (Leipzig, 1870), and others. The extreme rarity of these books, however, even in the great libraries of this country, would seem to indicate that few have been found among us to seek and read them. And now we have still another anthology offered us, of wider scope and greater authority than any of those just mentioned. Moved by the general interest of the Columbus centenary, the Spanish Academy at Madrid has undertaken the publication of a collection of poems that shall show the very best that Spanish-American writers have produced in verse. The task of editing and of preparing the necessary introductions has been intrusted to the brilliant professor and Academician, D. Marcelino Menéndez y Pelayo, whose anthology of Spanish lyric poets was noticed some months ago in these columns. Various Spanish-American literary bodies, moreover, have lent their aid, going so far in some cases as to compile for the editor's use manuscript anthologies of the poetry of their respective countries. Already three large volumes have appeared, covering all the Spanish-American countries, except Chile and Argentina; and as these last are for various reasons the least interesting of all from a literary point of view, it is not too early to give the reader some notion of what he will find in Señor Menéndez y Pelayo's pages.

It is hardly possible for a North American, especially in view of Señor Valera's dictum, to read these volumes without constant comparison of what our Southern neighbors have accomplished with that which we ourselves have done. It need hardly be said that such a reader will find himself frequently startled, now by trivial unexpectednesses, now by contrasts in the most essential things. What Bostonian, for example, can read without a shock that the question as to the true Athens of America lies between Carácas and Bogotá? What scholarly New Yorker but must pause to reflect when he discovers that, without his knowing anything about it, not a few of the best works of the best South American poets have first seen the light in New York? Again, how many of our university men realize that, long before Harvard was founded, before even the Massachusetts Bay Colony was established, the Spanish settlers had their universities and colleges fully under way? The University of Mexico opened its doors to students in June, 1553; and its chairs of jurisprudence, philosophy and physics, and humanities were filled by really eminent professors, of repute in Spain as well as in America. The University of San Marcos at Lima in Peru, the richest and most influential in South America proper, was established by royal charter of Charles V. in 1555, and offered instruction in philosophy, theology, medicine, and jurisprudence. In Ecuador, not to mention several colleges founded in the sixteenth century, the University of St. Gregory the Great, at Quito, was opened in 1620. New Granada (the modern Colombia) obtained its University of Santo Tomás at Bogotá in 1627. In Venezuela, the College of Santa Rosa at Carácas, founded in 1696, was in 1721 converted into a full-fledged university, with all the faculties. Chuquisaca, or Sucre, the present capital of Bolivia, long before the erection of the modern state, had a university which, during the eighteenth century, attained great eminence. Cuba has had its university at Havana since 1721; and Santo Domingo, in the days of its most desperate depression, before its cession to the French in 1795, still prided itself on its university, which, according to tradition, dated from the time of Charles V.

These are striking facts; but still more striking, perhaps, is the community of intellectual interests maintained down to the very war of Independence between the Spanish colonists and their native land. Here Spanish America had undoubtedly a great advantage over English America. No one can read the history of English colonization without being struck by the intellectual isolation into which the settlers came. They brought interests with them, to be sure—deep though narrow. But the great movement of the English spirit during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries did not trouble itself with them; the great English writers rarely mention them, and, with the exception of Berkeley, show little concern for their experiment or their fate. Spain, on the contrary, was engaged in a very different way by the conquest and the colonization of America. For her these were national projects, not the poor last recourse of an oppressed party or sect. Accordingly, her ambition, her pride, and her imagination were all stirred; all classes in her society, high and low, rich and poor, soldier and scholar, alike shared in the desire to have a part, direct or indirect, in so glorious an undertaking. It was not a hardship, but an honor, to go to lands abounding in wealth, where fame and fortune could be won and salvation achieved by one and the same stroke. Even so, the North American reader cannot but be surprised at the number of Spanish writers and scholars who, during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, found their way to the colonies for longer or shorter sojourns, as well as at the interest taken in them and in the first native geniuses of New Spain by the best talents of the Peninsula.

We may pass by with a mere mention, as

leading to no practical results, that most interesting document, Cervantes' application for a post in the *Indias*—either, as he says, the auditorship of New Granada, or the governorship of the province of Soconusco in Guatemala, or the auditorship of the galleys at Cartagena, or the mayoralty of the city of La Paz. Of greater consequence was the early presence in nearly every one of the colonies of one or more men who, if not belonging to the first rank of Spanish writers, still had breathed the literary atmosphere of the "Siglo de Oro," and by their work won the approbation of the great masters. Thus we find in Mexico during the sixteenth century Bernardo de Valbuena, Juan de la Cueva, Francisco de Salazar, Eugenio Salazar de Alarcón, Mateo Alemán, and Diego Mexía. The very conqueror of New Granada and the founder of Santa Fé de Bogotá, Gonzalo Jiménez de Quesada, a quondam Cordovese lawyer, was a writer of no mean powers. In the same province lived also the famous Juan de Castellanos, prolix beyond endurance, but still an *écrivain de race*. We find Peru visited in the sixteenth century by the same Diego Mexía, who was for a while in Mexico, as Menéndez y Pelayo says, "the most felicitous translator of the *Heroides* of Ovid that up to the present time our tongue has had." In Peru also, and for a longer time, lived Fr. Diego de Ojeda, author of the 'Cristiada,' far the best of all the Spanish sacred epics and not always below the level of the 'Paradise Regained.' Even Puerto Rico and Santo Domingo were not without their touch of literary influence—the former in the person of Valbuena, bishop there in his old age (1620–25); the latter in the adventurous captain Gonzalo Fernández de Oviedo y Valdés, as remarkable for the twenty-odd folio volumes he wrote as for his extraordinary activity and experiences.

These celebrities, however, were far from constituting the whole body of intermediaries who carried the best of Spanish culture to the New World. With them went many of less name, but perhaps not less influence. Among these were teachers of the humanities in great numbers, who speedily diffused the study of the classics throughout the colonies, not only in the capitals, but also in the smaller places. This is illustrated by the statement of the poet Mexía that, having undertaken the voyage from Peru to Mexico in 1596, he was driven by stress of weather into the harbor of the little San Salvadorian town of Sonsonate, where he bought from a student the copy of Ovid that served him for his translation of the 'Heroides.' A further illustration is the well-known richness of the old book-shops of Mexico and Lima in fine old editions of the classics. As a consequence, the tradition of humanism speedily established itself, and love and admiration for the Latin classics became a permanent element in South American culture. Even the refinements of classical study, such as the composition of Latin verses, were not neglected; and we have a long line of poets in this genre, culminating in the last century in the Jesuit of Guatemala, P. Landivar, whom Menéndez y Pelayo does not hesitate to compare with Politian, Fracastorius, and Pontanus, as "one of the most excellent poets to be found in modern Latinity." And, indeed, his 'Rusticatio Mexicana' is one of the most interesting works written on American soil.

The fact that Landivar was a Jesuit, as well as the subject of his poem, suggests still another powerful influence upon South American letters. Hardly had the Society of Jesus become thoroughly established when it began to send its members across the ocean, both as missionaries to the conquered Indians and as teachers of the conquering Spaniards. Many of these men were persons of fine cultivation; and, what is more important for our present purpose, they had their share in the development of that poetic tradition which may fairly be called "Jesuitic"—a tradition as yet little studied, and too often alluded to with scorn, but none the less deserving of attention. Primarily descriptive in its character, and based upon the Georgics of Virgil, this Jesuitic poetry has undoubtedly produced many monuments of portentous dulness. Even its best-known representative, the Abbé Delille, despite his extraordinary popularity at the end of the last century, now finds more to rail at than to read him. None the less, however, the poetry of description owes more to him and to his fellow-poets than is generally admitted; and certain it is that the persistence of the tradition in South America has given rise to works that far surpass in power and beauty anything in their kind we Americans of the North can boast of. The quaintly named 'Memoria sobre el cultivo del maiz en Antioquía' of the Colombian Gutiérrez González, and the 'Agricultura en la zona tórrida' of the Chilean Andrés Bello, give us the landscape, the natural life, the human occupations of the South American community with a tender respect such as among us Whittier alone has shown, and with a force and beauty of poetic expression such as Whittier never attains.

Walton, and Some Earlier Writers on Fish and Fishing. By R. B. Marston, Editor of the *Fishing Gazette*. London: Elliot Stock. 1894.

ANGLING literature, especially the early part of it, offers many pleasures to the lover of the quaint and curious, as well as to those who enjoy the beautiful descriptions of natural objects with which some of these works abound. Mr. Marston is thoroughly competent to set forth in an attractive way the choice portions of the various writers from whom he quotes, and, being an angler as well as a literary man, he tells many things of interest to those who care more for catching fish than for the ethical part of his volume.

Walton, of course, is Mr. Marston's chief figure, and he has succeeded in producing something new on this well-worked subject, at which almost every angling writer of this century has had a try, and generally an unsuccessful one. The discovery where the excellent pictures of fish in the early Waltons were obtained is given on page 141. Doubtless Mr. Marston is correct in stating that they were copied from the works of Gessner, the great German naturalist, to whom Walton frequently refers. The prices at which first Waltons have sold are very interesting. Mr. Marston quotes the value in 1816 at £4 4, but in a copy of the first formerly owned by William Crawhall is a list, in Mr. Crawhall's writing, of the prices at which this copy had been sold at auction. They are probably chronologically arranged, though no dates are given, and there are ten quotations, beginning with the Haworth sale, at which the volume sold for £10 15, and ending at the Gardner sale, where it fetched £10 17 6. At the Nassau sale the price was £3 10, which is below the £4 4 quoted as the 1816 price by Mr. Marston. At the Beckford sale in 1883 a copy brought £87. Three or four have since been sold at auction, the last perfect one fetching £310, though we believe there was some special association of former ownership in this which increased its value, as one has since been sold for £235 by Pickering & Chatto.

Chapter x., on "The Compleat Angler from an Angler's Point of View," is charming from the sentimental as well as from the practical side, and is perhaps the best in a book where all are excellent. Mr. Marston has of course quoted largely from Walton, and made no mistakes in selecting these passages most worthy of repeating. The first of the verses of "Holy Mr. Herbert," themselves quoted by Walton, and beginning:

> "Sweet day, so cool, so calm, so bright,
> The bridal of the earth and skie,
> Sweet dews shall weep thy fall to-night,
> For thou must die,"

is given before this apostrophe to angling: "No life, my honest Scholar, no life so happy and so pleasant as the life of a well-governed Angler; for when the Lawyer is swallowed up with business, and the Statesman is preventing or contriving plots, then we sit on Cowslip-banks, hear the birds sing, and possess ourselves in as much quietness as these silent silver streams, which we now see glide so quietly by us," etc.

Dame Juliana Berners or, more properly, "Julyans Barnes," to whom is attributed the 'Treatyse of Fysshynge with an Angle,' 1496, a republication of the 'Book of St. Albans,' printed ten years previously, is discussed and her merits set forth in chapter ii. Mr. Marston makes no reference to a publication of Mr. Satchell's, in 1883, of an older form of 'Treatyse of Fysshynge with an Angle,' from a MS. in the Denison collection, to which Prof. Skeat assigns an earlier date than 1450, and Mr. Satchell thinks that this was compiled from some earlier original. However, Dame Julyans first gave it to the public, and to her should go the credit for the sound morality and sportsmanlike advice found therein.

In 1613 was published 'The Secrets of Angling,' by J. D., which Mr. Marston calls "the most charming poem in all our English angling literature." If not quite the truth, this commendation is pretty near it, and the admirable reprint, with an excellent introduction by Thomas Westwood (London, 1883), is a book that should be in every gentlemen's library. There are certainly few more beautiful verses in praise of Summer and her natural beauties than these by J. D.:

> "I count it better pleasure to behold
> The goodly compasse of the loftie Skye,
> And in the midst thereof, like burning gold,
> The flaming Chariot of the world's great eye,
> The watry cloudes that in the ayre vprold
> With sundry kindes of painted collours flie:
> And fayre Aurora lifting up her head,
> And blushing rise from old Tithonus' bed.
> . . . . . .
> The lofty woods, the forrests wide and long,
> Adorned with leaues and branches fresh and greene,
> In whose coole bowr's the birds with chaunting song
> Do welcome with their quire the Summers queene,
> The meadows faire where Flora's guifts among
> Are intermixt the uerdant grasse betweene,
> The siluer skaled fish that softlie swimme
> Within the brookes & Cristall watry brimme."

Thomas Barker, who is accused of having been a cook, published in 1651 'The Arte of Angling,' a second edition of which he called 'Barker's Delight.' In this short work is first mentioned the use of the winch or reel. Walton quotes from Barker, who, he says, is "a gentleman who has spent much time and money in angling." Gervase Markham wrote numerous works on angling and other rural amusements and avocations, of which the titles even are interesting: 'The English Husbandman drawne into two bookes' (1613); 'The Pleasvres of Princes, Good Mens Recreations, containing a discourse

of the generall art of fishing with the angle or otherwise, and of all the hidden secrets belonging thereunto; together with the choyce of the fighting cocke' (1614); 'Cheape & Goode Husbandry for the well ordering of all beasts & fowles & for the general cure of their diseases' (1616); 'The Young Sportsman's Instructor in angling, hawking, hunting, ordering singing-birds, poultry, coneys, hares, & dogs, & how to cure them.' This last is a very diminutive volume, about two inches square and very scarce. There was printed (*circa* 1712) another edition with a second title, which is one of the rarest of angling books. Mr. Marston thinks that Markham may have been assisted in the compilation of his book of 1614 by one William Lawson. It is evident from their great differences in style and composition that he must have had help in some of his numerous books.

Although Mr. Marston has made a most interesting book, it is to be regretted by every lover of angling literature that he has passed by so much valuable material. Du Bartas alone could furnish a chapter. The establishment of the identity of Stephanus, whose wonderful recipes are quoted by Mascall, the only known reference to him, would be a task well worthy of Mr. Marston's powers. 'A Family Jewel, or the Woman's Counsellor' (1704), 'The Accomplish'd Ladies Delight in preserving, physich. beautifying, & cookery . . . also some new & excellent secrets & experiments in the art of angling' (1683), and other works of this period, are well worthy of notice.

The great interest, however, centres in Walton himself, and this is fully recognized by Mr. Marston. These lines from the beautiful verses of Mr. Westwood, to whom and his associate, Mr. Satchell, is due the gratitude of every lover of angling literature, though not quoted in the volume under notice, seem especially applicable to its chief subject:

> "So Fine-ear, bending, Izaak, o'er thy tomb,
> Through chink and crevice of the mouldering stone
> Hears, as it were, a riople and a rhyme—
> Hear quaint discourse—Piscator's homily,
> Venator's staid response, and, after pause,
> The piping minor of the Milkmaid's song.
> With cadence of the nightingale and thrush,
> Or distant-sounding bay of otter hounds:
> Old life, old sport of Lea-side and of Dove—
> The life we cherish, and the sport we love."

Theatricals. By Henry James. Harpers. 1894.

"The Album" and "The Reprobate" are the names of two new, or, at all events, unacted, comedies which constitute the second volume of Mr. Henry James's 'Theatricals,' and, like their predecessors, "Tenants" and "Disengaged," they are introduced to the public by their author with an explanatory and apologetic preface, which again sets forth, with an assumption of good humor and resignation that does not quite conceal the workings of a rebellious spirit, the infinite difficulties, restrictions, and intellectual humiliations besetting the man of letters who tries to write a play to order, with the view of "fitting" a particular player or a particular company. It must be admitted, after reading his account of them, that the conditions imposed upon him were not to be fulfilled easily. His subjects were to be chosen "from the uttermost regions of dramatic amiability," to be surrounded with "the bland air of the little domestic fairy tale," to be comprised within the strictest definition of comedy (not in itself, perhaps, a very tremendous limitation), to be sentimental and gay, abounding in coincidence, and served up in a whirl of perpetual motion. Nor was this all. He soon found, by bitter experience, that artistic, literary, and truly dramatic considerations, such trivial matters as probability, proportion, consistency, and intelligibility, were held to be of small account, as compared with such theatrical necessities as startling incidents and situations, incessant bustle, opportunities of personal display, remorseless compression, and a happy ending for everybody and everything. Finally, doubtless there was the mortification (although Mr. James touches but lightly on this point) of being obliged to submit, in all questions of expediency, propriety, reasonability, or taste, to the managerial judgment—a tribunal generally beyond all powers of argument or appeal.

A play compounded according to managerial prescription may succeed so far as mere money-making is concerned, but it rarely happens that one of them is worth printing afterwards, and this is a truth of which Mr. James shows himself conscious. Not that there is not enough literary merit in "The Album" and "The Reprobate" to justify their publication. On the contrary, there is in their polished and witty dialogue much to please the intelligent reader; nevertheless, their inherent feebleness as plays, in both conception and construction, is revealed very clearly when left to the interpretation of type only. Both in plot and in their characters they are curiously artificial, unlifelike, and extravagant for the inventions of a student of modern society.

"The Album" is founded upon the story of a miserly and unscrupulous baronet, who secures a fortune for himself by wilfully concealing the fact of the existence of another heir, his own first cousin. Having inherited the money, he is pursued at home and abroad by two women, each of whom is determined to marry him, and one of whom almost captures him. Partly to get rid of her, and partly because he fears that his treachery to his cousin will be exposed by the heroine, he surrenders his ill-gotten gains and so escapes disgrace and matrimony. Something, perhaps, might be made out of this scheme by adroit treatment, but Mr. James's management of the whole testamentary business is unconvincing, while the baronet and his feminine persecutors have scarcely a touch of actuality in them. The hero and heroine are more human, but their troubles fail to excite sympathy, because they arise mainly from that unnatural suppression of fact which is one of the oldest devices for maintaining stage complications.

"The Reprobate" depends upon a yet slighter foundation. The hero is a young man thirty years old, who, having been guilty of a youthful escapade, has been convinced by his stepmother and another guardian that nothing but the extremest mental and physical asceticism can save him from ruin. He allows himself, therefore, to be treated like a baby until the heroine inspires him to play truant for a day or two in London, whence he returns transformed into a dashing young lover, to marry the heroine and assume the direction of everything and everybody. There are some neatly executed character sketches in this piece—the bumptious and ignorant young member of Parliament, for instance—but the Reprobate himself, the central figure, is too fantastic even for amusement, unless, indeed, he should be played in the broadest and frankest spirit of burlesque, which would ruin every other character. Making every allowance for the good quality of much of the dialogue, and the possible comicality of some of the situations, it is difficult to believe that a play of so little plausibility could have any chance of successful representation. Certainly it is unworthy of Mr. James's reputation and undisputed abilities. Fitting plays to companies is mere tailor-work, a shocking waste of real talent and a terrible encouragement to bad acting.

The Borderland of Czar and Kaiser. By Poultney Bigelow. Harper & Brothers.

This collection, in book form, of Mr. Bigelow's articles from *Harper's Monthly*, with some added matter, forms a pleasant, pretty little volume. Naturally, the two chapters on German soil, "Side Lights on the German Soldier," and "Emperor William's Stud-Farm and Hunting-Forest," are of more value than the six chapters on Russia, as Mr. Bigelow was not in Russia long enough to make many personal observations or to make inquiries about the statements of his informants. "In the Barracks of the Czar" is interesting, because it does present, chiefly, personal observations, though the author's Polish military friend is stationed in Poland (between St. Petersburg and Kovno), where the officer asserts that no Poles are assigned to duty. "The Russian and his Jew" is distinctly good, fair, and well stated. The last two chapters read like a summary of sessions of the Senate Investigating Committee, in their list of briberies and various sorts of corruption. Many of the statements as to agricultural conditions in "On a Russian Farm" are correct, but require further explanation to set them in their true light. The root of the whole difficulty is, without a doubt, the system of holding land in common, and being assessed in common for the taxes, with the inevitable results, from which those who advocate communistic principles might draw a valuable lesson.

If we may judge from his dedication, Mr. Bigelow regards his explanation of "Why we left Russia" as the most important part of his book. But, from his own account, the Russian Government had nothing to do with it. On June 1 he and Mr. Frederick Remington (whose delightful pictures furnish at least half its value to the book) sent a letter, presumably from Berlin, to the American Chargé d'Affaires at St. Petersburg, stating that they were on a "mission" to inspect the tree- and grass-planting along the sandy seashore of the Baltic. They wished to make notes and sketches as they sailed along the coast in their canoes. The letter probably reached Petersburg on June 3 or 4; they called on the American diplomat on June 6; sent their boats back to Germany on the 8th, without waiting to see whether permission would be granted or not; and were in Kovno, well on their way back to Germany, on June 10. In the meantime, Mr. Bigelow had made a trip to a "Russian Farm," and both travellers had stopped on their way to Kovno to visit "the Czar's Barracks." Evidently, they left Russia because they were impatient, and because they preferred to appear as "a mission" rather than as private citizens. As it was, they could probably have taken their trip and made, without permission, their notes and sketches, as other travellers have done before them, had they wished. The incident with the passports was in reality not alarming. If there had been anything wrong, they would have been summoned to the police office or interviewed by the police. The landlord of their hotel was trying to detain them for his own profit, by keeping the documents beyond the legal time-limit. It is also very puzzling to be told that they did not receive their canoes in Stettin until July 2, after having last seen them on June 8 in St. Petersburg,

and then to learn (p. 307) that Mr. Bigelow lifted from his shoulder the sails and masts of his canoe, and tossed the clumsy load on what he took to be a pile of corn-sacks covered with tarpaulin—which turned out to be a woman—in Kovno, on June 10. A little longer acquaintance with the country might have led Mr. Bigelow to different and wiser conclusions on many points.

The Outlines of Quaternions. By Lieut.-Col. H. W. L. Hime. Longmans. 1894.

It is our duty to say that the value of this book is less than nothing. True, it is free from the inconvenience of being too difficult which attaches to several treatises on the subject. It has the opposite fault of not carrying the student far enough to make him realize the full power of the method. The elementary parts are often awkward, and do not seem to be fully in the spirit of quaternions. In some places we find monstrous heresies. Thus, it is stated that all equiangular versors are equal! Such a remark is not elucidating the calculus of quaternions, but muddling it. The mathematical reader will hardly believe it possible, but it is true that the author deliberately writes

$$i=j=k,$$

and says this is true of these letters considered as quadrantal versors, though not as vectors.

After treating of every kind of quaternion, and particularly scalars and vectors in different planes, for 48 pages, on page 49 we find the objection that heterogeneous quantities cannot be added, treated seriously—a doubt which ought not to have been ignored so long. "It may be objected," says the author, "that a number and a line . . . can no more be added together than a pint and a mile." Instead of giving any clear reply, to the effect that a pint and a mile can be added, though not reduced to one term, he tries to excuse the idea of multiple algebra, and only to excuse it, by saying it is like the functional expression $(1+\Delta)$. The analogy is superficial, because the 1 and Δ are not really but only seemingly heterogeneous. In short, the author has no firm grasp of the fundamental conceptions of his subject, and his book is fit to be put into the hands of students who have such grasp only as an exercise in refutation.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Miss Sarah L. Waymarks for Teachers. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.25.
Bierbrower, Austin. From Monkey to Man; or, Society in the Tertiary Age. Chicago: Dibble Publishing Co.
Bricqueville, Eugène de. Les Anciens Instruments de Musique. Paris: *L'Art.*
Browning, Mrs. E. B. Sonnets from the Portuguese. London: Dent; New York: Scribners. $4.50.
Brugmann, Prof. Karl. A Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Germanic Language. Vol. IV. Westermann.
Budde, Prof. K. The Books of Samuel in Hebrew. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Bunner, H. C. More "Short Sixes." Illustrated. Keppler & Schwarzmann.
Burdette, R. J. The Modern Temple and Templars: A Sketch of the Life and Work of Russell H. Conwell. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.25.
Call, Annie P. As a Matter of Course. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Carpenter, Mary T. In Cairo and Jerusalem: An Eastern Note-Book. Randolph. $1.50.
Calverley, C. S. Verses and Fly-Leaves. Putnams. $1.50.
Chambers's Concise Gazetteer of the World. London: W. & R. Chambers; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Clegg, James. The International Directory of second-hand Booksellers and Bibliophile's Manual. Rochdale, Eng.: James Clegg; New York: John Anderson, Jr.
Dennis, J. T. On the Shores of an Inland Sea. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Dixon, Prof. A. C. The Elementary Properties of the Elliptic Functions. Macmillan. $1.25.
Driver, Prof. S. R., and White, Rev. H. A. The Book of Leviticus in Hebrew. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Eaton, Seymour. Business Forms, Customs, and Accounts. American Book Co. 50 cents.
Encyclopædic Dictionary. Vol. IV. Rhe—Z. Philadelphia: Syndicate Publishing Co.
Furman, A. A. Philip of Pokanoket: An Indian Drama. Stettiner, Lambert & Co. $1.50.
Futterer, Karl. Afrika in seiner Bedeutung für die Goldproduktion in Vergangenheit, Gegenwart und Zukunft. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
Gilbert, W. S. Original Plays. Third Series. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Scribners. $1.
Giles, F. S. Shadows Before; or, A Century Onward. Humboldt Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Godwin, Parke. Commemorative Addresses. Harpers. $1.75.
Gomme, Alice B. Children's Singing Games. Second Series. London: David Nutt; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Haeckel, Prof. Ernst. Monism as connecting Religion and Science. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. 80 cents.
Hadow, W. H. Studies in Modern Music. Second Series. Macmillan. $2.25.
Harte, W. B. Meditations in Motley. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Hayley, H. W. An Introduction to the Verse of Terence. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35 cents.
Henderson, W. J. Sea Yarns for Boys. Harpers. $1.25.
Hewitt, Grally. Knights of Cockayne. London: Osgood, McIlvaine & Co.
Hinckley, F. A. The Deeper Meanings. Boston: G. H. Ellis. 50 cents.
Hoffman, Otto. Episodes from Andreas Hofer. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 25 cents.
Holden, Warren. Many Moods. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75 cents.
Hopkins, E. P. Problems and Quiz on the Law of Contracts. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Hopper, Nora. Ballads in Prose. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50
Hunt, Matthew. The King's Daughter, and Other Poems. London: Elliot Stock.
Huntington, Margaret W. Told in a Hammock. Illustrated. Marcus Ward & Co. $1.
Hurll, Estelle M. Child-Life in Art. Illustrated. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $2.
Hyde, J. W. The Post in Grant and Farm. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
King, Bolton. Essays by Joseph Mazzini newly done into English. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Lethaby, W. R., and Swainson, H. The Church of Sancta Sophia, Constantinople: A Study of Byzantine Building. Macmillan. $6.50.
Lewis, L. R. The National School Library of Song. No. 1. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60 cents.
Lorimer, Rev. G. C. The Argument for Christianity. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $2.
Lowell, Percival. Occult Japan: or, The Way of the Gods. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Macaulay's Essay on Milton. American Book Co. 20 cents.
Magnus, Lady. Boys of the Bible. Illustrated. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Machen, Arthur. The Great God Pan, and the Inmost Light. London: John Lane: Boston; Roberts Bros. $1.
McClelland, M. G. St. John's Wooing. Harpers. $1.
McClung, D. W. Money Talks: Some of the Things It Says. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co.
Ostrander, S. M. A History of the City of Brooklyn and Kings County. 2 vols. Brooklyn: Mrs. W. M. Ostrander, 95 Madison St. $10.
Scribner's Magazine. 1894. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Strettell, Alma. Lullabies of Many Lands, Collected and rendered into English Verse. London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Thomas, Cyrus. Report on the Mound Explorations of the Bureau of Ethnology: Washington: Government Printing Office.
Ward, C. O. The Equilibration of Human Aptitudes and Powers of Adaptation. Washington: *National Watchman* Co. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 10, 1895.

The Week.

THE Democratic caucus of the House of Representatives has voted by 81 to 59 in favor of the bill known as the Springer substitute for the Carlisle currency bill. The caucus refused, in the most decisive manner, to make this action binding on individual members. The 81 affirmative votes are not sufficient to pass the bill, as against the Republican votes in the House, nearly all of which will be cast against the measure on account of the State-bank feature, if for no other reason. Therefore there is little likelihood of the bill reaching the Senate. It is, nevertheless, a great step forward when the Democratic party votes that something ought to be done looking to the substitution of banknotes for greenbacks. The party has actually voted to "take the Government out of the banking business."

The chief merit of the bill under consideration is in section 9, which provides that the secretary of the treasury may, in his discretion, use the surplus revenue of the Government in the redemption and retirement of the legal-tender notes to an amount not exceeding 70 per cent. of the new bank circulation taken out. This clause ought to be made rather more imperative and definite. It ought to provide that the legal-tender notes be cancelled, destroyed, and not reissued. But as it stands, it is a sign of returning sanity in the Democrats, and we venture to say that it will not be lost upon the Republican party. The latter has made itself in some sense a defender of the greenback as a symbol of loyalty, "battle-scarred and blood-stained," but it has never pinned its faith to it as a financial instrument to the same degree as the Democrats, who have been the real devotees of cheap money until they were pushed from the altar by the Populists. The writhing of the silverites as they see their faction dwindling is perhaps the most encouraging feature of the caucus. Mr. Bland saw the ground slipping from under his feet, and he could do nothing but utter disconnected cries of "National banks," "Sixteen to one," "Money of the Constitution," etc.; but he got no attention. The Democratic party has broken away from his lead completely.

Mr. Bourke Cockran is the first Congressman, we believe, to question the commonly accepted saying that the greenback is operating like an endless chain of buckets to take gold out of the Treasury. This idea was suggested by Secretary Carlisle, in his annual report, in these words:

"One of their most obvious effects is to defeat all attempts of the Treasury to procure and keep constantly on hand a sufficient amount of gold to inspire entire confidence, at home and abroad, in the ability of the Government to preserve its own credit and maintain a sound currency for the use of the people. Frequent issues of bonds for the purpose of procuring gold, which cannot be kept after it has been obtained, will certainly cause increased distrust," etc.

There are two facts to be weighed in examining this subject: first, that the $100,000,000 gold reserve which was accumulated in 1878, was never disturbed by this chain of buckets as long as the Government had a surplus of income over expenditure; (2) that the recent drain upon the gold reserve has been just about equal to the deficit of revenue and has gone on *pari passu* with the deficit. Now let us suppose that the legal-tender note should cease to exist to-morrow. There is no longer any chain of buckets by which the public, the banks, or the gold-exporters can draw the yellow metal from the Treasury. Will the secretary be able, therefore, to protect his gold reserve? Not if he continues to pay his daily expenses. It is true that his receipts will now be largely of gold, perhaps wholly so, because if $500,000,000 of paper were suddenly taken from the circulating medium, the demand for instruments of exchange would absorb all the existing silver certificates and banknotes, and more. But if the secretary's income is less than his outgo, he must take the difference out of his gold reserve, and if the deficit continues many months, he will be on the market for a new loan. So it appears that the greenback, although guilty in many ways, is not guilty as charged in the secretary's indictment. While Mr. Cockran expressed doubts whether the greenbacks were operating in the particular mode described, he considered them an unmitigated evil, and urged that they be treated as other Government debt is treated—that they be funded into interest-bearing bonds and extinguished. This is the fundamental condition of currency reform.

If the retirement of greenbacks is the fundamental condition of currency reform, it may be asked why the Baltimore plan ignored it. This is a very proper question, and it was fittingly answered by Congressman Hendrix in the debate on Saturday. The Baltimore bankers did not seek to regulate the Government's financial policy apart from the banking question. They limited themselves to the mode of issuing, securing, and redeeming banknotes, leaving the question of legal tender to be settled by Congress in its own way and time. Probably the bankers took the view that if they asked for the retirement of the greenbacks, they would stir up a host of enemies who would say that they were trying to clear all other currency out of the road in order that they might monopolize the field and fasten themselves like bloodsuckers on the community. Important reforms are sometimes defeated at the first onset if a charge of personal self-interest can be brought against their advocates. There would be just sufficient plausibility in such a charge to convince many people that the Baltimore plan was founded in the private greed of a comparatively small number of men, than which nothing could be more destitute of truth. For this reason, we presume, the greenback question was not touched upon. Yet it is undoubtedly true, as Mr. Hendrix said, that the Baltimore bankers, without a single exception, desired the retirement of the greenbacks, and have so desired ever since the close of the war.

The documents sent to the Senate on Thursday by the President in regard to the Bluefields affair mark the happy settlement of a long-standing and vexatious diplomatic controversy. For fifty years the protectorate asserted and exercised by Great Britain over the Mosquito Indians has been in one way and another an annoyance to our State Department, owing to its effect upon our relations with Nicaragua. Our treaties with Colombia, leading to the construction of the Panama Railway, and with Nicaragua, giving the right to build an interoceanic canal, in their turn led up to the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, which has long been a thorn in the flesh of our State Department. Now all the entanglements are cleared away at one stroke, through England's amicable agreement to renounce her protectorate over the Mosquito Coast, and the full assumption of sovereignty over that strip of territory by the Government of Nicaragua. This peaceable diplomatic achievement has left the Jingoes speechless.

Senator Aldrich rashly charged on Friday that the President was intriguing with Hawaiian royalist commissioners last summer, and that it was at their request that our war-ship was ordered away from Honolulu. Mr. Cleveland says, however: "I never saw any member of this commission or committee, and have never had any communication or transaction with any of them directly or indirectly"—except to write them a note saying he could do nothing for them. But if the President thinks to silence the patriots in that way, he is greatly mistaken. The *Tribune* says of the above statement that it has a "characteristic lack of directness and perspicuity." What would seem direct and perspicuous to this editor we cannot say, but he would not be satisfied in any case, for, as he adds, why did the President "keep quiet" about the affair so long if there was no treason hatching?

The patriots will be equally distressed by the latest news from the islands. The Government is not "solicitous" about having an American ship in Honolulu, as Lodge vows that it is, although if one came it "would be very welcome." They would not fire on it. Worse than that, the British ship "sailed away on the 27th," and the new British commissioner "maintains most friendly relations with President Dole." About the only comfort left for patriotic hearts is the fact that the English bishop in Honolulu still refuses to pray for the President of the Hawaiian Republic. This is distinctly hostile, in the case of a man so much in need of effective intercession, and if "Alfred Honolulu" will only keep on denying the Hawaiian Government all benefit of clergy, we may get the islands yet.

There are hints from Washington that an appropriation will not be made at present to pay to Great Britain the sum agreed upon by the two governments for the settlement of the Bering Sea claims. A failure to make the appropriation would not necessarily imply a repudiation of the treaty, but it would be a repudiation of that part of it which provides that the award, whatever it be, "shall be promptly paid." The fact is, that though provision was made in the treaty for the assessment of these damages, the Tribunal never passed upon them. The British made out a full schedule of their losses, and Judge Blodgett, on the American side, made an argument on them which showed that they were much exaggerated; but they were never adjudged by the Tribunal. In truth, in the opinion of our counsel, not over a third were good claims. It seems a pity, therefore, that Mr. Gresham should have come to an agreement to pay them without further inquiry. But his excuse is that they are not worth the expense of further inquiry. To examine them thoroughly would cost more than they are worth. What ought to be done in such a case it is hard to say, but the opportunity for a compromise or splitting of the difference seems a good one.

The most easy and simple way of increasing the national revenues would be by doubling the present tax of $1 a barrel on beer, as proposed in the bill introduced by Mr. Money of Mississippi in the House on Thursday. It would not raise the price of beer by the glass to the consumer, and would merely reduce the present inordinate profits of the brewing industry, while it would add fully $30,000,000 a year to the income from the internal-revenue bureau, without requiring any new machinery for the purposes of collection. In short, there is every argument for it from the standpoint of the public interest. Nevertheless, there is little reason to hope that the plan will be adopted. Both parties have always feared to offend the brewing interest.

The prohibition of American cattle and beef at the port of Antwerp on the ground of pleuro-pneumonia is clearly a protectionist move on the part of the Belgian Government. It is probably the result of a combination of cattle-growers and butchers, resembling the combinations that have been made at different times in this country to exclude dressed beef from particular States, and to require all animals intended for food to be slaughtered on the ground. These local statutes were quashed by a Supreme Court decision, since when we have been free from that kind of interstate protectionism. There is no supreme court that can help us in this case. Nor can we make any effective protest, since we have indulged so liberally in protectionism ourselves. Retaliation will probably be resorted to after a time, although that is always foolish, and generally ineffectual. If Belgium hurts us in the matter of our sales, that is no reason why we should hurt ourselves in the matter of our purchases. But all nations resort to retaliation except Great Britain. It looks as though the latter were the only real friend, in the commercial sense, that we have in Europe. Distressing, but true!

Mr. Carroll D. Wright has an article on our last summer's labor troubles in the January *International Journal of Ethics*, in which he says many things which are wise and sound and some which are otherwise. Contradicting the opinion given in the report of the commissioners (of whom he was one, and presumably *magna pars*) who investigated the Chicago strike, he admits that arbitration is impossible in the case of a sympathetic strike, "because the sympathetic strikers have no grievances which can be arbitrated." This being so, and the sympathetic strike being the only kind that is any longer so formidable as to require state intervention, we cannot share his hope that great good is to result from "the application, through various officers, voluntary and statutory, of the principles of conciliation and arbitration." For the ordinary strike no cumbrous machinery of arbitration is necessary, and to the extraordinary, sympathetic strike Mr. Wright confesses that it is inapplicable. He would reduce all strikes to a "principle" which is "at stake." This need not be quarrelled with, but what is to be said of a writer who adds, "We need not, in this connection, take into consideration the violence, the rioting, the destruction of property which accompany some great strikes," because these are only "incidents"? We have had one judicial decision that violence is of the very essence of a railroad strike. And, what is more, this decision of the much-abused Judge Jenkins was strictly based upon the evidence in the case before him. The labor-leaders frankly admitted, under cross-examination, that their strike contemplated violence from the beginning, and that without it they would have had no hope of success. But, this aside, any man not asleep or in the Department of Labor must know as a matter of fact that all the great strikes which disturb the public peace are essentially violent. That is the only reason they do disturb the public peace. It is because the peaceable strike of other days is now almost unknown that social philosophers are so much concerned about the existing violent type. We do not think that the social philosopher who starts out by ignoring the violence, or calling it only an "incident," will get on very far in his solution of the difficulty.

It is impossible to regard the election of Hamilton Fish to the speakership of the New York Assembly as anything less than a public calamity. He owes his selection entirely to the fact that he is Platt's man. For several years he and Platt have been bitter enemies, but they "came together" this year for mutual profit. Both have been Tammany dealers for at least ten years, and Fish has held public office by Tammany favor during a greater part of that time, being at the present moment one of the appraisers of property condemned in the Croton watershed by Mike Daly, the celebrated water-purifier. Fish owes his nomination to the efforts of "Lou" Payne, the Platt agent of whom a Republican Albany correspondent declares: "This is the same 'Lou' Payne who was ordered out of the Speaker's room last winter, who was denounced as the tool of Tammany Hall, and who was mercilessly assailed by almost every newspaper in the State for opposing the reduction of the $75,000 fees of the Tammany sheriff of New York city." All these circumstances and facts make it plain that the Assembly is to be under the control of Tammany "dealers" who have, during their political careers, preferred to share the profits of corrupt politics with Tammany rather than to antagonize and defeat Tammany. Mr. Fish's selection must be interpreted by the honest people of this city as a distinct and formidable menace to all genuine reform plans.

The last Legislature of this State was prevailed upon, by the plea that American citizens were being ruined by the cheap labor of unnaturalized aliens, to pass a law requiring that all laborers employed in the public works of this city should be citizens. The consequence is that nobody can be employed in even the most menial occupation unless he either is a native of the United States, or, if born abroad, has been naturalized. The effect of this restriction has been that the commissioner of street-cleaning could not get laborers enough after the December storm to remove the snow, and it is not gone yet.

There never was any such trouble before, and it is entirely due to the provision of law that confines employment to citizens. Citizens can do so much better at something else than cleaning streets that not enough can be found to do the work in any emergency like that created by a hard storm; and as only citizens can lawfully be employed, the work must go undone.

The principle here involved extends far beyond the streets of this metropolis. If it is right that only citizens should be employed in the public works of this city, unnaturalized aliens should also be debarred from service in digging sewers, working mines, constructing railroads, and in all other branches of unskilled labor. Other places are, of course, as much injured as New York by the spectacle of a man engaged in menial work who is not a citizen, and the rule should be universal if it is maintained at all. Everybody familiar with the subject, however, knows that enough citizens could not be found to do the work that needs to be done throughout the country if such a rule were enforced. Originally the Irish were chiefly depended upon for construction work on railroads, but nowadays the Irishman who has been here long enough to become a citizen is seldom willing to take such a place. The Italians and men of other races who are now employed did not supplant the Irish; they simply filled vacancies left by the Irish. It is usually taken for granted that the only reason contractors have for employing aliens is because they can hire them more cheaply than citizens; but it is frequently the case, as with the commissioner of street-cleaning in this city during the past fortnight, that they cannot get citizens on any terms. Many advocates of restricting immigration say that, if they could, they would stop it entirely. If this could be done, within five years we should see the industrial development of the country arrested, because we could not find in the United States men who were ready to do the work that must be done. Everybody agrees that the criminal, the pauper, and the insane classes of foreign nations should be debarred admission to this land; but when we say that the man who is ready to come here and shovel snow, dig sewers, and work in mines shall not come, we disarrange the whole machinery of the industrial world.

Any criticism which is passed on Dr. Parkhurst's recent attack on Byrnes must be based on its untimeliness. It must be due to the belief that he has spoken too soon, or that it is undesirable as a matter of policy to create an appearance of division in the reform ranks, in the presence of the apparent predominance of the spoils element in the organization of the Legislature. But these are minor considerations. If we are to have, as the sole result of our fiery rising, another "bi-partisan police board," and a reorganization of the force conducted under the supervision of Byrnes, who owes so much money to one of the most corrupt sources of wealth this country has ever seen, Dr. Parkhurst has not spoken too soon and cannot speak too loudly. We do not know whether there be any intention in any quarter to employ Byrnes in the work of reorganizing the police force, but no force which he would reorganize, composed of men on whose character he would pass, could possibly command the confidence of the public, or could possibly in the long run turn out much better than the one it is proposed to disband. If we get Byrnes to reorganize, or have anything to do with the new force, it will be tantamount to the approval of the secret accumulation by a police officer of a large fortune during his term of service, through gifts from Wall Street speculators—the rascally as well as the decent—for services he dare not name. Can we afford to make such an announcement to our new or reformed policemen? If Dr. Parkhurst sees any chance of this, he ought not to be silent. Better have his discretion assailed than his honesty or public spirit.

Recorder Goff's first official act is of itself ample justification of his election to the bench. He issued an order for the removal of all indictments from the custody of the district-attorney's office, and the placing of them in the custody of the clerk of his own court. He said that the present practice, which has prevailed for many years, of leaving the indictments in the care of the district attorney was "entirely without warrant of law," adding:

> "These papers are a part of the records of this court. I have consulted with my associates, and they agree with me that it is a practice that should be stopped. It is therefore ordered that every indictment shall be filed and remain with the clerk of the court. It is further ordered that the clerk shall keep a record of the indictments and of every movement or process concerning the indictment; also that the clerk shall keep a record of all bench warrants issued out of this court on or regarding such indictments."

Everybody at all familiar with the district-attorney's office is aware that an irresponsible official, known as the indictment clerk, has really been the custodian of these indictments for many years, and that he has been almost or quite the only person in the city who knew anything about them or exercised much control over them. He could pigeon-hole almost any one of them and few persons would be any the wiser for it. The practice has been an abuse of the most far-reaching character, and in abolishing it the new recorder has done more at a single stroke to sever the control of criminals and lawbreakers over the prosecuting legal machinery of the city than could be accomplished in any other way. There is not a criminal in the city who will hear the news of this transfer without a shudder.

There will be a general concurrence in the wisdom of the position regarding consolidation taken by Mayor Schieren of Brooklyn in his annual message. Public opinion in that city was almost evenly divided on the question, as far as the vote at the November election indicated, the affirmative majority being only 277, in a total poll of more than 129,000, while almost one-fourth of those who voted for Governor cast no ballot on the annexation issue. Moreover, since the election a considerable opposition to the proposed union has developed, the promoters of which might evidently have turned the majority in November the other way if they had been as active then as now. Mayor Schieren takes the ground that the result must be accepted as a settlement of the question whether the cities shall be consolidated; but as the majority was so small, and the opposition is still so active, he thinks that any hasty action is to be deprecated. He holds that it must be a work of time to prepare a comprehensive charter for the different municipalities which are to form "the Greater New York." He endorses the suggestion of Governor Morton that a commission be created by the Legislature to discharge this duty, although he would not have it try to report its results until a year hence. A deliberate policy of this sort will suit the New York public. It has been settled that the cities are to be consolidated, but there is not the slightest necessity for any hurry about the matter.

It is not often that financial complications take on so peculiarly distressing a form as they have assumed in the colony of Newfoundland. Before the bank failure of December 10, the notes of the two banks at St. John's were virtually the only circulating medium of the island. Both of these banks suspended, and the condition of each proved to be that of insolvency. This, it is easy to see, presented a very different problem from the suspension of specie payments, such as happened with us in 1857 and 1861, or the temporary suspension of cash payments on checks, such as characterized our panics of 1873 and 1893. Even had all our banks, in July, 1893, refused to redeem depositors' checks in cash, it was nevertheless well known that the banks were intrinsically solvent. Certified checks, therefore, even on such banks as withheld cash payment, continued to furnish a medium of exchange. At a trifling discount they were exchangeable for cash in brokers' offices. Banknotes were actually at a premium. In Newfoundland one at least of the two banks of issue is a hopeless wreck; the solvency of the other is extremely doubtful. The problem, moreover, has not been one of money-hoarding. There is virtually no specie in the island except the meagre reserves of the fallen banks. The only currency in existence is the promises to pay by institutions which will probably never be able to redeem their promises.

ELECTORAL REFORMS.

THE tone of Gov. Morton's first message is in most refreshing contrast to anything of the kind that we have had from the executive chamber at Albany for ten years. For the first time in all that period there is the accent of sincerity in the utterances of a Governor concerning what he considers to be his duty towards the people of the State. No matter what Gov. Hill or Gov. Flower might say upon any great public question which was to come before the Legislature, everybody familiar with the actions of the two men knew that in the end the course adopted would be the one which was most conducive to the advancement of machine politics. However plausible the moral sentiments of the Governor might sound, everybody was perfectly well aware that they were to be withdrawn into the background when the time for practical legislation should arrive. It was always thus in regard to ballot-reform and corrupt-practices legislation. Both Hill and Flower had an abundant supply of favorable views for those measures, but they were never able to give their approval to any form of them that the Legislature passed which was unacceptable to Tammany Hall and the Murphy-Sheehan-McLaughlin machine.

Gov. Morton's deliverances on these subjects are more sincere in tone, and they command a hearing because of the belief that he will be amenable to reason and morality in deciding what course he will pursue when he is free to act. No greater waste of an intelligent man's time was ever made than in asking him to appear before Hill or Flower with a rational argument in favor of any measure. Neither of those men had any other conception of the executive veto power than to use it as a club over the members of the Legislature to compel their support of political measures. Gov. Morton has a few well-expressed words at the opening of his message which give assurance that he will not use that power in that way. "The chief executive," he says, "should never use it [the veto] as an instrument to aid in impressing or imposing his will upon the Legislature, nor should it be invoked to serve personal or partisan ends." Hence his views upon prospective legislative methods are to be regarded as pledges by him to consider them solely upon their merits, and approve or disapprove them according as he shall be convinced of their public desirability or usefulness.

What the Governor says about ballot-reform and corrupt-practices legislation accords with the demands of the people for honest and secret elections. He favors the adoption of a blanket ballot, with party columns and emblems, and without the blanket "paster"; single-name or individual "pasters" alone to be permitted. Two bills providing a blanket ballot in conformity to this suggestion have been already introduced. One of them is the Sheffield bill of last year, and the other a new measure which Senator Raines seems to have prepared. The Sheffield bill provides for a system similar to that recommended by the Governor. The Raines bill provides the blanket ballot recommended by the Governor, but, instead of allowing single-name "pasters," provides that illiterate voters shall be allowed to take two election inspectors into the booth with them, one to represent each political party, to assist in preparing his ballot. That is a thoroughly vicious provision which ought to be stricken out without ceremony. It would simply amount to allowing the bosses and corruptionists to keep tab upon the voting of every bribed voter, ascertaining surely that he keeps his bargain. There is one point about the Sheffield bill which ought to be considered carefully. As it stood last year it permitted a voter to vote an entire party ticket by placing a single mark in a space reserved for the purpose at the top. This plan has been in operation in several States, including Iowa, Ohio, and Pennsylvania, and in all of them it has worked so badly that there are general demands for its abolition. There is practically unanimous agreement that this single mark leads to confusion, that a dishonest inspector who is deft with his pencil may place a second mark over a party column while smoothing out the ballot, and thus cause the vote to be thrown out, and that the fairest and surest way is to require the voter to check the name of every candidate in the column. With the party name and symbol at the top, even the illiterate voter has no difficulty in doing this.

In addition to the introduction of two ballot bills, Senator Parsons introduced a bill authorizing the use of the Myers voting-machine in New York city and Brooklyn, and another bill authorizing its use in all counties in which a majority of the towns have adopted it. This will bring the question of the use of the machine before the Legislature, and we trust will be the cause of a full and intelligent inquiry both into its merits and into the practicability of adopting it for general use in next fall's elections. We observe that the *Tribune* quotes a "prominent man who has given the machine much study" as saying that the machine provides no method by which a voter may vote for a candidate whose name is not on the regularly nominated tickets. This prominent man's "study" has not been carried very far, or he would have known that the machine has an admirable device to meet this contingency. It presents a blank space, with a knob, in which the voter may write any name he chooses or put on a paster. When he has done this, he presses in the knob, which becomes locked and remains so until the voter has left the compartment, when the name disappears, leaving a blank again in its place. All the names thus inscribed are preserved upon a continuous roll of paper, and when the machine is opened, this roll can be taken out, and the inspectors will find upon it the entire "scattering" vote of the election.

Gov. Morton's recommendation that the corrupt-practices act be so amended as to include campaign committees, as well as candidates, in the requirement of sworn publication after election of all money received or expended, is in the line of a reform which has been greatly needed for many years. We think that the law should be amended in other directions also—that it should place maximum limits to the legal expenditures of all candidates, graded according to the office, and that the legal and illegal expenditures should be specifically defined. Then, too, some method ought to be adopted by which contributions from corporations, made either to candidates, campaign committees, or bosses, could be forced into the light of day. This is the evil which at present dominates all others, for it furnishes the sustenance upon which bosses like Croker and Platt are able to maintain their power. The present corrupt-practices act is, in fact, too inadequate a measure to be made of practical use by mere amendment. It should be thoroughly and completely overhauled and revised, and a new measure evolved on the pattern of the Missouri act, which is the best American adaptation yet made of the English act of 1883.

INTERNATIONAL INTERFERENCE.

THE London *Daily News*, commenting recently on the horrible lynchings in the State of Georgia, said it was lucky for the United States that their representative had been kept off the commission to inquire into the Armenian outrages. If Consul Jewett had protested at what had occurred at Sassun, his mouth would have been closed by any shrewd Turk who chose to fling back Alabama or Georgia crimes at him. The Kurds have as good ground for memorializing President Cleveland about the state of the South as he has for approaching the Sultan on the subject of what is going on in Armenia. These views of our amiable British contemporary raise the whole question of international interference, its grounds and proprieties.

International law has no precise and certain rules respecting this question. How to reconcile the right or practice of interference with the right and recognition of independent sovereignty is about as tough a problem as the theological one of harmonizing divine decrees with human freedom. It is not strange, therefore, to find, as a matter of fact, that interference of this kind has never been practised except in the case of weak or semi-civilized nations. The interference is practically a denial of full sovereignty. Yet, even so, interference must have a suitable occasion. The one most commonly laid down, and fitting the Armenian case, is interference on the ground of humanity — interference when, as Woolsey says, "Some extraordinary state of things is brought about by the crime of a government against its subjects." This was

the reason and the only justification of the interference of England, France, and Russia on behalf of the Greeks in 1827, and of Russia in the interest of the Bulgarians in 1877.

Now, looking solely at such action as the action of a nation, there is no provision, either in law or in history, that the interfering power must itself be beyond reproach in all respects. Russia could interfere to rescue the Greeks from the murderous Turk even though she had millions of serfs at home. England's interference could not be headed off by allusions to Catholic disabilities or Irish misgovernment. In short, the case of a nation is very much like that of an individual. A man has a right to lay hold of a ruffian who is beating a child in the streets, even if he himself has been heard to speak crossly to his wife. If all crime, national or individual, had to go unwhipped until an impeccable judge arose to inflict punishment, even such rough justice as we have would soon cease to exist. The *Daily News* lets go no occasion to tell the world that England is guilty of monstrous injustice towards Ireland, and perhaps of even grosser injustice towards workingmen; yet this does not operate as a bar to Great Britain's interfering in behalf of the Armenians. This matter of asserting that a nation's hands are perfectly clean is, as Dean Church remarked apropos of the disestablishment of the Irish Church, an extremely ticklish business.

But the real source of confusion of ideas on this and kindred subjects is the conception of a nation as a personality in and of itself, instead of as a collection of personalities of differing intellectual and moral standards. The moment we drop the old realistic definition of a nation as an abstract entity apart from the flesh-and-blood people who really compose it, most of the difficulties under consideration vanish. Take the case of American protest against the Armenian outrages. It is not the American nation that makes the protest, but a certain number of American citizens. The question of consistency in the protest, therefore, comes down to the question of the consistency of these individual protesters.

Some of them, we are bound to say, cannot be allowed to bring any moral significance at all into the case. They are the professional protesters, so to speak, to whom all outrages are a godsend, and who are ready at a moment's notice to protest, appeal, or lament, on any platform, in respect to any outrage the broad earth over —their own notoriety-seeking excepted. They are essentially non-moral quantities and hence negligible here. But, as far as we have observed, the persons most active in stirring up popular sentiment in the Armenian affair are not of this class. They are rather the citizens who, in various parts of the country, stand for what is highest and best in morality and education and philanthropy. They are men preëminently humane, and thus precisely the ones to raise their voices in the name of humanity. Can their mouths be shut by reference to negro-hunters and lynchers in the South? Not at all, for they speak out as clearly and strongly against those domestic assassins as they do against foreign ones. Their moral indignation is not of the kind which varies directly with the square of the distance, but burns as hot against present-day and native villains as against historic criminals or ruffians conveniently remote.

In such men and in the moral standards they represent we see international interference, from motives of humanity, in its most powerful form. Gladstone is now no part of the English Government, yet his short speech the other day on the Armenian persecution carried more weight than any official utterance possibly could have. It is because he speaks, not for the English nation or any other, but for what is best in civilization, that his words are watched for more eagerly than those of the Premier. In his case, and in that of men who have something of his moral elevation, the little flings about charity beginning at home and dwellers in glass houses, lose all point, as their humanity has nothing national or racial about it, but finds its country in the whole world and its fellow-citizens among all mankind.

THE USE OF GREAT FORTUNES.

We have received an interrogatory communication from a Kansas judge, which begins by asking whether "the existing concentrations of vast wealth in the hands of individuals are unjust." The answer to this depends on the meaning we attach to the word "justice." If we mean, Have all these concentrations of vast wealth been lawfully and honestly acquired? we answer, In many cases probably not. But this is as true of small fortunes as of large. It is, in a measure, true of all property. A large proportion of all the property in the world has been acquired, at least in part, by means which the strict moralist must condemn, or, in other words, "unjustly." The object of churches, schools, and works on ethics, is to keep down this proportion as much as possible. The possibility of completely extirpating unjust methods of acquiring property is hardly a subject for speculation among practical men. The socialist plan of collectivity has to contain a vast army of officials who would be no more honest or efficient than the rest of mankind, and would undoubtedly steal and lie in the old-fashioned way. We owe our immense fortunes in this country to the sudden development of untouched resources in various fields, aided, no doubt, very often by chicanery of some kind; but there is no cure for this which would not be worse than the disease. The maker of a large fortune is, as a rule, a man who has had more sagacity than other people in discovering and supplying a public want. To despoil such a man would deprive us of services of inestimable value to civilization, even if he were sometimes a knave. To despoil his children would discourage all other fathers of like talents and opportunities.

To the question whether such fortunes are "detrimental to the public welfare," we answer, As a rule, no. The portion of the income spent in luxury is considered waste by economists, but it does employ labor, and, through encouragement to the arts, is often of great help to civilization. But no income can come from large fortunes except through investment in some enterprise useful to the public, as is proved by the profits or interest; and the owner is apt to be a man skilful in finding out what the public wants, and therefore a good man to have control of large sums of money. One way in which such concentrations of vast wealth do obviously become injurious to the public welfare is their use in resisting blackmail at the hands of poor politicians and legislatures. They are used freely in debauching legislatures and buying up office-holders for defensive purposes. The remedy for this is, however, in the hands of the poor.

"How much is annually paid to citizens of foreign countries for interest, etc.?" We do not know. The amount is certainly large. We are quite sure it is never paid unless it is honestly due on loans or investments. A large amount that is honestly due is never paid, owing to the failure of enterprises or the dishonesty of managers. We think the public interest would be promoted by the increase of this annual payment, because it would show both that more foreign capital (our great want) was flowing into the country, and that our industries were flourishing. We would bring about this increase partly by the establishment of a sound standard of value, acknowledged to be such by all the world, partly by increased honesty in the management of our various industrial enterprises, partly by improvements in city governments, the present condition of which frightens foreigners, and partly by the abstinence of Congress and State Legislatures from attempts at barbarous and blackmailing legislation. The notion which many people, especially Populists, undoubtedly have, that the foreigner who draws an income from American investments can do something to us if he does not get his money, is an hallucination. What happens is that he goes without his money, and swears at us, while we enjoy the commodity which his wealth has created.

Let us say, also, that, strictly speaking, we send very little money abroad. This is one of the major Populist errors. We pay our debts abroad by the export of goods. People who owe money in Europe, buy bills of exchange from dealers, who export goods to meet the exchange, so that the debt is really paid in European money. Our net exports of gold last year were only, in round numbers,

$4,500,000, of silver $37,000,000, while our exports of goods were $847,000,000, and we were producers of both gold and silver. If the people of Kansas had spent as much time during the last two years in studying the laws of trade and exchange, which are really laws of human nature, as they have spent in listening to Populist harangues, Kansas would be a far happier and more prosperous, as well as a more respected, community than it is.

What is wanted most of all, especially in the community in which Judge Allen resides, is a stricter attention on the part of each man to his own business, and a diminished occupation with the affairs of the world at large. Statistics—custom-house and other—do more or less mischief in democratic countries, because they help to conceal the fact that the trade, commerce, and industries of a country are made up of thousands or millions of individual transactions, on each of which the best authority in the world—the man who is to profit or lose by it—has passed judgment. We owe most of our "crazes" to the notion that every voter ought to have a say about the way everybody else does his business.

ALEXANDER IRELAND AND EMERSON.—I.

NEW YORK, January 1, 1895.

WERE Ralph Waldo Emerson living, he would send the choicest flowers of his garden to be laid near "the sweet heart of Alexander Ireland"—to recall an expression in one of his letters to me. The wreath must now pass from grave to grave; and if I venture to bear it, though it may seem but faded autumn leaves to the younger generation, it is because the eventualities of life have brought within my personal knowledge facts not likely to be known to any other survivor concerning the relationship between the men. There are already before the world, scattered through pages of the Carlyle-Emerson Correspondence, Ireland's volume on Emerson, and mine also, items which, pieced together, would sufficiently disclose a literary episode of international interest sprung from the casual meeting of the two in early life. But all that has yet been printed leaves too much in the background the unpretending Englishman who was nearly the first to discover the genius of Emerson, who wrote of him: "At the landing in Liverpool, I found my Manchester correspondent awaiting me, a gentleman whose kind reception was followed by a train of friendly and effective attentions which never rested whilst I remained in the country. A man of sense and of letters, the editor of a powerful local journal, he added to solid virtues an infinite sweetness and *bonhomie*. There seemed a pool of honey about his heart which lubricated all his speech and action with fine jets of mead" (*English Traits*).

Alexander Ireland (born at Edinburgh, 1809, died at Fallowfield, December 9, 1894) was of good family and well educated. Although he early entered on a business career, he was devoted to books, and one of his friends remembers his transcribing the whole of White's 'Selborne' from a longing to own a copy. His hero was, of course, Sir Walter Scott, and perhaps the best introduction I can give him to many readers will be the following reminiscences in one of his letters to me (1871):

"I heard Robert Collyer three times, and he supped at the house in Liverpool where I was staying. He is a noble and true man. I liked him much, and I honor him for his manly and plain outspeaking

"Now about Scott. I have sent you three little books, which may be interesting to you to look over. I enclose a letter I wrote to the *Scotsman* about a painfully interesting lithograph I have of him, from a painting by Knight I often went to see him sitting in the Court of Session below the bench, and used to wonder how all those marvellous creations could have emanated from that brain of his. After reading one of his novels I would go up to the court and feast my eyes on him. On one occasion I had an opportunity of speaking to him—or rather I had the luck to be spoken to by him. A friend who was going to Galashiels in a gig, on a commercial journey, offered to drive me there and back; so I thought I would seize the chance of seeing Abbotsford. It was in 1828. The place was not shown when he was at home, but as I had seen him the day before in court, I presumed he would not be at his home On presenting myself at the door a servant told me he could not admit me, as his 'Maister was at hame and naebody could be admitted when he was there.' At this moment Scott came into the hall on his way out to the grounds, and on seeing me he asked the servingman what I wanted. I told him I had come out from Edinburgh to see the place, not being aware that he was at home, as I had seen him in court the day before. He smiled and said, 'Let him see everything that is to be seen. You are welcome to see the place, sir.' He then passed on, his dogs gambolling about him. He looked hale and hearty—was dressed in a black and white checked shepherd's plaid suit, and had a belt on, stuck full of knives, hedge-bills, little saws, etc., for cutting and pruning timber.

"I knew James Laidlaw, an Inverness-shire farmer, brother of Willie Laidlaw, Scott's factotum He was a heretic in religion, and he visited at Robert Chambers's in Edinburgh, and many a pleasant hour I had with him over our toddy after supper. I remember his telling us an anecdote of Scott, who had been dictating to Willie Laidlaw, and somehow the doctrine of Atonement was touched upon. Scott broke out in denunciation of it, walked about the room in a vigorous manner, and said he wondered how any one could believe in such a doctrine.

"In 1859, at the Burns centenary, an old man, turned 100, came on the platform and recited 'Tam o' Shanter.' He had known Burns. My aunt, a venerable lady who died some ten years ago, danced many times with Burns at a public hall in Edinburgh, when he was all the rage there. I once took Burns's two sons to see this old lady, and they chatted for an hour, to the great delight of all the three. She has often told me about his appearance and manner of dancing."

These casually written notes indicate the atmosphere in which Alexander Ireland's youth was passed. At his hospitable fireside in his home, "Inglewood" (at Bowden, near Manchester), I have often listened to his early memories, but they always led to the most cherished of all—the day when he first heard the voice of Emerson. His ideal of pulpit eloquence had been filled by Chalmers, but one Sunday (August 18, 1833) he happened to attend the Unitarian church (Edinburgh) and came under a new kind of spell. Ireland never told me the subject or purport of Emerson's sermon, but the charm of it, the sweetness of voice, the absence of oratorical effort (in such contrast with Chalmers), the calm dignity and simplicity with which the original thoughts were uttered, remained with him to the end of life. Even within the past year, his eighty-fifth, I saw the youthful fire in his eyes when he referred again to that discourse heard in his twenty-fourth summer. But a greater joy awaited him. Emerson was not yet an author, he was totally unknown in England, and a professional gentleman of Edinburgh, to whom he brought a note of introduction, unaware that an angel had arrived at his door, turned him over to a young friend to be shown the sights of the neighborhood. This young friend was Ireland. Emerson was but six years older than his guide, but seems to have impressed the youth in much the same way that he did those who gathered around him in Concord twenty years later.

"He spoke on many subjects connected with life, society, and literature, and with an affluence of thought and fulness of knowledge which surprised and delighted me. I had never before met with any one of so fine and varied culture and with such frank sincerity of speech. There was a graciousness and kind encouragement, too, in his manner, inexpressibly winning to one so much younger than himself; and it was with a feeling akin to reverence that I listened to and drank in his high thoughts and ripe wisdom. A refined and delicate courtesy, a kind of spiritual hospitality, so to speak—the like of which, or anything approaching to which, I have never encountered—seemed to be a part of his very nature."

These words are from Ireland's little book on Emerson, where four pages are given to what the American told him about literature, and great men, some of whom he had just been visiting, and others (Carlyle and Wordsworth) he was about to visit. He strongly advised Ireland to write down his ideas, and the youth straightway began with "memoranda of that brief intercourse, written in a strain of youthful, enthusiastic admiration, and of perfectly confident expectancy as to his future—a strain which might at that time have sounded very inflated, but which his subsequent career may be said to have rendered almost tame and inadequate."

Although Carlyle's voice had reached Emerson, he was as yet so little known in his own country that Ireland remembered "the almost insuperable difficulty" of ascertaining where he lived; but at length the traveller went off to Craigenputtock, and a week later his young friend at Edinburgh was enriched by a long letter (printed from the original in my 'Thomas Carlyle') written from Liverpool, giving him a careful account of the visits to Carlyle and Wordsworth. Emerson had travelled far to meet the men whose thoughts had influenced his intellectual life. "Leave thy temple, and search for a heart," says Omar Khayyám. Emerson had resigned his pulpit, had visited great men, but did not find in any of them the heart he sought. But he knew that he had touched a true heart in the Edinburgh youth, and wrote to him, just as he was starting for America, inviting a visit. "I cannot think of sketching even his [Carlyle's] opinions, or repeating his conversations here. I will cheerfully do it when you visit me in America." "I noted down some of these [exhortations of Wordsworth] when I got to my inn, and you may see them in Boston, Massachusetts, when you will. I enjoyed both my visits highly, and shall always esteem your Britain very highly in love for its wise and good men's sake. I remember with much pleasure my visit to Edinburgh, and my short acquaintance with yourself and your good parents. It will give me great pleasure to hear from you, and to know your thoughts. Every man that ever was born has some that are peculiar. You have found out the virtues of solitude, I remember with much pleasure." He subscribed himself, too, "Your friend," which thrilled young Ireland's heart, and but for limited resources it is probable that the youth would have become the first of the many pilgrims from England who found their way to Concord. But the future held something more picturesque and more impor-

tant than any such pilgrimage; and Emerson, who returned home to break the last clerical bonds, realized in the end the further saying of Omar: "A thousand chains broken by thee are less than to have chained to thee, by sweetness, a true heart."

Whatever spiritual bonds had remained on the Edinburgh youth softly fell away, after Emerson's touch, and his mind was gently revolutionized. He kept steadily at his business, and by increasing means earned the more leisure for literary studies, whose extent is known to the fortunate possessors of his 'Book-Lover's Enchiridion,' his 'William Hazlitt, Essayist and Critic,' and 'A List of the Writings of William Hazlitt and Leigh Hunt, etc.,' under whose bibliographical title is hid a wealth of information which made Emerson describe it as "a work of loyalty and good taste, so thoroughly and accurately performed that it will be the *liber veritatis* and *liber studiorum* for all lovers of Lamb and Hazlitt and Hunt, now and hereafter." But he was never ambitious of literary fame. During the ten years following Emerson's visit of 1833, Ireland remained at Edinburgh, happy in his books, in his German flute—on which he played Scotch airs finely enough to be remembered in Sir William Chambers' autobiography—above all happy in his circle of friends. Among these were Robert and William Chambers, Robert Cox (author of an encyclopædic 'Literature of the Sunday Question'), Dr. William Smith, who first introduced Fichte to English readers, and is to-day the venerated President of the Edinburgh Philosophical Society, and Dr. Hodgson, late Professor of Political Economy in the University of Edinburgh—who always wrote to Ireland as "Bro. Alex." (Hodgson's letters to Ireland were counted: there are as many as 5,000.) I have known all of these gentlemen personally, and have heard from them affectionate memories of Ireland. They used to ramble together in the beautiful solitudes, discuss high themes at Arthur's Seat or Salisbury Crags, and return to their "noctes cœnasque," where Ireland might charm them indeed with his flute, but never fail to tell them of his American prophet. And when the prophet's first utterance came ('Nature,' 1836), no doubt Ireland was its first recipient in that region, and passed it round. M. D. Conway.

VICTOR COUSIN AND THE UNITED STATES.

Paris, December 17, 1894.

When the holiday season shall have passed, and other than gift-books can be sold, a notable contribution to biographical literature will be brought out here. I refer to a work entitled 'M. Victor Cousin: sa Vie et sa Correspondance,' in three octavo volumes of some seven hundred pages each. The author of this *magnum opus* is the venerable M. Barthélemy Saint-Hilaire, the translator of Aristotle, the professor of the College of France, the *fidus Achates* of Thiers, the Minister of Foreign Affairs some fifteen years ago, and one of the few remaining life-members of the French Senate. Thus the author, as well as the subject, of this biography, is a personage. But this is not the only reason why these volumes possess more than ordinary value.

Almost at his start in life, M. St.-Hilaire became Cousin's protégé. When the latter was appointed Minister of Public Instruction under Louis Philippe, the young Greek scholar, who held a modest clerkship in the Treasury Department, was made his *chef de cabinet*, and later it was Cousin's influence which had much to do with M. St.-Hilaire's entering the College of France. "I owe a great deal to Cousin," he said on one occasion just a year ago—"even this chair in which I am sitting at this moment, and which was his favorite one." But Cousin willed his friend things more valuable than this handsome old arm-chair. He made him his literary executor, and it was with all Cousin's private papers in hand that M. St.-Hilaire prepared, *con amore*, what must always be the most authoritative and perhaps the definitive Life of Victor Cousin.

In a long Introduction, the author recounts his personal relations with Cousin, which extended over the period between the years 1834 and 1867, the date of the philosopher's death. Then, having devoted some space to Cousin's early life, M. St.-Hilaire divides his career into three periods: 1815 to 1830, 1830 to 1852, and 1852 to 1867, which represent the three phases of Cousin's existence: professor, minister, and historian. Special chapters are given up to Cousin's correspondents and correspondence, to his teachers, his friends, his disciples, and to his personal characteristics. The third volume is filled wholly with the letters which passed between him and Royer-Collard, Hegel, Schelling, Sir William Hamilton, and other distinguished people. A hundred and fifty pages of the second volume are occupied by the history of Cousin's relations with the Congregation of the Index at Rome, an almost unknown episode of his life. The general conclusions concerning the philosophical influence of Cousin take up some fifty pages, while the whole work ends with the index—a desideratum generally lacking in French books—in the third volume.

Such is a brief general description of this forthcoming biography. But I propose examining more in detail some twenty-five pages in the first and second volumes, in which Cousin and several American correspondents exchange their views and hopes about primary education and philosophy, the two chief occupations of Cousin's versatile mind, and in which M. Barthélemy Saint-Hilaire now and then adds his own instructive observations, explanations, and surmises.

It is rather a curious fact in the history of popular education that this all-important matter was a burning topic of public consideration in both France and the United States at the very same hour. It so happened that, during the thirties, Horace Mann, Francis Lieber, Charles Brooks, Thomas Cushing, and many other educational reformers were laboring for the same end in America as were Guizot and Victor Cousin in France, and, what is not the least remarkable feature of this synchronism, they were coadjutors—a relationship revealed in these pages of M. Saint Hilaire.

In taking up the American side of Cousin's efforts in the field of primary instruction, M. St.-Hilaire says:

"In the United States, where M. Cousin necessarily had fewer relations than in Europe, he awakened quite as much sympathy and even more enthusiasm. In general, popular education was very much neglected in that immense country, which, by its very position, had to combat nature and subdue it before being able to think of the cultivation of the mind. . . . If a common organization was impossible, many attempts at particular organization might be profitably made. This was Cousin's opinion, and, in his zeal, he would have liked to do for America what he had already done for France."

What it was that Cousin had accomplished in France, and how he contributed to advance the cause in America, are touched upon in several of the letters in this collection. Thus, on January 17, 1834, Francis Lieber, who seizes the occasion to send his Report on Girard College, which had just been founded, to Cousin, writes to him as follows from Philadelphia:

"Some review articles on your labors have been reprinted here by different societies and distributed throughout the country. I have been asked to translate your 'Report on Public Instruction in Prussia.' As I was born in that country and owe to its institutions, schools, and universities all that I am, I take a double interest in your excellent work; and it has occurred to me that I might submit to you my humble effort as a means of expressing to you the deep thankfulness which ought to be felt towards you by all who have a care for the rising generation even in this hemisphere. This sentiment is all the stronger because the way for it was prepared by the admiration awakened here by your philosophical works. . . . You will oblige me very particularly, and will render, I believe, a service to this grand cause of education, if you will be kind enough to send me all the legislative or other documents relating to the school system, past or present, of France. I desire very much to have the Report of the Minister of Public Instruction. I beg you to pardon me the trouble I give you with so little ceremony. But I feel sure that you will be disposed to furnish all the light you can in so noble a cause, which is, in reality, the cause of humanity."

Alexander H. Everett, editor of the *North American Review*, writing to Cousin from Boston in the spring of the same year as Dr. Lieber, thus refers to the latter's educational publications: "As you are doubtless aware, they have attracted the most serious attention in this country, as well as in England, and they will render an immense service to this grand cause of education."

The Rev. Charles Brooks, who met Cousin in Paris in 1834, writes to him from Hingham, Mass., early in 1837, that, during an extensive tour devoted to lecturing on the necessity of a reform of elementary education in the United States, he often quoted Cousin's Prussian Report, and then continues: "I had much more success than I thought I should have, and I am convinced that it is due to my having followed your example in your noble and wise efforts to obtain the same end. Your name was constantly associated with my labors, and I referred to you as one of the greatest benefactors of the two continents. May God bless you in your future work."

Cousin exchanged several letters with Mr. Brooks, sending him on one occasion the Report on Dutch Schools which the former had just brought out, and which the latter translated and circulated extensively in the United States. "Your work is widely known," Mr. Brooks writes him, "and is exercising the most happy influence. We are profoundly thankful to you for it." Whereupon Cousin replies: "I feel that there exists in America a veritable love for the people and a wish for their moral emancipation, without which all civil liberty is a chimera and a danger. I sympathize from the very depths of my heart with the efforts of all the true friends of popular education, and I beg of them to count upon me on every occasion."

In 1837 the American Institute of Boston chose Cousin as one of its foreign members, and this is M. Barthélemy Saint-Hilaire's comment thereon:

"Though M. Cousin was loaded with honors of this kind, he said that none ever touched him so deeply as this one. We can easily believe him, for such a disinterested recognition as this, coming from such a distance, was the very thing to move a heart like his. M. Cousin had done good service to his own country, and it so happened that what he

had accomplished in France had also been a benefit to far-away nations. A large nature could be excused for feeling a personal pride in having obtained a result which was as happy as it was unexpected."

M. St.-Hilaire publishes in full a long, earnest, and characteristic letter sent to Cousin in 1838 by a once well-known Boston teacher and text-book compiler, Miss Eliza Robbins.* In this rather rambling epistle its author refers to Hillard as "a young man who ardently desires to make himself useful to society," declares that Bryant "is the most admired poet of our country," mentions her "having in Europe a young friend, Mr. Charles Sumner, who has already had the good fortune of seeing you," describes a cheap edition of the Prussian Report which she had brought out, and then dwells on "the immense services you have rendered our age and all countries by the explanations, as beautiful as learned, concerning a method and practice that can secure the moral culture of mankind."

Cousin was also acquainted with another original Boston teacher. He says in one of his letters to Mr. Brooks: "Will you kindly offer to Mr. Alcott, as coming from me, a copy of the list of questions which I drew up for one of my countrymen whom the Government has sent on an educational mission to Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Iceland? Mr. Alcott might do me the honor to insert it in his journal." This same letter contains the following message for an educator of quite another mould: "If Mr. Edward Everett, whom I formerly knew at Göttingen, still remembers me, give him my compliments, and please tell him that I am at his command if he wants documents or my humble opinion on any matters connected with public instruction."

But Cousin was not satisfied with simply sending our educational reformers his writings and his advice and receiving in return honorary distinctions and flattering praise, however sincere and well deserved. He paid a higher compliment to his transatlantic colaborers by repeatedly asking them for accounts of what they were doing, and what the state of education in America was. It is evident that he felt he, too, could learn something from them. His letters to his New York and Boston correspondents and their replies show this in many places. Thus, he asks Alexander H. Everett to send him a complete collection of documents on education in Massachusetts. He thanks Brooks for a box of books and pamphlets of this kind, "a precious gift"; begs, further, for sets of the *Annals of Education* and the Memoirs of the American Institute, and closes the letter with these words: "I hope these two works will suffice to keep me *au courant* of popular education throughout the American Union. And, finally, I trust that you can get for me each year the official reports of the Massachusetts Government."

Without doubt these American relations reminded Cousin—it is M. St.-Hilaire himself who makes the surmise—of a grave *lacuna* in the famous "law of 1833" which established the primary-school system of France, that is, in so far as boys were concerned. The education of French girls was not even mentioned. M. St.-Hilaire offers this explanation, which is new, to me at least:

"This oversight, however, cannot be attributed to M. Cousin. A mind like his could not have been so narrow. In the proposed bill as he submitted it to M. Guizot was a fifth and final article devoted wholly to girls. . . . In a moment of feebleness, which was far from honorable, the Government cut off this article. What was the motive? It is no longer known; but from what was said at the time, the reason was a most unworthy one. It appears that the Government feared that the Chamber of Deputies might ridicule them if they left this clause in. So, instead of bravely facing down these foolish jokers, the Government timidly drew back."

So it was not Cousin's fault if the elementary education of girls by the state was not realized till towards the end of the Second Empire, I might almost say till the advent of the Third Republic. It is to be noted, also, in this connection, that M. St.-Hilaire makes Cousin the author of the law of 1833, which is always attributed entirely to Guizot.

But it was not alone questions of elementary education which drew Cousin towards America. Philosophical interests also attracted him in the same direction. Several of his metaphysical studies had been translated by Americans and published in the United States before his report on the Prussian schools had appeared even in France. In fact, his reputation as a philosopher had prepared the way in the New World, as we have already seen from Dr. Lieber's letter, for the more utilitarian rôle of the educational reformer. One of these American propagandists of the principles of French philosophical spiritualism was George Ripley, who had brought out in English dress in Boston several fragments of Cousin's work in this field, and to him Cousin writes as follows in 1838:

"The letter which Mr. Sumner handed me gave me great pleasure, as it informed me that Mr. Bancroft is one of us in our philosophical belief. God bless his noble efforts. Materialism and atheism can produce a revolution, but they cannot establish liberty. If you have no faith in the dignity of man and the grandeur of his destiny, you are not likely to devote yourself to his service, or to recognize or respect his rights. Spiritual philosophy has its place wherever Christianity has its place, wherever man is counted as something. I am not sufficiently acquainted with American affairs to have an opinion about the political parties which divide you. But, in the world at large, I may be said to belong to the grand liberal party; and my politics are in accord with my philosophy. In Europe, I cannot call myself a democrat, for I am a constitutionalist; and eclecticism has been my guiding star in the political storms which I have encountered, as among the systems of philosophy which I have examined. Since Mr. Bancroft is kind enough to interest himself in my labors, please give him my compliments, as well as Mr. Brownson and Mr. Alexander H. Everett. Ask them to please send me any numbers of the *Christian Examiner* or the *North American Review* in which philosophical questions are discussed and I can find some signs of progress of the good cause."

Among the other American correspondents of Cousin were Sumner; Henry P. Tappan, introduced by Bancroft in 1851 as "one of the best thinkers of my country," whose 'Elements of Logic,' M. St.-Hilaire tells us, "Cousin declared equal to anything Europe possesses in that department"; Prof. March of Lafayette College; Henry Wheaton, then United States minister to Berlin; Prof. Charles K. True of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.; George Ticknor; President Bache of Girard College; and Henry Harrisse, the Columbus scholar.

THEODORE STANTON.

* The late editor of the *Westminster Review*, Dr. John Chapman, who died last month, used to tell a rather amusing and typical anecdote of Miss Robbins. While she was a guest at his London house, Louis Blanc, then in exile, called. Greatly surprised at the diminutiveness of a man about whom she had heard so much, she exclaimed when he had left: "Well, that's about the smallest atom of eminence I ever laid eyes on."

Correspondence.

THE PULLMAN-CAR RATE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While nearly every one will impulsively approve of the pending legislation to regulate and reduce Pullman-car rates, said to be championed by Senator Sherman, there is a view of the matter, apt to be lost sight of, which, when considered, will cause a reversal of the opinion of some on the subject. Senator Sherman and other advocates of a high protective tariff oppose free trade because it will result in cheapness, and cheapness is one form of vulgarity. Consistency is a rare quality, with Senators as well as with other people. Senator Sherman objects to paying two dollars for a night's lodging on a Pullman. He wants the rate cut down to a dollar or less, and a substantial difference made between a lower and an upper berth. But such changes will not affect him alone. There are many more persons who would pay one dollar for a berth than there are persons who now pay two dollars for one. Last summer, when I boarded the train at Colorado Springs, and found that, through some act of stupidity or omission of the agent, no berth had been reserved for me, and all the lowers and all the uppers were taken at two dollars or more apiece, I thought Pullman rates were too low.

I do not pretend to be consistent. I am in favor of free trade, but I am not in favor of free Pullman berths. I can wear a free-trade suit of clothes and be perfectly exclusive about it, and I want to sleep in a Pullman as nearly exclusive as I can. Senator Sherman aims to make Pullmans cheap and vulgar. He overlooks the fact that he now gets something for his $2 besides his night's lodging. It is worth something to have the upper over your lower berth unoccupied. It is worth something to feel that your co-Pullman occupants are of the well-to-do, and usually the more refined, class. Let Pullman alone. Compel all the railroads to haul what may be termed "tourists' sleepers," if you like, Senator Sherman, but spare to such of us as want them the privilege we now enjoy. As a legislator we have the right to expect you to be consistent.

W. J. ROBERTS.

KEOKUK, IA., December 31, 1894.

A CHAPTER OF ALASKA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent Mr. Bingham, in the *Nation*, 3d inst., very properly calls attention to the fact that the writer of a "Chapter of Alaska," in the *New England Magazine* for January, 1895, has been imposed upon: the character and services of Charles Bryant in no manner whatever resemble those attributed to him by the writer of that article.

Charles Bryant sailed in 1853 for his first cruise in the North Pacific Ocean, in the whaleship *Metacom*, 360 tons, owned by J. B. Wood & Co. of New Bedford, Mass. This vessel sailed from New Bedford on its fifth cruise, in 1853, for the "Pacific Ocean and Northwest Coast"; she returned to New Bedford in 1857. She was commanded by Capt. E. H. Woodbridge, and Bryant does not appear as an officer on her rolls. She sailed again for the same region on July 16, 1857, with Bryant on board as a second mate, commanded by Capt. John F. Hinds; while homeward bound in 1860, she was lost on Tutuilla, Navigator Islands, in

December, but 700 barrels of oil were saved and sold from the wreck. Bryant never sailed again.

Charles Bryant actually knew nothing of Alaska in 1867, more than the average whaler's yarn about the country—a vague and idle understanding. Whalemen never went ashore in that region unless wrecked there. They made Honolulu their base of supplies, and the only natives that Bryant ever saw or understood were the Sandwich Island people.

What he learned and what he did for the natives on the seal islands of Alaska reflects no such light as Mr. C. E. Cabot tries to throw over it. J. A.

WASHINGTON, D. C., January 7, 1895.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Bingham's letter in your last issue, under the above caption, is about as wide of the mark in a critical sense as the foolishly laudatory article in the *New England Magazine* was in the other. Capt. Bryant was among those examined when the treaty of annexation was pending, and showed a very good knowledge (for the time) of the Bering Sea region, though I do not think his testimony was in any sense decisive as regards the acceptance of the treaty. Still, it no doubt led to his appointment as assistant agent at the islands, where he did good service for the Government, and stood against a mass of false testimony, abuse, and greed, for the rights of the Government and the natives. To him more than to any one else is due the consideration of the rights of these helpless people in the lease contract. He was in constant correspondence with Senator Sumner, and fortunately was worthy of the confidence of the Senator and the Secretary of the Treasury, which he retained as long as he remained in Alaska.

The magazine writer has confused valuable and useful observations made on the seals after his appointment as agent, with his testimony before the committee on the treaty. The former were published by J. A. Allen in his work on the seals issued by the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Cambridge, and were rated as important and valuable by Prof. Allen, who is certainly a good judge in such matters.

While Bryant was not a cultivated man, he was intelligent and experienced, and not at all what one usually understands by the term "illiterate." On the whole, he has deserved well of his country, and certainly deserved a more intelligent and better informed eulogist than the writer in the *New England Magazine*.

H.

WASHINGTON, January 6, 1894.

Notes.

THE Century Co. will publish this week a work on 'Municipal Government in England,' by Albert Shaw.

A series of biographies of "European Statesmen," in the style and scope of "Twelve English Statesmen," is to be issued by Macmillan & Co., under the editorship of Prof. J. B. Bury. The same firm announce a students' edition of Chaucer in one volume, by the Rev. W. W. Skeat.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'The Academy Song-book,' for use in schools and colleges, by Charles H. Levermore, principal of the Adelphi Academy, Brooklyn, and H. F. Reddall.

'Sidney Forrester' is a novel, by a new writer, announced by H. W. Hagemann, 160 Fifth Avenue.

The Harpers have added another volume to the bookish monument of the late George William Curtis, 'Literary and Social Essays.' These are nine in number, ranging from 1853 to 1891, and are mostly of one kind, having to do with the personality and the genius of Emerson, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Holmes, and Irving. There is also one on Rachel, one on Thackeray in America, and a third, on Sir Philip Sidney, which has never been published heretofore. They have in common the stamp of the magazine writer, and belong (except in outward form) with the triple series of selections 'From the Easy Chair.' The publishers have made a pretty book of this, but on p. 133 "Fénélon" should discard its second accented *e*, and on p. 142 Francesca di Rimini has her sex altered by a misplaced final *o*. Into Emerson's "Concord Hymn," even, a misprint of "see" for *set* in the third stanza (p. 11) has crept; and in the last line of the second stanza "that" should be replaced by *which*, if we may trust 'Harper's Cyclopædia of British and American Poetry.'

The fourth volume of Jefferson's writings as edited by Paul Leicester Ford (Putnams) covers the period from 1784 to 1787, during the ministry in France. The future head of the low-tariff party is here seen desirous to have the States "practise neither commerce nor navigation, but to stand with respect to Europe precisely on the footing of China." "The cultivators of the earth," in his theory, "are the most virtuous citizens, and possess most of the *amor patriæ*. Merchants are the least virtuous, and possess the least of the *amor patriæ*." Jefferson's continental instincts, however, forced him to take an interest in "the cutting thro' the isthmus of Panama—which the world has so often wished & supposed practicable." He also pays sufficient regard to Europe to inform Monroe of the ratio of gold and silver in several countries, for the guidance of Congress on that subject. "The average is 1 to 14⅝." On the other hand, he was pleased to see "the exaggerations of our want of faith with which the London papers teem," with consequent loss of credit abroad; which he hopes will lead to the abolition of all credit at home. He has a kind word for Thomas Paine, as worthy of Virginia's substantial gratitude; and he touches off neatly the characters of Franklin and Lafayette.

The Syndicate Publishing Co., Philadelphia, have now completed with a fourth volume their reissue of 'The Encyclopædic Dictionary.' The first variations from the original plates (of 1888) appear in the appendix, which opens with an historical sketch of the English language. Some changes have been made in the list of Latin phrases and quotations and in the brief chapter on English lexicography. Additions are: A not very extensive array of American colloquial and slang phrases; names of States, Territories, and political parties; geographical Americanisms; tables of weights, measures, and money; glossaries of law, trade, and finance, etc. The lists of contractions and abbreviations are omitted. There is a gain in space on the shelf from this edition, but no higher praise can be awarded to it. The original remains an excellent work, valuable for reference beside any other.

'Hazell's Annual' for 1895 (London: Hazell, Watson & Viney) completes the tenth year of this excellent encyclopædia. In the mass of new matter introduced the greatest interest attaches, on both sides of the water, to the revolutionary Finance Act in the particulars of income tax and death duties. These are fully set forth. There are maps of Africa (for its political divisions), Australia, the Arctic regions (showing explorations up to date). Mr. Maxim's air-ship is described under Aërial Navigation. Mr. Aubrey Beardsley's is one of the new biographies. It appears that this master of black and white was a musical precocity, and "gave concerts at the age of 7," *i. e.*, in 1880. Signora Duse, Prince Hohenlohe, Moritz Jokaï, Johann Strauss, Casimir-Perier, and Nicholas II. are likewise noticed for the first time.

The South cuts a large figure in the two bound volumes of *Scribner's Magazine* for 1894. Besides Mr. Cable's "John March, Southerner," and Mr. Thomas Nelson Page's "Burial of the Guns," we meet again articles on the farmer in the South, on Florida, and on the Sea Islands (Mr. Joel Chandler Harris's account of the great hurricane). By contrast, four famous New England watering-places are described for the hundredth time. Vanished hands are recognized in Robert C. Winthrop's brief paper on Webster's reply to Hayne, and in Mr. Hamerton's remarks on the artists selected for representation in the pictorial series, "Types of Contemporary Painting." Three other series are notable for their illustrations as well as for the letterpress, viz.: that giving numerous examples of the work of Sir Joshua Reynolds, and two on Burne-Jones and Watts, in which *Scribner's* does a real service to a tottering art by calling in the skilled wood-engraver where economy would have dictated a resort to "process" engraving.

The tenth volume of the monthly which bears the imprint of the *Babyhood* Publishing Co., New York, justifies anew its title to admission into every family with growing children. Out of 67 leading articles in this volume, 29 are from the pens of physicians, and Dr. Leroy M. Yale's name is still borne on the title-page as medical editor. There is much interesting matter also in the domain of education, and the notes and queries for anxious mothers are noticeably fresh in spite of the recurrence of the old story.

The publication of Mr. G. Steel's 'English Grammar and Analysis for Students and Young Teachers' (Longmans) is, in a small way, an international misfortune. The author describes himself as "Lecturer on Science and Method under the School Board for London." We do not know to what department of science Mr. Steel has given his attention, but the gross blunders which deface his little manual show that he has no knowledge of the science of philology. As to "method," we hope there is more of it in Mr. Steel's school-board lectures than in his book.

A work of exceptional value reaches us in a new edition of Medlicott and Blanford's 'Manual of the Geology of India,' prepared by R. D. Oldham, superintendent of the Geological Survey of India. The original edition, published in 1879, has for some time been out of print. Much revision of its chapters was needed in view of new field-work. That this has been given by Mr. Oldham appears from the special type in the elaborate table of contents by which the new matter is indicated. The three main divisions of India are well characterized—the peninsula upland, a dissected plateau of old rocks and lava-beds, slightly disturbed; the great mountain ranges on the north, of old and young rocks, greatly crushed and deformed and deeply eroded; and the broad Indo-Gangetic plain between the two, a wide expanse of river-borne gravels, sands, and clays.

It is noticeable, in the closing chapter on the geological history of India, that Mr. Oldham retains local names, such as Dharwar, Cuddapah, and Vindhyan, for the older divisions of the stratified rocks, not feeling satisfied to correlate them definitely with the divisions of the geological scale more familiar to us. The volume contains a colored map on a scale of 96 miles to an inch.

Two volumes, styled 'Morphologie der Erdoberfläche,' by Prof. Albrecht Penck of Vienna, constitute the latest number in the series of Geographical Handbooks edited by Prof. Ratzel, and published by Engelhorn of Stuttgart. Prof. Penck is well known as among the most active of the younger school of geological geographers in Europe, if, indeed, he may not be called their leader. Since his call to the University of Vienna, he has been a prolific writer and an inspiring teacher; yet he has found time for the preparation of the scholarly work now before us, even though it has involved the consultation of a great variety of geological and geographical literature. Unlike some other numbers of the series, Penck's work contains a large number of citations of scattered articles, which must prove of high value to the inquiring reader. Its contents embrace the whole earth at one extreme, and its minor topographical features at the other. It must prove indispensable in all our libraries where German scientific books have any place.

The Berlin publisher Hoffmann has just issued a volume of 380 pages entitled 'Bismarck-Gedichte des *Kladderadatsch*,' edited by Horst Kohl, with nearly a hundred illustrations by Wilhelm Scholz and Gustav Brandt. It contains more than two hundred poems, chiefly of a satirical or humorous character, some of which have been already printed in the 'Bismarck-Album' published by the same house in 1890. The book is a unique and decidedly entertaining contribution to the recent political history of Germany as reflected in the magnifying and facetiously distorting mirror of a comic journal. The earlier poems, beginning with 1862, are mostly censorious, and it is curious to follow the evolution of opinion from animadversion and antagonism to expressions of high esteem after the war of 1866, culminating in unbounded admiration from 1870 to 1894.

In this connection we may mention two other Bismarckiana, both edited by Dr. Heinrich von Poschinger: 'Die Ansprachen des Fürsten Bismarck' (Stuttgart: Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt), a collection of speeches made between 1848 and 1894 to deputations and on other occasions of gratulation and ovation; and the second volume of 'Fürst Bismarck und die Parlamentarier' (Breslau: Trewendt). The first volume of this work, which appeared a year ago, bore the subordinate and special title, "Die Tischgespräche des Reichskanzlers," and consisted chiefly of his table talk, whereas the contents of the present one are derived from utterances of various members of the imperial Diet, communicated either orally or through the press, or contained in letters, memoirs, reminiscences, and similar publications. It covers the period from 1847 to 1879, and will be followed by a third volume coming down to the date of Bismarck's retirement from office.

A little-known, but accomplished and wise teacher, M. Lachelier of the École Normale, now *inspecteur général*, has the satisfaction of seeing the fruits of his teaching in a second generation of writers taught by pupils of his own. M. Gabriel Séailles, who is himself one of the most inspiring professors in Paris, has published a book, 'Ernest Renan: Essai de biographie psychologique' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.), which is a conscientious and thorough piece of work. It is an admirable study of the great and elusive thinker and writer whose influence has been and is so largely felt by the youth of France. It is earnest and serious, and withal captivating. It enables one to understand the affectionate enthusiasm felt for M. Séailles by his students, and to trace to its source the excellence of the work done by them.

M. Charles Buet's 'Le Péché' and M. Paul Gaulot's 'Henriette Busseuil' (Paris: Paul Ollendorff) are two of the very latest additions to the large family of French novels whose chief characteristic is a loving treatment of sensuousness and adultery. The work of M. Gaulot has not even the high literary quality which might condone in very slight degree the choice of subject, and merits, therefore, no further mention. M. Buet's is somewhat better written, but is mainly remarkable for the bold assertion of the author, in a prefatory letter to M. Bourget, that, like this gentleman, he is a "catholique," a religiously moral writer, and therefore his book is good, though otherwise it might even be bad, being the account of a "physiological case." It becomes very speedily wearisomely disgusting.

Since we last took note of its progress, the new (eighth) edition of the invaluable 'Ritter's Geographisch-Statistisches Lexikon' (Leipzig: Otto Wigand; New York: Westermann) has advanced from the fifth to the tenth instalment, which brings the work to the letter G. This affords a convenient point of comparison with the bulk of the sixth edition, and shows 640 against 520 pages. More than a quarter of the work has thus been achieved. Nearly the same forwardness has been attained by the 'Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française' of MM. Hatzfeld, Darmesteter, and Thomas, of which the fourteenth fascicule ends with *four*. Apart from its popular character, this work is playing a useful part as a forerunner of the 'New English Dictionary,' in respect of the ultimate derivation of French words, in the light of the latest scholarship. On the other hand, when Mr. Henry Bradley reaches *fardel*, it will be interesting to see whether he can throw no more light on the origin of *fardeau* than our French editors profess to be able to do.

The fifth part of Mr. Wm. C. Harris's 'Fishes of North America' (New York: The Harris Publishing Co.) embraces the duck-bill catfish and the sturgeon, and the bowfin or dogfish, in the letterpress, while the two chromo-lithographs represent the weakfish or squeteague, and the Rocky Mountain whitefish. We understand that the costly and difficult work of publication will now be carried on at a much more rapid pace. The colored fish-portraits are all from oil originals expressly prepared for this work.

The three latest parts (30, 31, and 32) of the 'Atlas to accompany the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies' (Washington: Government Printing Office) continue the general topographical map of the theatre of war. The only Northern States in this portion are Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois.

Mr. H H. Johnston's official report of his three years' administration of British Central Africa is a valuable account of the physical, ethnological, social, and political conditions of a comparatively little known part of the continent. Two-thirds of the country described, the eastern half of the northern basin of the Zambesi, consists of extensive plateaux broken by river valleys and mountain ranges. When above 3,000 feet in height, they have for six months of the year a delightful temperature, and at no season is the heat unbearably oppressive. The value of the country for stock-raising is greatly diminished by the tsetse fly, which, however, disappears with cultivation. The lung-disease which, starting from the country south of Abyssinia, has swept southward to the northern end of Lake Nyasa, destroying not only domestic cattle, but buffaloes, antelopes, and zebras, seems to have died out. Considerable space is given to an account of the origin of and devastation caused by the slave-trade, as well as the measures taken to suppress it. The Commissioner has come to the conclusion that the presence of Arabs is incompatible with the introduction of European civilization, and sooner or later the Arabs must go from Central Africa. Its salvation, he believes, will be found in the introduction of the Indian trader and agriculturist. A number of maps accompany the report.

The presence of the Sikh soldiers in British Central Africa has brought a new language into existence, which is described as a most extraordinary "mixture of Hindustani, Swahili, Yao, and Chinyanja." Though but a year old, it is well understood by the people. The influence of the Indians is shown also in a wonderful change in the habits and manners of the natives. They require boots, turbans, trousers, and coats, and at a distance it is said to be now difficult to distinguish the half-naked savage of a year ago from the Sikh soldier in his ordinary dress. Better than this, the negro is reported to have gained confidence in his British rulers, to have laid aside the gun, and to be devoting himself much more regularly to earning the money required to supply these new wants.

From the thirteenth annual report of the Dante Society at Cambridge (Boston: Ginn & Co.) we learn that a concordance to the lesser Italian works of Dante, similar in plan to Dr. Fay's Concordance to the 'Divine Comedy,' has already been completed in the cards, and that a concordance to the Latin works is contemplated. For these and many other useful undertakings an enlarged membership is much to be desired. The Latham prize is to be reawarded for the best essay by a Harvard student, or graduate of not more than three years' standing, on one of three topics. The report is bound up with a valuable index of proper names in the prose works and canzoniere of Dante, by Paget Toynbee. We remark here a recent publication by Prof. A. Fiammazzo, 'Il codice dantesco della biblioteca di Bergamo [codice Grumelli], illustrato' (Udine: Doretti). In sixty-seven pages this, one of the most precious MSS. of the 'Divine Comedy,' is described, and the variants as compared with Witte's text recorded. The codex dates from 1402.

Mr. Reuben G. Thwaites, secretary of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin, writes to us: "In your issue for December 27, 1894, I find an appreciative note upon the forty-second annual meeting of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin; but you state, in connection with its collection of bound newspaper files, 'About 350 volumes date from before the nineteenth century.' As a matter of fact, the number of volumes of newspapers in this collection ranging between the years 1650 and 1800 inclusive is 720."

In our notice last week of Marston's 'Walton,' we neglected to name the American publishers, Messrs. A. C. Armstrong & Son.

—The *Atlantic* for the month of January contains an article which, even in the midst of others that are excellent, is conspicuous for breadth of treatment and for the writer's energetic sympathy with her subject—the meaning, nominally, of the annual Welsh bardic festival of the Eisteddfod. Under cover, however, of the limitation of the title, there is to be found an able panegyric, not only of the Cymric tongue—declared not unlike the Greek, so rhythmical is it, "so velvety-smooth, then again so full of resonant, *big-mouth* words"—but also of the people to whom it is the dearest of inheritances, a cult, something not only loved but reverenced and adored. The exalted patriotism and poetical gifts of the Cymro of old are traced in his descendants, who have transferred their virtues, their love of Cymraeg, and their Eisteddfodau to a new soil, and whose singing here is still fervency itself, "particularly in the great chorals wherein they excel all other nationalities," although the intensity of their fervor never causes a loss of purity of tone. That "the highest possibilities of alliterative consonance are to be found in the Welsh language" is a dictum no one will be disposed to dispute, or perhaps regret, after glancing over the nomenclature and examples of "restricted versification," with its pencerddol, dysgyblaidd, and iselraddol symphonies, and their subdivisions. Although it has not the racial revelations that make the paper by Edith Brower exhilarating reading, a much briefer article, by Philip H. Goepp, on "The Symphony Illustrated by Beethoven's Fifth in C Minor," is at once a clearly reasoned and persuasive warning against the fallacy of too persistently finding "a meaning" in music. Enthusiastic amateurs will do well, in the interim of listening to music, to read here why they also should not fall into the opposite fallacy of seeking "mere sensuous sound effect." To turn from the number's striking musical group, which is completed by the first part of Mrs. Wiggin's "Village Stradivarius," "The Survival of the American Type" is a forcible, if here and there nebulous, article, to the effect that our development of a new citizenship, grouped about personality that must come to the front, is the only alternative to our loss of liberty. Prof. Adolphe Cohn's review of French recovery since *l'année terrible* is an example of the lucidity of expression that distinguishes the people of whom he writes.

—Although the four magazines have, without exception, devoted space to the most observed of Oriental nations, the *Century* alone balances its somewhat perfunctory article on "The Armor of Old Japan" by another on the rival people. This, which is the continuation of an M. P.'s recollections of Canton, deals with the punishment of criminals, and the river population. In view of its capital illustrations, together with its pleasantly familiar and graphic text, it may be considered the most noteworthy of the number's completed articles, unless future developments shall award this distinction to Hiram S. Maxim's elaborately and excellently illustrated account of his invention of a new flying-machine, under the head of an experiment in aerial navigation. A clever disciple of Mr. Henry James pursues through the intricacies of international variance in intonation, social habits, and views of afternoon tea, the story of "A Lady of New York," and in spite of the film of psychological analysis which he interposes as a veil between reader and characters, succeeds in presenting the latter agreeably and movingly. For the rest, *place aux dames* may be taken as the motto of the number, since a sprightly summing up, in guise of fiction, of the various ways in which an active young woman may nowadays wrest a living from society by means of hands and head, is followed finally by descriptions of festivals at five colleges for women. Though the themes are not novel, the indulgence which is the part of chivalry towards what is produced by the sex will doubtless be extended to the articles.

—The title-page of *Scribner's* gains a distinction it is to keep throughout the year from the name of George Meredith, whose new novel, "The Amazing Marriage," begins in the current number. Miss Edith Wharton adds to the beautiful reproductions of some almost forgotten terracotta groups in the remote monastery of San Vivaldo in Tuscany, the needful description of their rediscovery by herself, and supports her critical acumen as to date and origin by the authority of Prof. Ridolfi, who writes, "I declare with absolute certainty that it is a mistake to attribute these beautiful works to Giovanni Gonnelli, and that they are a century earlier in date," from the hand of "an artist of the school of the Robbias, who follows their precepts and possesses their style." Without the aid of an appeal to the eye, George Trumbull Ladd produces a view of the "Mental Characteristics of the Japanese" which may be accepted as the most enlightening contribution to the month's batch of papers upon "this interesting, this provoking race." Mr. Ladd's three months' stay among them was devoted to an attempt to enter into the controlling forms of their mental life, and these forms fall, in his analysis, into sentimentalism, with its accompanying impulsiveness and artistic instinct; fidelity, blind and undisciplined, but productive, nevertheless, of splendid examples of self-sacrificing heroism; and a fickleness, not to be confounded with frivolity, which is at once the source of the mobility of mind admired by foreigners, as well as of the preference of the latter for seeking and trusting the Chinese rather than the Japanese in mercantile and commercial affairs of every kind. Those to whom mental dissection is distasteful will find no tincture of it in the earnest and straightforward paper in which Mrs. Maud Ballington Booth describes the Salvationists as "slummers," in London and in our own democratically developed but no less direful human lairs: As works of alleviation the results she describes are admirable; but hope of eradication is not to be distinctly found in even the "change of heart" which is the Army's reconstructive basis.

—*Harper's* makes its frontispiece of a likeness of the late Count of Paris, and its leading article of a solid piece of reading, which is enlivened by illustrations, detailing the "Fortunes of the Bourbons." Throughout the number, pictures and text are kept in the customary equilibrium—the profuseness or value of one balancing the brevity or slenderness of the other. Mr. Alfred Parsons's "Fuji-San," the great Sacred Mountain of Japan, is, however, remarkable for its illustrations and for the fact that its author made the famous ascent. It is a veracious account of an interesting trip, minus all glamour of poetry or enthusiasm, reading much like a guide-book description, and seemingly "done to order." But the pictures are charming, full of tenderness and a poetic quality which may perhaps have been eliminated from the text by too vigorous and business-like condensation.

—The third annual meeting of the American Psychological Association was held at Princeton, December 28 and 29, under the presidency of Prof. Wm. James. The programme included many interesting papers. The most remarkable topical discussion was, perhaps, that on Pleasure and Pain and Emotion, to which five papers were devoted on Friday morning, by Messrs. Strong (Chicago), Marshall (New York), Mead (Chicago), Miller (Bryn Mawr), and Mezes (Texas). A lively debate sprang up after these papers, participated in by other well-known men. Prof. James's presidential address Thursday evening, on "The Unity of Consciousness," was a clear statement and illuminating criticism of the current typical doctrines of mental unity or synthesis—the burning question now so much in evidence in the controversy between the "Apperceptionists" and "Associationists." Prof. James divided theories into three classes, instead of two: he finds the traditional association theory now opposed by two others, which he calls respectively "psycho-physical," citing Münsterberg and Baldwin as its advocates in this country, and the "spiritual or soul" theory, of which he finds a modern statement in the writings of Prof. Ladd. The discussion which followed was largely in the hands of those whom Mr. James referred to in his paper. As it happened, Prof. Ladd read a long essay on "The Consciousness of Identity and Double Consciousness" the same afternoon. Other interesting papers were "Minor Studies from the Clark Laboratory," by Prof. Sanford, "A Preliminary Report on Imitation," by Prof. Royce, "The Psychic Development of Young Animals," by Prof. Wesley Mills of Montreal, "Recent Advances in the Chemistry of the Retina," by Mrs. Christine Ladd Franklin, etc. The monotony of science was broken midway by President Patton's pleasant reception at his residence on Thursday evening. At the business meeting of the Association, the matter of affiliation with the Society of American Naturalists was considered, and its decision left in the hands of the Executive Council, together with the place of meeting for next year. A constitution was adopted, under which the following officers were elected: President (for one year), Prof. Cattell; Secretary and Treasurer, Prof. Sanford; Council, Profs. James, Ladd, Cattell, Baldwin, Dewey, and Fullerton.

—At no time, probably, in the history of Darwinism, except in the period immediately following the publication of the 'Origin of Species," has the evolutionary hypothesis given rise to so much discussion among naturalists as at the present. For most of this, science owes its debt mainly to the late Prof. Romanes, to Prof. Weismann, and to the School of Mechanical Reversionists, or Neo-Lamarckians, which first took emphatic stand in this country under the banner of Prof. Cope of Philadelphia. The uproar has been going on for the better part of ten years, during which the "under nurse" of Darwinism, as Prof. Huxley years ago styled himself, has remained silent, and has given scant expression to his own views touching the points in controversy. He has recently broken this silence, and with refreshing clearness stated his position as to true Darwinism and the new evolution which some have tried to put in its place. Responding to the toast of "The Medallists," on the occasion of the anniversary meeting of the Royal Society of London (Nov. 30)—Huxley being the recipient of the Darwin medal—he said:

"If it has pleased the Royal Society to re-

cognize such poor services as I may have rendered in that capacity, I am very glad, because I am as much convinced now as I was thirty-four years ago that the theory propounded by Mr. Darwin—I mean that which he propounded, not that which has been reported to be his by too many ill-instructed, both friends and foes—has never yet been shown to be inconsistent with any positive observations; and if I may use a phrase which I know has been objected to, and which I use in a totally different sense from that in which it was first proposed by its first propounder, I do believe that on all grounds of pure science it 'holds the field' as the only hypothesis at present before us which has a sound scientific foundation."

There is no mistaking the meaning of these words or of his arraignment of the methods of the younger naturalists: "I do not know, I do not think anybody knows, whether the particular views which Darwin held will be fortified by the experience of the ages which come after us. But of this thing I am perfectly certain, that the present state of things has resulted from the feeling of the smaller men who have followed him that they are incompetent to bend the bow of Ulysses, and in consequence many of them are preferring to employ the air-gun of mere speculation." In his concluding remarks to the presentation of the Darwin medal to Mr. Huxley, Lord Kelvin, President of the Royal Society, significantly stated: "We may well be glad that the advocate of the 'Origin of Species by Natural Selection,' who once bore down its foes, is still among us, ready, if needs be, to 'save it from its friends.'"

—Among the belated transatlantic illustrated books of the holiday season, the first place may be given, on account of the reputation of the artist, to the 'Faerie Queene,' with illustrations by Walter Crane, issued in numbers by George Allen, London (New York: Macmillan). Number 1 contains the first four cantos of the first book, and is ornamented with four full-page drawings and ten head and tail-pieces, and about this proportion is intended to hold throughout. The designs are not of Mr. Crane's best. His mannerisms seem to grow upon him and his grace to decrease. He is always best in pure outline, and these drawings are overloaded with small fussy touches, and are consequently too gray and weak in effect. Some of his ornament seems slovenly and perfunctory, but the ornamental borders are what is best in the work. Very different are the cleverly realistic sketches, one hundred in number, with which Mr. Charles E. Brock has illuminated the pages of our old friend 'Gulliver' (Macmillan). In the first two parts especially, the sense of scale is admirably given by the artist. The text is printed with the old spelling and capitalization, but has been, though it is nowhere so stated, discreetly expurgated for the use of juvenile readers. Mr. Laurence Housman's illustrations to Jane Barlow's 'End of Elfintown,' also published by Macmillan, show a quaint fancy and considerable skill in draughtsmanship, but are often very confused and crowded in composition. The decorative title-page is very clever and the best thing in the book. Lastly we will note the amateurish but pretty drawings by Emily J. Harding for Alma Strettell's 'Lullabies of Many Lands' (London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan).

MORE FICTION.

The Honorable Peter Stirling, and What People Thought of Him. By Paul Leicester Ford. Henry Holt & Co.

Elder Conklin, and Other Stories. By Frank Harris. Macmillan & Co.

The Story of Rodman Heath; or, Mugwumps. By One of Them. Boston: Arena Publishing Co.

Cœur d'Alene. By Mary Hallock Foote. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

David Pannell. By Mrs. Alfred Marks (Mary A. M. Hoppus). London: Hutchinson & Co.

Round the Red Lamp. By A. Conan Doyle. D. Appleton & Co.

The Lilac Sun-Bonnet. By S. R. Crockett. D. Appleton & Co.

NONE of the anomalies and mysteries of republican government is quite so hideous and inexplicable to the inquiring child of a monarchy as the proud position of the political boss. The Constitution does not recognize him, the laws make no provision for him (any humble citizen may be more easily put in jail); nobody admits that he needs him and few say that they admire him, yet he continues to flourish, apparently self-elected and self-propagating. Vainly has the press striven to explain, to exterminate, or to justify—the fundamental puzzle of his existence remains unsolved. It is surprising that the novelists (who know everything) have so long ignored him, and gratifying that at last one has shouldered responsibility and vindicated the omniscience of his class by throwing floods of light on the *raison d'être*, origin, and methods of the dark figure that directs the destinies of our cities.

The Honorable Peter Stirling is not a typical boss. Judged by the knowledge of the genus derived from its works, his character is far more ideal than real, but it is so strongly imagined and logically drawn that it satisfies the demand for the appearance of truth in art. This pleasant illusion owes much to selection of telling scenes and incidents and to descriptions of political organization, all of which are literal transcripts of life and fact—not dry irrelevancies, thrown in by way of imparting information, but lively detail, needful for a clear understanding of Stirling's progress from the humble chairmanship of a primary to the dictator's throne. The inference from his character and career is not that a boss is a vital necessity, but that he is more than an accident in a great democracy, and that, given a few Stirlings to compete against many Maguires, the name boss and the thing might lose an opprobrious significance.

In the use of dramatic possibilities Mr. Ford is discreet and natural, and, without giving Stirling a heroic pose, manages to win for him very hearty sympathy and belief. Stirling's private and domestic story is well knit with that of his public adventures. Some chapters of his social experiences and love-making could be spared. They are not needed to complete his presentation, and add nothing to the fiction entirely devoted to such topics. The moral of his love affairs seems to be that man adores only his ideal, and that if he manage to marry the daughter of his first love, he may be reasonably safe from danger of falling in love with her granddaughter.

Style, except in rare instances of genius, is probably one of many expressions of long-transmitted familiarity with grace and beauty and restful dignity, and we regret that an American novel showing intellectual force and considerable technical skill should also indicate our slowness of movement towards things that make life lovely; should, indeed, suggest that we are still somewhat imperfect in our grammar, and believe in such a dreadful word as "escortage." Mr. Ford is pleasingly shy of the adjective and quite above fine writing, but he is addicted to, at times abandoned to, the staccato note. This is a genuine American note, and must be infinitely softened before such a very good novel as 'The Honorable Peter Stirling' can also take rank as good literature.

In Mr. Harris's volume of short stories entitled 'Elder Conklin,' the sketch "Gulmore the Boss" is a very probable representation of the mischievous creature with the results of whose machinations we are painfully familiar. Still, he might have been drawn from hearsay or newspaper reports; there is no evidence that he was confronted in his den and studied from the life. The ingenuousness of Prof. Roberts, who undertakes to rout Gulmore and his gang, is surprising, but not unprecedented, and the characteristic means employed by Gulmore to teach the professor a lesson in practical politics, incidentally including points on human nature, suggest many actual parallels. Undoubtedly bad bosses could never be got rid of if the task were wholly relegated to gentlemen armed only with a knowledge of the classics and with good intentions.

The rest of Mr. Harris's stories conjure up horrid images of society in the State of Kansas. It is as if all the desperadoes of the West had been gathered together for a dance from which only one escaped to tell the tale. We fear that Mr. Harris lent too credulous an ear, sadly misunderstood the humor of that sole survivor of a Kansas holiday, and very grossly mistook his crude attempt to convey an impression of the unconventional fascinations of the prairie maiden. Mr. Harris has added to the probably natural rudeness and vulgarity of an Ida Gulmore or Loo Conklin an unblushing sensuality which no competent critic, however hostile, has ever before attributed to otherwise similar characters. Mrs. Hooper, in "A Modern Idyll," is even more objectionable, and, in view of the conditions assumed, more absurd. So repulsive a pair as she and her lover, the Rev. John Letgood, rarely appear in print. The excuse which narrators of such modern idyls make to themselves is very well known, and it is always based on the conviction that they have perfectly performed an imperative duty to render in fiction the basest facts of life and the most revolting possibilities of character. Mr. Harris's strenuous effort to fulfil this duty fails ludicrously, and that is the reason why his story is not so bad as it might be.

The political independents whose collective name, "Mugwumps," has been given to an anonymous novel, may pray to be saved from their friends. The Mugwump who writes 'The Story of Rodman Heath' has tried to spice a dish of political instruction with extravagantly romantic incident, and made a really dreadful mess of it. "Mugwumps," says Mr. Harris's Boss Gulmore, "is them that thinks themselves too hifalutin to work with either party, jest as if organization was no good, an' a mob was as strong as an army." Mugwumps, seems to say our anonymous author, are Democrats or Republicans long and unconsciously compelled to dwell in darkness by the depression of a minute portion of the skull, delivered and led into light by the surgeon's trephine. Votes may be won in future not by coarsely tendering a five-dollar note, or by the slow process of rational argument, but by persuading a man that his skull should be lifted and hustling him off to a surgeon. If such a generalization

from the special case of Rodman Heath be practicable, surgeons at least will have no reason to complain of revolutionary tactics. The author has much to learn about vigorous expression of honest political opinions, and everything about the construction of a readable story.

The strength of Mrs. Foote's arraignment of labor unions, in 'Cœur d'Alene' is marred by its bitterness. A few bad men may be responsible for strikes that lead to riot and murder, but that is too small a nutshell to accommodate the whole labor question. When protective unions become offensive, the bold, bad spirits are supported by the timid and hopeless, and any presentation even of a single instance of union aggression that ignores the factor of carefully nourished discontent, appears to be partisan and unfair. The novelist who cannot handle such a subject very candidly and broadly had perhaps better let it alone. Mrs. Foote has, however, given the under dog, the "scab," the full benefit of ardent sympathy with his wrongs and of dramatic features in outrages inflicted on him. The serious labor troubles at the Cœur d'Alene mines lose actual and literary value by subordination to a tiresome love story, and the horror of the Mission massacre of "scabs" is belittled by the intrusion of Miss Bingham's fussing over her unheroic lover. Mrs. Foote has generally a very pretty notion of a lover; but in this instance she appears to have forgotten that, while daring in love, Lochinvar must also be dauntless in war.

A few years ago every one who wrote at all had a go at psychic analysis. Whether the public declined to endure so much dulness, or whether authors found its perpetration too tedious, we know not; at all events, specimens now appear only at rare intervals. It is to be hoped that they may henceforth be restricted to novelists whose ability for revealing the secrets of the soul is equal to that of Mrs. Marks. David Pannell, whose conscience she turns inside out, is a subtle and slippery person. To do him justice, showing the right kind and degree of mercy is an enterprise calling for very great confidence in the keenness and delicacy of one's intuitions. The theft of the Giant's Robe is a favorite incident in fiction, and has been used with good effect, but always more coarsely than by Mrs. Marks. Every one interested, except the blunt Briton, George Travers, is horribly confused about whether Pannell really meant to take the credit of his dead friend's work or not; and Pannell, having declined to accept all the profit to be derived from imputed genius, believes himself a perfectly upright and much injured man. The judgment of the reader is, however, clear and prompt, and it is formed unconsciously under the guidance of the author's fine morality. With an artistic avoidance of deliberate moral intention, she manages to make one ashamed to own that he could temporize with truth or hide dishonorable intention by accumulated evidence of actual honesty. Mrs. Marks digresses enough from the study of Pannell to give movement and diversity of character, yet properly concentrates interest on the elastic, accommodating conscience. The action is rather awkwardly broken by the late introduction of Dorrington, an indispensable figure indeed, but dead before the story begins. This slight defect in construction is the only noticeable fault in a very clever book, of which the style is as smooth and pleasant as the thought is straight and comprehensive.

Before reading Mr. Doyle's 'Round the Red Lamp,' the wonder is, "Why so much apology?" and afterwards, "Why not more?" For the presence of several disgusting leaves from a doctor's note-books in a volume of tales no apology suffices. It appears from the preface that some kindly friend had been trying to dissuade Mr. Doyle from publishing "stories which attempt to treat some features of medical life with a certain amount of realism," and that Mr. Doyle yielded to his intercession so far as to reserve a "few stories in this little collection" from serial publication. Having appeased the friend, Mr. Doyle goes on gallantly to throw responsibility for his bare, inartistic statement of loathsome facts on the admiring public that wishes to buy his latest book, saying that the reader can see that the stories are medical and can skip them. Why the reader should not be able to see that in a magazine as well as in a book, he does not explain. The mind, conscious of wrong, sometimes betrays its possessor into folly. Nothing could be more childish than Mr. Doyle's defence. "It is the province of fiction," he says pompously, "to treat painful things as well as cheerful ones." Who ever suspected it wasn't? Who ever said that fiction should be consecrated to the clown and the merry jester?

> "Twist ye, twine ye, even so
> Mingle human joy and woe."

Fiction, Mr. Doyle may be surprised to learn, is almost as old as human life, which has ever been its model and source of inspiration. But fiction is an art, and it is the privilege of the artist's public (if he be wanting in discrimination and taste) to limit his selection of material and to let him know when he has made a mistake. By substituting loathsome for Mr. Doyle's "painful" (which seems to give his remarks more vigor), we specify one of the things which it is the province of fiction either not to treat at all or to treat with such imaginative force that the only mental image excited shall not be ghastly or the only emotion unmitigated repulsion. The greater number of the "facts and fancies of medical life" show so little imagination that it is best to think of all as facts and save Mr. Doyle's reputation as a writer of fiction. Many of the facts are of a kind hitherto enshrined in medical books and not easily accessible to the public. Thousands of people have lived long, useful, and happy lives in total ignorance of such facts, and the triumph of Mr. Doyle and like-minded writers will not be to extend the length and the usefulness of thousands more, but very seriously to impair the happiness. The stories in the volume that are really stories are insignificant, excepting "A Straggler of '15," who is much to be condoled with for having straggled into such objectionable company.

'The Lilac Sunbonnet' is far too long. Joys and afflictions attending love's young dream pall with repetition that lacks variety. The plot draws heavily on stock characters and incidents, including an aristocratic villain pursuing the heroine, a wicked maid-servant intriguing against her, a long-armed idiot providentially succoring her in distress, and one of those curious complications involving one's father and mother in obscurity, impenetrable by the child, which appear to have an undying charm for novelists. Fragments of the love story are sweet and poetical, but the author is at his best only in the concluding chapters, when Gilbert Peden and Allan Welsh solemnly depose each other from the ministry, thus depriving the Marrow kirk of its only surviving leaders, and John Bairdieson runs out from the vestry crying, "There's nae kirk o' God in puir Scotland ony mair!" In this scene comedy treads close on tragedy, and the balance of sentiment is very delicately adjusted.

A SPANISH-AMERICAN ANTHOLOGY.—II.

Antología de Poetas Hispano-Americanos. Publicada por la Real Academia Española. Tomo I., México y América Central; Tomo II., Cuba, Santo Domingo, Puerto Rico, Venezuela; Tomo III., Colombia, Ecuador, Perú, Bolivia. Madrid. 1893–'94.

THE sixteenth century was for Spanish America a period not merely of conquest and of colonial extension, but also of civil organization and of educational and literary inceptions. Incited by the writers and scholars who came in such numbers from the mother country, the new generations of native-born Americans speedily began to express themselves in literature. Their first efforts were greeted with applause by the best wits of Spain. The reader of Lope de Vega and Cervantes will remember, in the 'Laurel de Apolo' of the former, and in the 'Canto de Calíope' and the 'Viaje del Parnaso' of the latter, warm praise of more than one poet and even poetess of the "antarctic region," as it was the fashion to call it. Unfortunately, little is left us of the work of these geniuses; and what has come down to us of the native American poetry of the time does not often strike us as either very original or very beautiful. Unfortunately, also, the very rapidity with which the literary movements of Old Spain were felt in the New, began soon to be a certain disadvantage to the latter. As is well known, the great literary period of Spain in the end of the sixteenth and beginning of the seventeenth century was followed close by the corruption of taste called Culteranism, or Gongorism. The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were, as a consequence, no less remarkable for literary than for political deterioration in the Peninsula. In Spanish America this condition of things is only too faithfully reflected, and the growing abundance of verses means in the main but greater weariness for the reader.

Even these years, however, are not totally devoid of names of interest. Perhaps the most interesting of all is that of a woman, the Mexican nun Sor Juana Inés de la Cruz. In her we have a great writer, one of the greatest of her sex in Spanish letters. Lest this seem exaggerated praise, we shall venture to dwell for a moment on her and her work. Born in 1651, Sor Juana passed her youth amidst the splendors of the viceregal court of Mexico. Of remarkable beauty and great charm, she was flattered, loved, and sought by all. But, vehement by nature and passionately eager to satisfy the imperious needs of her nature, she was not content with the life of mere society, but, in spite of many obstacles, plunged into all the science and learning of her time. Like certain Italian women of the Renaissance, Cassandra Fedele or Vittoria Colonna, she liked best to consort with scholars; and already at the age of seventeen she had undergone a public examination before forty professors of all the faculties, filling them with amazement at her attainments. But she was not merely a student, she was also a woman—a woman, however, with the independent and wilful personality we first find in the Renaissance. As a woman she loved, and passionately; but, as a perfected individuality, she did not keep her love for him who should first seek her. She bestowed it where she

would, and, like many another of her type, on one who could give her no return. Hence trouble, despair, passionate regrets, and in the end retreat to the cloister. Sor Juana would not, simply because she suffered, stand apart from a large group of her sex; but she does stand apart, or at least among the few, in that she was able with power and truth and entire dignity to put this all down in her verse. Much that she wrote is disfigured by the tortured and emphatic mannerisms of her time; but much also conveys the emotions, the experiences, and the reflections of her overfull life with such directness and precision as it is not given many even of the excellent poets to attain.

In spite of Sor Juana and a few other poets whose Castilian or Latin verse rises above mediocrity, we are justified in passing over with little attention the literary history of Spanish America in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. It was a time when, as Señor Menéndez y Pelayo wittily remarks, everything was taught in the universities except good taste. As the eighteenth century advances, however, we begin to see there, just as in contemporary Europe, the signs of a coming change. Numerous traces are to be found of an early influence on the one hand of the Encyclopædists, and on the other of Rousseau. More important still was a remarkable revival of interest in the physical sciences. This shows itself particularly in Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador. The starting-point of this revival seems to have been the scientific expedition of José Celestino Mutis in 1760—that Gaditanian botanist whom Linnæus called "nomen immortale quod nulla ætas unquam delebit." In 1762 Mutis established a chair of mathematics and astronomy, as well as an observatory, in Bogotá; and there he trained a whole generation of men whose names are honorable in the history of science. Among these were Zea (later director of the Botanic Gardens of Madrid), Duquesne, Restrepo, Ulloa, and, most important of all, Francisco José de Caldas, whose labors as botanist, geologist, physicist, and astronomer show real genius. The influence of this school was wide and very salutary; and the esteem in which it was held was much increased by a later event that profoundly affected the intellectual ideals of the Spanish Americans—namely, the famous scientific expedition undertaken in 1799–1804 by Humboldt and Bonpland. The world at large knows of this expedition chiefly through the stimulus to science given by the publication of the results of it; but the student of South American culture is even more impressed by the effect of association with these men upon the noblest spirits of the southern half of the New World.

The result of these tendencies was a growing independence and maturity of intelligence among the Spanish Americans. This made them all the readier to feel the wave of political agitation that swept over the civilized world as a result first of the American and then of the French Revolution. It was no accident that this agitation first led to action in the northwestern corner of South America, and that the greatest of all the leaders in the Spanish-American War of Independence, Simón Bolívar, was a Venezuelan. On the same side and at first from the same region were almost all the new scientists, scholars, and poets. For real scholars and poets, besides scientists, there now began to be once more in Spanish America; nor, in spite of the wars, revolutions, and civil discords that too much disfigure the history of our century, has the line of them been broken down to the present day.

The first group of these new writers, as was to be expected, gave expression to the revolutionary passion that preceded and led up to the independence of the Spanish-American States. To it belong several important names; but the greatest of all, and indeed one of the three or four greatest in South American letters, is that of the Ecuadorian Olmedo, to whom his compatriots have not hesitated to give the title of the "American Pindar." Here there is perhaps something of *l'emphase espagnole*, as the French call it; yet it cannot be denied that in Olmedo's famous ode to Bolívar ("*La Victoria de Junín*") there is a magnificence of rhetoric, idealizing and exalting a great national event, such as only a small band of poets (and Pindar among them) have been able to command. Far inferior, however, are the too often truculent verses of another member of the group, the Colombian doctor José Fernández Madrid.

The early nineteenth century was for the Spanish Americans not only a time of political passion and effort, but also a period of renewed susceptibility to European thought and art. Accordingly we speedily find representatives of all the chief tendencies that appear in the poetry of the Old World. Romanticism in its various forms creeps in—now sceptical and Byronic, now sentimental, now religious. Of the first of these attitudes the best exponent is the Guatemalan José de Batres y Montúfar—one of the most skilful masters in Castilian of that scornful style employed by Byron when, as Arnold said, he "waged against the conservation of the old impossible world so fiery battle." Only in Batres there is more of the delicate artist than of the passionate, suffering man. Melancholy sentiment, on the other hand, with some admixture of Byronic egotism, found utterance in the verse of the Cuban José María Heredia, a profounder poet, if less perfect workman, than his namesake and kinsman, the recently elected French academician. We might well be proud if we had in our own literature anything approaching Heredia's "Ode to Niagara," a fruit of his brief residence in the United States. Nor, speaking of him, can we pass in silence the name of another Cuban, this time a woman and Heredia's friend—Doña Gertrudis Gómez de Avellaneda. Although the greater part of her productive life was spent in Spain, Cuba has still reason to be proud of being the home of a poetess whom D. Juan Valera has called the "chief of all the persons of her sex who have touched the Castilian lyre, whether in this or in past centuries."

Such are the chief representatives in Spanish America of those tendencies we chiefly think of as Romantic. Of that other tendency, really just as Romantic, to renew and reaffirm religious faith—the tendency which in Europe gave rise later to Neo-Catholicism, so called—we find also abundant expression in South American letters. Here, as we should expect, we find the influence of Chateaubriand and Lamartine to have been great, though there is much also that is essentially Spanish, and much that is peculiar to individual poets. Among these the foremost are the Mexicans Pesado and Carpio, and the Colombians Eusebio Caro and Julio Arboleda. The two last, especially, patriots and soldiers as well as poets, show us reactionary Romanticism in action, ready to accept exile and even death.

There remains one name still to mention, and that indubitably the greatest in the history of Spanish-American literature, Andrés Bello. We have reserved it to the last, because in him is to be seen the ripe fruit of all these influences and tendencies, besides much that is original and peculiar to himself. Born in 1781 at Carácas, Bello studied in the university of his native city and then devoted himself to teaching, having among his pupils Bolívar. When Humboldt arrived in Venezuela, Bello was one of the first to become intimate with him, and accompanied him on several of his expeditions. A little latter we find him in governmental employment, but on the outbreak of the War of Independence he ranged himself among the patriots, by the side of his own former pupil. Not long after, Bolívar intrusted him with the delicate task of representing the insurgents in England and of raising money for them there. So began a long exile, extending from 1810 to 1829, during which he suffered many hardships, but also, on the other hand, came into intimate association with men like Lord Holland, James Mill, and Blanco White. In 1829 Chile offered him a post of influence, which he accepted; and the rest of his life is inseparably connected with that republic. He became for it what Villani says Brunetto Latini was for Florence, "cominciatore e maestro in digrossare i Fiorentini, e fargli scorti in bene parlare, e in sapere guidare e reggere la nostra republica secondo la politica." His labors to this end are almost incredible for their variety and excellence. Every portion of the life of Chile felt his inspiring influence. It was he who founded the University of Santiago and was its first rector. It was he who prepared the draft of the great civil code, which was enacted into law in 1855. As a teacher, he worked for the intellectual and literary improvement of the country—preparing treatises on the grammar of Castilian (the best hitherto made), on rhetoric, on literary history, on philology, on philosophy. As a statesman, he endeavored to increase the knowledge and respect of the Chileans for law; and so deeply did he go into questions of international law that he became an authority of world-wide repute. And yet, in spite of these enormous labors, he was also, perhaps mainly, a poet—recognized even by the critics of the Peninsula as one of the greatest modern masters of Castilian and one of the most excellent poets in that tongue. Deeply versed in the classics, acquainted with every period of Spanish poetry, widely read in the literatures of all Europe, a participator in the heroic struggle of his native land, looking hopefully yet anxiously forward to the future of that land, he united in his poetical work remarkable perfection of style and form, great wisdom, and profound patriotic emotion. It is not to be wondered at that he should be looked up to with reverence by all Spanish America, that statues should be erected to him, that an extensive literature should have begun to form itself about him. On the whole, it is safe to say that he is the greatest man of letters that has yet been born on American soil.

We cannot discuss the literary movements or the names that have appeared in Spanish America since the great Romantic and revolutionary generation passed off the scene. There is much of great interest here, as the readers of Señor Menéndez y Pelayo's pages will see. We can only hope that there will be many such readers in this country. The subject deserves it, and the treatment is worthy of the subject.

INDIAN PICTURE-WRITING.

Picture-Writing of the American Indians. By Garrick Mallery. [Extract from the Tenth Annual Report of the Bureau of

Ethnology.] 8vo, pp. 822, with 54 plates, some of them in colors, and 1,290 illustrations in the text. Washington. 1894.

WHETHER we regard this volume as illustrative merely of a certain phase of artistic development, or whether we look upon it as a record in pictographic language of ideas and scenes in Indian life, it will be found to be worthy of the place it holds among the publications of the Bureau of Ethnology; and this, we may remark in passing, is no small praise. Roughly speaking, the volume may be divided into petroglyphs, or inscriptions carved or painted, or carved *and* painted, upon rocks that are either in place or are of such a size as to justify the inference that they are in the same position they were in when the pictures were made; and second, pictographs, or pictures made upon the human body by tattooing, scarification, etc.; upon natural objects other than the human body, as, *e. g.*, stone, bone, wood, skins, shells, copper, etc., etc.; and finally upon artificial objects like pottery, cloth, and other fictile and textile fabrics.

Of the first of these general divisions, or carvings upon rocks, it may be said that they are scattered throughout the length and breadth of the land, and are to be found wherever there was a suitable outcrop of rock and the surroundings were such as to attract and delay the Indian. They may be mere *graffiti*—the product of an idle hour—or they may refer to a myth or religious practice, or to some incident connected with the daily life of the author; and while they may and probably do show the stage of progress he had reached along this particular line, as they certainly do indicate the subject in which he was, for the time being, interested, yet (pp. 27, 774) they have not been found to be possessed of any great amount of historic value. Even when intended to commemorate events, they usually refer to some insignificant affair, interesting from a local or personal point of view, but of no use as history. The hope (pp. 35, 772), once entertained, that they would tell us of extinct or emigrated peoples, and thus, perhaps, furnish a foundation for the theory about a "mythical tribe of mound-builders," might as well be abandoned, for (p. 771) "rock characters, studied independently, will not give much primary information about customs and concepts," though they may and do "corroborate what has been obtained by other modes of investigation." In other words, we must know all about the people who made the petroglyphs in order to understand their work; and this can seldom be done.

Not so, however, in regard to ordinary pictographs, or pictures made upon bark, skins, etc., etc., by our American Indians. Like gesture-language, this method of recording facts and even (p. 584) abstract ideas is still in use, and instances are more or less common (p. 28) in which it has furnished "information and verification as to points of tribal history, religion, customs, and other ethnographic details." Unlike the rock carvings, the more recent among these records are said to be relatively of easy interpretation, though there are occasions—and unfortunately they are somewhat numerous—when the picture is used as a symbol or reminder (p. 232, etc.), and is, of course, unintelligible to any one not familiar with the story. The fact, too, that in limited areas (p. 772) "diverse significance is attached to the same figure, and differing figures are made to express the same concept," may add to the difficulty of the situation. In all such cases, it is the part of wisdom not to trust too much to our knowledge of Indian life and character, necessary as this is admitted (p. 771) to be to an understanding of their drawings; neither should we put implicit faith in any theory of interpretation, but we ought to summon the adepts in this manner of writing from among the members of the tribe, and look to them for an explanation of the record.

Of the advantage, or rather of the necessity, of this mode of procedure examples may be found (pp. 266, 287, 568, etc., etc.) in the winter counts of the Dakotas; and aside from this circumstance we call attention to these particular records not on account of the skill with which the figures are drawn, nor because of the value of the facts, but for the reason that, so far as we know, they are the first and (except, perhaps, the Walam Olum of the Delawares) the only attempt ever made by any of our Indians at formulating a chronological table. Moreover, with due deference to our author, there are grounds for believing that the idea upon which this calendar was based was borrowed from the whites. Bearing upon this point is the fact that, in characterizing the passing year by some event of local or tribal importance—as, for example, the year "when many died of the smallpox," or "when the stars fell"—and not by its date in the Christian or some other era, the Dakotas were but following the method that was in use ('Missouri,' in "American Commonwealths" series, pp. 51, 55, 56) among the early French settlers of St. Louis. Of itself this coincidence tells us nothing; but if we add that, so far from being common to our Indians a calendar constructed in this fashion was peculiar (pp. 267, 268) to the Dakotas, and, furthermore, that it was not employed by them until towards the close of the last century—at or about the time that the traders from St. Louis began to frequent the tribe—it will be seen that a plausible case can be made out in favor of our contention. However, be this as it may, it is not a point upon which we care to insist, for even if it be admitted that the Indians borrowed the idea, it will not detract from the importance of the records considered as art or history. In either event, the choice of facts and the method of recording them are unmistakably Indian.

In addition to the winter counts, of which nine are known to be in existence, there are hundreds of other records in which the possibilities of this manner of writing, used as a means of intercommunication, may be studied to advantage. Without stopping to particularize, it may be said that in some one of them almost every thought and action common to the Indian is here represented. Religious ideas and practices, individual and tribal designations, manners and customs, historic events, etc., are all portrayed with more or less aptness and precision, and in a way that shows how near akin, in its results, this manner of writing is to our own. Of the immense labor expended in the preparation of this volume, of the value of the facts collected and their bearing upon the problem of Indian civilization, we have not the space to speak. Suffice it to say that among the whole 800 pages of the volume there are but few that are not replete with information and will not repay a careful study.

In this connection it may not be out of place to express the regret which all ethnologists must feel at the death of Colonel Mallery a few weeks ago. It is to be hoped that his mantle will fall upon a worthy disciple, and that the work which he left unfinished will be taken up and carried to a successful conclusion. Especially is this true of the pictographic account given by Red Horse of the battle in which Custer and most of his men were killed. It is here translated into simple English, but we are promised (p. 563) the story told in gesture language; and it is to this that we now look forward as the last work of one who deserved well of all who are interested in ethnology.

History of the United States Navy from 1775 *to* 1893. By Edgar Stanton Maclay, A.M. Vol. II. D. Appleton & Co. 1894.

THE second volume of this History of the Navy, beginning with the closing year of the second war with Great Britain, is brought down to the present time. The general fault which we found with the initial volume, namely, its want of proportion and perspective, is still further emphasized in the conclusion of the work; for whereas the first volume relates the history of the navy from 1775 to 1814, the second embraces not only an important part of the war of 1812, and the Mexican war, but the civil war, during which the navy attained a size and its operations a magnitude without example in its past. Only a little more than one-fourth of the entire work is allotted to this period, so that Mr. Maclay's text is in many places reduced to a mere chronicle, or at best to a bald narrative. Even here symmetry and proportion are lost, and much space is given to minor operations, like the sounding and buoying of channels in the earlier days of the war, or the breakfast offered by Jowett after the battle of Mobile Bay, while comparatively little space is allowed to the long-continued combined operations before Charleston—operations which have attracted the attention of students of naval and military history in all civilized countries, and which called forth one of the most noteworthy defences against maritime siege which the world has ever seen. A show of accuracy is made in the second volume by printing in full the names of a number of persons mentioned; but a closer examination reveals a great many omissions and errors—commanding officers unrecorded whose vessels are mentioned, and not a few names set down incorrectly. There was, for instance, no "Rear-Admiral" P. G. Watmough in the Navy, and such prominent names in our latter-day naval history as James Russel Soley and Capt A. T. Mahan are inexcusably disfigured.

The closing year of the war of 1812 found nearly a hundred British line-of-battle ships and frigates on the coast of the United States, and as a consequence operations at sea on our part were very limited in extent, since our cruisers could only with great difficulty evade the blockade, and even privateers found it almost impossible to send in their prizes and secure the reward without which privateering languished. The three important events with which this war with Great Britain terminated were Macdonough's victory on Lake Champlain, the capture by Stewart, in the *Constitution*, of the *Cyane* and the *Levant*, and the loss of the *President* while attempting to escape through the British blockade off the port of New York. By far the most important and creditable of these events was the victory on Lake Champlain off Plattsburg, partly by reason of the brilliancy of the success of this hard-fought action and the great skill, courage, and endurance shown by Macdonough and his subordinates, to whom the greatest praise should be given; and partly for the results, which may be summed up as the abandonment of the projected invasion along the line of the almost uninterrupted waterway reaching from Montreal to New York city, the loss of the command of Lake Champlain, and

the prevention of the isolation of the New England States from the rest of the Union.

After the war with Great Britain was over, came the operations in the Mediterranean against Algiers, and in the West Indies for the suppression of piracy. Mr. Maclay has a chapter also upon the attack upon the Malaysian town of Qualla Battoo, an almost forgotten episode in the history of our navy. The part taken by the navy in the conquest of California during the Mexican war is fully exhibited, as well as the less eventful and important operations in the Gulf of Mexico and on the Pacific coast of Mexico. Following this comes a narrative of Perry's expedition to Japan, and then we arrive at the outbreak of the civil war.

The introductory chapter discusses the events immediately preceding and at the beginning of hostilities. Several errors are to be noted here in regard to the naval force: for instance, the wooden vessels known as the "ninety-day gunboats," although carrying a heavy battery for their tonnage, were not iron-plated. Extravagant is the statement that at the close of the war the United States held the position of the most powerful maritime nation in the world. Although the navy was vastly increased in vessels and in personnel, many of the vessels were unfitted for deep-sea work and for contending with vessels of other navies. Neither the tonnage of our mercantile marine, greatly reduced for want of adequate naval protection, nor the fighting strength of our navy, justifies the author's pretension. Fortunate it was for us that our long line of blockade was not subject to external attack from any foreign navy or from any foreign-built armored vessels carrying the flag of the Confederates.

The successful assaults upon the forts at Hatteras Inlet and Port Royal, and the operations in Pamlico and Albemarle Sounds, including the capture of Roanoke Island, are narrated in the succeeding chapters. Then follows a full and graphic account of the attack of the *Merrimac* on the anchored fleet in Hampton Roads and at Newport News, the destruction of the *Cumberland* and the *Congress*, and the subsequent action between the *Merrimac* and the newly arrived *Monitor*. So far as the fight itself was concerned, this last may be called a drawn battle, but it was in moral effect a victory for the Union navy, and a relief to the fleet in Northern ports and on the Southern blockade of a magnitude no longer realized. The necessity of providing for a Mississippi flowing "unvexed to the sea" was early recognized by the national authorities and the leaders of both the army and the navy, and the operations of the navy under Foote and at a later date under Davis and Porter receive considerable attention from our author, yet, so great was the need of condensation, less than the subject merits. Justice is done to the passage of the forts below New Orleans by Farragut, and the naval hero of the war is presented to us in the unaffected strength of his character. Ample justice is done to the fight in Mobile Bay. We especially commend the description of the stoppage of the *Brooklyn* and the column under the fire of the fort. In our opinion this is the best descriptive section of the book, and the most truthful account of a much-disputed phase of the passage of the Mobile forts. Here the author faces the subject properly, without gliding over it as he does over other controverted topics, such as the events that led to the overslaughing of Erben, the relief of Craven, the summary dismissal of Preble, the removal of Du Pont, the trial of Parker of the *Onondaga*, and the lifelong wrangle between Admiral Porter and Gen. Butler. On the whole, he leaves us unsatisfied, and, not forgetting the histories of Porter and Boynton, we feel that the history of the navy during the civil war has yet to be written.

The last portion of Mr. Maclay's present volume deals with the navy of to-day, and gets at once chronologically out of joint by describing such incidents as the Koszta affair, the attack upon the Chinese forts in 1856, and the Formosan and Corean expeditions. Even the mutiny of the *Somers* is referred to in this part of the volume with the mistaken statement that young Spencer was on board as an apprentice. Though most arctic expeditions are enumerated, no mention is made of the *Jeannette* expedition and of the touching and heroic death of De Long; and no reference to the successful relief of Greely by the expedition under the command of Schley.

It is not likely that another continuous history of the navy will be written for very many years, if at all, and it is to be hoped that this History, which supplies, though imperfectly, a distinct want, will be subject in the near future to a thorough revision. We observe that even the descriptions of vessels just tried and not yet departed upon foreign cruises contain unpardonable errors.

William Shakspere: A Study in Elizabethan Literature. By Barrett Wendell, Assistant Professor of English at Harvard College. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894. Pp. 439.

On the first glance at the cover of this book, one is struck by the audacity of the title. New books on Shakspere usually are either introduced apologetically, or, what is worse, are thinly disguised by some euphuistic title that purposely fails to give a correct expression of the contents. Mr. Wendell, at any rate, is to be commended for both frankness and courage: he means to write about Shakspere, and therefore he calls his book by its proper name.

We may say at once that in the way of facts, dates, or additions to exact knowledge, there is here absolutely nothing that is new. Nor does the author make any such claim. In the first sentence he says: "The purpose of this study is to present a coherent view of the generally accepted facts concerning the life and the work of Shakspere." Were this all, the book would certainly have no reason for existence. But in the second sentence we read: "Its object, the common one of serious criticism, is so to increase our sympathetic knowledge of what we study that we may enjoy it with fresh intelligence and appreciation." Manifestly, therefore, the sole value of the book depends not upon the author's acquisitions as a scholar, but upon his penetration as a critic.

The method pursued is quite simple, and easy to follow—so clear and simple, in fact, that, in spite of the writer's vivacity, one feels at times a certain monotony of treatment. First, the known facts of Shakspere's life are given; then a very brief sketch of the Elizabethan drama up to 1587; the bulk of the work is taken up with literary criticism on each of Shakspere's productions in the generally accepted chronological order; an excellent summary concludes. To students of Shakspere there is much, even in the æsthetic criticism, that is now quite familiar; and yet the justification of the book appears not only in fresh and vivid restatements of well-known views, but in occasional entirely original discussions, with much fruitful suggestiveness concerning not only Shakspere, but literature, art, and life. Even when one violently disagrees with the author, one is almost sure to learn something; which is perhaps the highest tribute that can be paid to the professional teacher. Mr. Wendell's decided preference for "Twelfth Night" as compared with "As You Like It"; his belief that the Sonnets must have seemed to Shakspere "more important and valuable than his plays" (p. 224), and that the underlying mood of Julius Cæsar is "unpassionately ironical" (p. 243)—these and countless other statements will affect various readers in various ways. It is idle to defend or to combat such views.

The book suffers a little from a trait noticeable in some other writings of this author—an irrepressible fondness for paradox. Perhaps it is necessary nowadays to talk about Shakspere paradoxically, if one expects to receive any attention; but paradox too often passes for originality. For example, Mr. Wendell makes the point that on the Elizabethan stage madness was meant to be comic, as drunkenness often is to-day. No doubt this was occasionally true; but how many readers will agree with this statement (p. 295)? "Only when we understand that *King Lear*, for all his marvellous pathos, was meant, in scene after scene, to impress an audience as comic, can we begin to understand the theatrical intention of Shakspere's tragedy." How about *Ophelia?*

A few of the most valuable points brought out in the book are the comparison of "Venus and Adonis" with "Hero and Leander," and the subsequent inference that to Shakspere more than to any other English writer "words and thoughts seemed naturally identical" (p. 65); the explanation of the popularity of puns, artificial phrases, and euphuism on the stage, which Mr. Wendell says appealed to the audience in the same manner that catchy tunes in comic operas affect people at present; the discussion of the preponderance of the intellectual over the emotional in "Coriolanus," a play which "is such work as an artist, with what seems perversity, is apt to deem his best" (p. 342); and the constant insistence that Shakspere's development was artistic rather than personal.

Interesting as the book is even to special students, its chief value, we think, will appear if it is used as an introduction to the study of Shakspere. We are pleased to find in it none of the absurdities of the "inductive" school of criticism, which makes what should be a literary work seem like a text-book on graphic algebra or spherical geometry. The method here is absolutely sane and sound, the style is lucidity itself, fact is everywhere kept clear from inference, and there is no gush. There is not a silly sentence in the book. What reader of Dowden or Fleay can say that?

Apparitions and Thought-Transference: An Examination of the Evidence for Telepathy. By Frank Podmore, M.A. [Contemporary Science Series.] Charles Scribner's Sons.

This readable little volume is practically an abridgment of the work of that often named and oftener misunderstood body, the Society for Psychical Research, of which Mr. Podmore is one of the more active members. It gives in brief compass an account of the fruits (if fruits they be) of its industry; and one who wishes to know what "scientific occultism" is like can do no better than turn to its pages. The chapter-headings will give the best notion of what it contains. There is an introduction on methods and problems, and a finale on theories and conclusions; there are three chapters on

the experimental transference from one mind to another of simple ideas, sensations, motor impulses, etc.; six chapters on transference as it occurs not experimentally but, according to the theory the author believes in, spontaneously, as, for instance, in coincidental dreams, and in apparitions at the time of death; one on experimentally induced apparitions at a distance; one on collective hallucinations; one on clairvoyance in trance or mediumship; and one on clairvoyance in the normal state, including crystal-vision.

The first result of reading the book has been to make the present reviewer cease to wonder at the tenacity with which, in spite of the resolute opposition of orthodox science, beliefs of the semi-supernatural order retain their hold upon the mind. They are nourished by the constant recurrence of experiences of the sort here retailed, of which probably in all ages of history it would have been possible, with no extraordinary diligence, to compile a contemporaneous collection similar to those of which Mr. Podmore tells. And the second effect on the reviewer's mind is the sense the book gives him of the phenomena having, as it were, an essentially baffling nature. They are abundant; but in nearly every instance the proofs, however good up to a certain point, fall short of being quite coercive. Moreover, the phenomena are all so fragmentary, sporadic, and contextless that they weave themselves into no system. It almost seems as if it were intended in the nature of things that these events should be always present in sufficient measure to tempt belief, but always in insufficient measure to justify it. It is evident that what is needed to make the mind close upon telepathy, veridical apparitions, and ghosts, and embrace them, is a philosophical theory of some kind which has a use for such facts. But our philosophies and sciences have absolutely no place for them and no context to supply them with. It is probable, therefore, that Mr. Podmore's book will leave most readers in the baffled condition which Mr. Andrew Lang's recent book, 'Cock Lane and Common Sense,' expresses so well—a condition of being unable to drop the subject, but quite as unable to be sure that there is anything firm in it to hold on to.

One of the oddest chapters in the book is that on "experimentally induced apparitions." Since 1886 there have come to Mr. Podmore's knowledge no less than seven cases in which one person by strong concentration of will has made his phantasm appear to a friend situated at a distance. There is another case dating from 1822, and another one in which the nature of the effect is less clear. The evidence in most of these cases is complete, and would be "good enough to hang a man" for any other sort of crime than so appearing, so that the doubting reader's only resource is to suppose accidental coincidence or conspiracy to deceive Mr. Podmore and his colleagues. The theosophists would probably call it a case of projection of the astral body. Meanwhile lovers all over the world are more or less unconsciously pressing in the direction of this experiment, yet we get no reports from them of its success. Perhaps they don't do it with sufficient malice prepense, from not yet being acquainted with its feasibility. The present critic knows of one case, not in Mr. Podmore's book, in which it would appear to have succeeded. Repetitions of such a result, if they could be recorded with more frequency, would perhaps do as much as anything purely empirical could do to gain credence for the philosophy which Mr. Podmore professes. We therefore cordially recommend the attempt to all who have a stomach for psychical research and a good "power of concentration."

The Woman's Book; dealing practically with the modern conditions of home life, self-support, education, opportunities, and everyday problems. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

THE observer of the constantly changing conditions of human life will take up these two volumes with a good deal of interest. They are admirable specimens of book making, and the illustrations in particular are very beautiful. What picture do they give of the needs and difficulties of the woman of the present day, and are the means they offer for the solution of her doubts such as will really conduce to higher and finer standards of living?

The numerous subjects here discussed fall roughly under three heads: one may be summed up as the spending of the family income and the conduct of the family life in a way consistent with the demands of civilized and artistic modes of living; one deals with the more serious aspects of life—the choice of an education, and of a possible or an actual means of support; and one with the practical details of keeping the house, of dressing, of managing business affairs, of taking care of the children, and of the problems of domestic sanitation and hygiene. The last of these three parts is thoroughly well done, but the subjects handled are rather less exhaustively treated than in 'Goodholme's Domestic Cyclopædia'; and that will continue to be an indispensable book in every well-regulated family. The advice and instruction given regarding occupations for women is also excellent, and quite equal to what one may demand of a printed guide; and the opinions laid down by Dr. Lyman Abbott in regard to the education and the appropriate range of activity of women may be taken as a fair representation of average cultivated opinion in these days upon questions which were not long since hotly debated. He says:

"First, woman is entitled, in her own right, to the highest and best education which can be given her—education not shaped to fit her to be a conventional type of wife and mother determined beforehand for her by man, but shaped to make her the noblest and truest woman. The best way to make a true wife and mother is to make a true woman. And, second, the formal and conventional restrictions on womanly liberty are to be removed—as to a large extent they have been—and she is to be free to find for herself her sphere, and to determine by her own unhindered and even aided experiments what she needs for the perfect development of her own nature. The law of liberty is woman's best safeguard."

This is reasonable language; but as regards one point in the education of the girl Dr. Abbott is certainly in error. While no course of education should be generally adopted which would have a tendency to unfit her for her probable future as wife and mother, and while this probable destiny may well be "kept in mind by parent and instructor, exactly as in the education of the young man it is to be kept in mind that he will naturally become a husband and a father," it is certainly not desirable that "the girl should be taught to look forward to marriage as her natural and probable destiny." The plain fact that the great majority of women marry she may be trusted to gather from her own powers of observation, and the extreme probability that she will herself, if she so chooses, fall under the common rule, will be quite certain to occur to her. But to teach her consciously to look forward to this end and to make preparation for it a distinct object in life, is neither necessary nor commendable. It is not necessary, because she can readily and naturally be taught to relieve her mother of household cares without ulterior aim; and a course of training in scientific housekeeping can now, in most parts of the country, be added to the scientific equipment which the model girl will have already had, in the course of a few months, when occasion has arisen for it. It is not commendable, for very obvious reasons; we have passed beyond the time when Dr. Johnson thought portrait-painting an impossible occupation for women, because it would be "highly indelicate in a female" to gaze upon the face of a possible masculine sitter; but if the pendulum had swung too far in the direction of delicacy in those days, it is still not desirable that the young girl should take a too practical and businesslike view of the possible fate that awaits her. Dr. Abbott himself points out the inherent vulgarity, which custom may enable one to overlook, in the practice of "bringing out" a girl as a sign that she is ready for the matrimonial market.

The remaining subject of the book—the artistic side of living—is discussed by Mrs. Burton Harrison, Eva Wilder McGlasson, and Mary Gay Humphreys in articles which in style, in method, and in the reserve which true good taste inculcates fall far below the rest of the volume, and are in no way deserving of more permanent form than the dreadful Woman's Page, so called, of the Sunday newspaper. We hear of "the subtle mysticism which glooms and shines upon the pages of Rossetti"; we are told that "it would be foolish, in our generation, to say we do not remember the houses where such artless forms [as being asked by the host whether one prefers white meat or dark] prevailed"; we are advised to prefer "one priceless clasp of plainly set jewels" to "a predominating glitter of wealth." The audience which it is sought to interest would seem to consist for the most part of the vulgarly rich, but occasionally there is a word of recognition for the "woman in those numerous walks of life which do not lead with pleasing annual sameness to the doors of the great ones who sit sublime above the fashions." All this is set forth with a lavish profusion of exclamation-points, as "A trifle to be considered—the eccentricity of wearing lace veils over the face at the play!"

It is customary for the reviewer to assume that books on the forms of social usage cannot be written otherwise than with vulgarity, and that there is no useful purpose which they can serve; but this is not exactly the case. It is true that by far the pleasantest and most effective way of knowing what to do on all occasions is by means of an unconscious imitation of what is done by the most admirable of one's friends, and it is also true that the natural boor cannot be made into a gentleman by rules. But between the natural boor and the happy possessor of admirable friends there is a medium range of individuals whose ways of living can be made more pleasing by instruction. That instruction of this kind is hardly ever to be found which is free from the taint of vulgarity, and which is not therefore wholly injurious instead of beneficial, is perhaps susceptible of explanation. Those who really know have their knowledge largely in the tips of their fingers—it belongs, that is to say, to the unconscious part of their mental furnishing; it is (to compare great things with small) like the power to do of the artist which cannot be

put into words, nor even brought within the conscious field of reflection, so far as that can be done at all, without losing the delicate quality which is the secret of its charm. The "real thing" is incommunicable, and to attempt to reduce it to speech is too often to destroy it. It is needless to remark, therefore, that anything which can be properly done in this way must be of a very plain and simple kind, and above all that it must be expressed in plain and simple language, wholly without rhetoric, good or bad. To treat such matters in a lively and playful style, even if it were a good style, is to show a quite hopeless lack of the finer feeling which must pervade instruction in the arts of living if it is not to do more to corrupt than to refine.

Three Periods of English Architecture. By Thomas Harris, F.R.I., B.A., etc. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

It would not be surprising to find an English architect of to-day arguing for a return to the Elizabethan manner, if it were for a permanent model, because the English have been for two or three generations searching their own history and other people's, in a very catholic spirit, for an architecture which they could adopt and stick to. But Mr. Harris, in 'Three Periods of English Architecture,' proposes Elizabethan only as a stepping stone to the development of a coming architecture out of English Gothic by infusion of classic elements; and this surprises us. We have believed that the world was right in agreeing that English Gothic at the period of the Tudors was senile and worn out. Mr. Harris thinks that it was still virile, and that the Victorian architects, instead of "harking back" to the thirteenth century, should have followed Pugin in beginning at the fifteenth, but should have gone on from there in the line which was indicated by the buildings of Elizabeth's reign. He would have them now hark back to that reign, and, shunning the ways of Inigo Jones and his followers, develop the style of the future, with the help of modern materials and the guidance of modern requirements, into a harmonious fusion of Gothic and Classic, prefigured by Elizabethan design, in which Gothic influence should be predominant. His Three Periods are the past (the Tudor past), the present, and the future, characterized as At work, Asleep, and Awaking: the first set forth in a slight historical sketch, the second and third in a conglomerate of citations imbedded in a thin matrix of his own thought.

Mr. Harris's conclusion is that a new architecture is to be hoped for; that it must be founded on the last phase of Gothic; that external polychromy will be one of its chief characteristics; and that it is by use of essentially modern materials that the path will be opened for it. If it is safe to prophesy at all, these forecasts are probably as safe as any, and there is much to encourage them. The danger is in prescribing the Gothic starting-point, and in the somewhat inconsistent doctrine—which we had hoped was on its last legs, but of which Mr. Harris makes much—that style need not be cared for in the new development, but may be left to evolve itself out of constructive exigency, and will result, as is here quoted from Mr. Eidlitz, "in a species of art form which speaks forcibly of mechanical work done, and is hence possessed of beauty." Of this last dogma, which is pure assertion, quite unsupported by evidence or argument, but has taken a singular hold on the common mind by mere virtue of the iteration of a number of clever writers, we may say in simple illustration that the perforation of an armored ship speaks very forcibly of mechanical work done, but few are found who think it possessed of beauty.

That metal architecture, in which Mr. Harris puts his trust, has a future before it is probable—it may even be a determining factor of the coming style; but we may remember that it has already in a generation made two false starts—one in the hands of architects as a hollow imitation of stone in cast iron, the other in the hands of mechanics as sheet metal simulating anything but itself. Perhaps a third effort may be more successful if the new material contents itself with the simpler function of furnishing the skeleton, to be clothed with other material. That is the direction in which Mr. Harris looks, and the direction in which, with the help of engineers, iron architecture is developing, especially in the United States; but under this limitation the metal is much handicapped in its influence on outward form and style. It is among the possibilities that it is now the destiny of architecture to be regenerated by engineers and builders—a destiny that has been predicted for it more than once; if so, we will venture the single prophecy that the path of its regeneration will be long and rough and painful.

Lest we give a wrong impression of Mr. Harris's book, let us make haste to say that he writes with knowledge, temperance, and sense, and that he has made an interesting anthology of other writers' utterances. The exception we take is to his point of view, and chiefly in the two things we have noted—the proposition to make a fresh start from decadent Gothic, which we suspect no one will heed, and the idea that beauty of design will come undesigned, as a by-product of constructive manufacture.

Memorials of Old Whitby; or, Historical Gleanings from Ancient Whitby Records. By Rev. J. C. Atkinson. Macmillan. 1894.

Dr. Atkinson's book is the antipodes of the average history of an English town. He does not waste his energy in entertaining gossip concerning local celebrities, in verbose excursions concerning the antiquity of the town, or in the minute examination of sepulchral inscriptions; he does not pander to the taste of those who love the fabulous and the non historic, especially if the story is told as they have been accustomed to hear it; he does not, like so many of his predecessors, take his history ready-made and without reference to the sources; nor does he ignore the more important phases of municipal development. In short, he displays the historical training and broad scholarship which are lacking in most town histories of England. Hence it is quite natural that Charlton and Young, the older writers on Whitby, receive some hard raps from Dr. Atkinson.

Most local historians of England dispose of the period before the Norman Conquest in a few pages filled with vague surmises and old legends regarding Roman and Anglo-Saxon times. Dr. Atkinson devotes about one-third of his book to the Anglo-Saxon period, following the fortunes of Whitby in the light afforded by the chroniclers, by later survivals, and by the study of philology. The chapters on the story of Cædmon and the influence of the Danish element in the district around Whitby are particularly interesting. Our author believes that in the original settlement of that part of Yorkshire the infusion "was rather of English blood and English idiom among the Danes, than of Danish among English." He seems to go too far when he asserts, on page 51, that all the services and exactions due to the Abbot of Whitby from his tenants in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries had existed before the Norman Conquest.

Of the later chapters two of the most instructive deal with the conditions under which the abbey tenants held their lands in the outtownships, and with the meaning of burgage tenure. We doubt the validity of the statement on page 288 that the word "beverage" (which is used in an ancient charter of the town) by itself alone "almost furnishes an irresistible inference as to the preëxistence of at least a quasi-gild, a fraternity, a society of some sort." The requirement that the buyer of land should give one penny to the burgesses "for beverage," may imply some sort of municipal organization among the townsmen, but it does not necessarily imply that they were organized into a gild. In the same chapter the author contends that, as early as the twelfth century, there was in Whitby a corporate governing body with a certain measure of autonomy; but the authority of that body must have been quite limited in view of the fact, admitted by the author (p. 298), that the Abbot retained the jurisdiction, the nomination of town officers, and certain rights over the burgage tenements. This would leave little room for municipal autonomy.

The book is not a systematic history of Whitby, but rather a series of essays on the most important phases of its mediæval development. The arrangement of the matter would perhaps have been improved if kindred topics had been treated together or consecutively; as it is, the ecclesiastical and strictly municipal parts of the story are intermingled somewhat promiscuously. The work as a whole, including its numerous illustrations, deserves praise, not censure; if every English town had such an historian, we should soon be able to make satisfactory generalizations regarding the municipal development of mediæval England.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Babyhood: the Mother's Nursery Guide. 1894. *Babyhood* Publishing Co.

Bastin, Prof. E. S. Laboratory Exercises in Botany. Philadelphia W. B. Saunders.

Colt, Stanton. The Message of Man: A Book of Ethical Scriptures. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.

Dailey, A. H. Mollie Fancher, the Brooklyn Enigma. Brooklyn; Abram H. Dailey.

Ellis, E. S. Common Errors in Writing and Speaking. Woolfall Publishing Co.

Foster-Melliar, Rev. A. The Book of the Rose. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2.75.

Garner, Samuel. Hugo's Ruy Blas. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 75 cents.

Horton, Rev. R. F. The Cartoons of St. Mark. F. H. Revell Co. $1.50.

Ibsen, Henrik. Little Eyolf. Translated by William Archer. Chicago; Stone & Kimball.

Jordan, Prof. D. S. The Factors in Organic Evolution; A Syllabus. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.

Jowett, Prof. B., and Campbell, Prof. Lewis. Plato's Republic; The Greek Text, with Notes and Essays. 3 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

Kies, Marietta. Institutional Ethics. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.25.

Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XLI. Nicholes—O'Dugan Macmillan. $3.75.

Malory, Sir Thomas. Le Morte Darthur. 2 vols. Macmillan. $14.

Nicoll, W. R. Ten-Minute Sermons. F. H. Revell Co. $1.50.

Palmer, W. Hazell's Annual for 1895. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney.

Ritchie, Prof. D. G. Natural Rights: A Criticism of Some Political and Ethical Conceptions. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2.75.

Steinthal, Mrs. Francis F. Aunt Mai's Annual. Illustrated. London: Archibald Constable & Co.

Sybel, Prof. Heinrich von. Die Begründung des Deutschen Reiches durch Wilhelm I. Sechster Band. Leipzig: R. Oldenbourg; New York: Westermann.

The *Green Bag.* 1894. Boston: Boston Book Co.

The Little Epicure: 700 Choice Recipes. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.

Wildman, Rounseville. The Panglima Muda: A Romance of Malaya. San Francisco: *Overland Monthly* Publishing Co.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 17, 1895.

The Week.

THE substantial defeat of the Carlisle currency bill does not spare Congress the necessity of passing a bill for the relief of the Treasury. Some measure for the sale of bonds until the revenue becomes equal to the expenditure is imperatively required. The present condition was foreseen even before the Harrison Administration went out of office. Secretary Foster discussed it in a public speech, and said that, if all other means failed, he should issue bonds under the act of 1875, as Secretary Carlisle has since done. The reason why Congress has done nothing to anticipate the exigency, or to meet it after it came, is that each party was bidding for the votes of Populists, Silverites, Coxeyites, and Blatherskites. A certain number of catchwords have come into use among these people during the past quarter of a century while the green goddess of legal-tender has held sway, which are supposed to contain all the truths of financial science. Chief among these are the phrases "money power" and "Wall Street." To be in any way connected with the "money power" involves the loss of a certain number of votes. Such is the supposition, at all events, of timid and time-serving politicians. Government bonds are, of course, associated with the "money power." Hence, any vote in Congress to issue more bonds, no matter what the purpose or how dire the need, exposes the timid and time-serving members of that body to the charge of "subserviency to Wall Street." Repealing the Sherman silver act was all the subserviency to Wall Street that this Congress could stagger under. This is the reason why no bond bill could pass, not even an amendment to the present act to enable the Government to get better terms in the sales which it is compelled to make or go into bankruptcy. Such an amendment would be construed as an admission that the right to issue bonds under the act of 1875 still existed. As all the Populists, Silverites, Coxeyites, and Blatherskites denied this right, the average Congressman shied at it like a frightened horse. Neither whip nor spur could bring him up to it. But we think he will have to come to it before this Congress adjourns, or he will see the next Congress in session very close at his heels.

It was a great mistake of tactics not to allow a vote to be taken on the State-bank proposition first. This section of the Carlisle bill was the part which consolidated the Republican vote against the whole measure. It is very plain that the State-bank feature was thrown in, not because it was desirable *per se*, but because it would "catch votes" outside of Congress. But, however that may have been, the existence of that feature rendered it necessary to carry the bill by Democratic votes solely. If the Republican demand for a vote on that section at an early stage had been conceded, it is more than likely that the few votes needed to adopt the programme of the committee on rules would have been gained. It is pretty certain, too, that that section of the bill would have been knocked out. What might have been the fate of the bill without that clause is matter of conjecture.

The time is very short, but it seems as if it might still be possible for Congress to empower the secretary of the treasury to take advantage of the exceptionally favorable condition of the money market. If money is lent in large amounts at one per cent. or less, why should not the Government borrow at that rate? If it be said that such money is lent only upon demand or for short periods, the reply is that those are precisely the terms which will suit the Government. No one doubts that in a short time the revenue of the Government will be in excess of its expenditure. The surplus would then naturally be applied to the payment of its debts, but the debts created by issuing bonds cannot be paid for many years to come, and meanwhile the surplus will probably be wasted as the last Republican Administration wasted it. Were the Treasury authorized to sell exchequer bills, at such rates of interest as prevail from day to day, payable at short terms or on demand, it is certainly reasonable to believe that it would share in the benefit of the low rates now existing. There is plenty of money to loan, and it is scarcely credible that the Treasury would not be favored as a borrower. Whatever may be the ultimate solvency of the Government, few would doubt that it would honor its paper for a few months; and before the present executive is displaced the emergency will probably have passed. Whatever the ultimate standard of value may be, we shall not see any change while Mr. Cleveland holds office, and few bank presidents would decline to lend on call to the Government at 1 per cent. when they could do no better with private customers. If the Democratic party in Congress could bring itself to propose such a measure as this, it would at least go out of office with honor. If it does nothing to restore the public credit, it will add disgrace to defeat.

The United States Senate seems to be stuck in its own mud again, as it was during the pendency of the Sherman repeal bill. A very competent observer, who is also a member, Mr. Vest of Missouri, is quoted as saying that no measure can pass that body, at this session, if five Senators are determined to prevent it, because the Senate has no rule for terminating debate. He says that this is the reason why no bill can be passed to repeal the discriminating duty on German beet sugar, which is causing enormous difficulties in our export trade. It is generally believed that any bill which might be sent by the House to the Senate for the relief of the Treasury would fail in the same way. It certainly would fail if five Senators were disposed to talk out the session, by reading essays and disquisitions like the silver speeches of Stewart and Jones and the tariff speeches of Quay. The situation is clearly revolutionary. "If the majority cannot govern, the minority must," and when that condition is reached, a revolution will have been accomplished. Suppose that the House should repeal its rules for closing debate. The result would be that any five members could stop the passage of appropriation bills and starve out the Senate and everybody else. In that event we should be able to start a government on this continent *de novo* and get rid of the present imbecile Senate.

There was cold comfort for Admiral Walker in the Hawaiian correspondence sent to Congress last week. His wonderful despatch of last August is now shown not only to be filled with Jingo nightmare (that was clear on its face), but to be positively mendacious in its statements and implications. "I consulted with the American minister," he wrote, "whose views coincided entirely with my own." But the said minister has now been heard from, and shows that the Admiral is ready to take liberties with the truth as well as with his superior officer. Minister Willis, in fact, diplomatically makes light of Walker's horrid tale of British machinations, and adds, what is far worse, that the Hawaiian Government is living on very good terms with England. This is strikingly confirmed by the Hawaiian request for the permission of the United States to allow the projected cable between Canada and Australia to be landed on Necker Island. The Hawaiians declare that they want this done, for the sake both of the money they will get by it and of telegraphic communication with the outside world; and our shallow President recommends that they be allowed to have their way. But we are glad to see that there are patriots at Washington who will withstand such transparent folly. The unsuspecting Hawaiians may think in their innocence that they want a British cable landed on their soil, but we know better. They cannot have it. What they really want, whether they think so or not, is an American warship.

The decision of the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia declaring the sugar-bounty provision of the McKinley law unconstitutional, enunciates economical doctrine which it is refreshing to hear. The court points out that the right to give such a bounty to a class of people involves the right to tax all for the benefit of this class, and that the power of taxation is "limited to public objects and purposes governmental in their nature." As for the claim that "the general welfare" clause of the Constitution may be stretched to encourage the production of sugar by a bounty, the decision makes short work of it. Says the court:

"If Congress be conceded the power to grant subsidies from the public revenues to all objects it may deem to be for the general welfare, then it follows that this discretion renders superfluous all the special delegations of power contained in the Constitution and opens a way for a flood of socialistic legislation, the specious plea for all of which has ever been 'the general welfare.'"

The fundamental question involved in this sugar-bounty matter has never been passed upon directly by the Supreme Court of the United States, but the decision of the District Court points out that the principle which underlies it has been ruled upon by the court of last resort, particularly in the celebrated opinion of Justice Miller, holding that the Government cannot take property from citizens to bestow it on favored individuals. There can be no doubt that the courts here reflect the predominant sentiment of the people, and it is safe to say that Congress will hereafter be slow to endorse the bounty system.

The committee of architects who drafted the bill which is before Congress reorganizing the supervising-architect's office at Washington are making great efforts to secure its passage before the present Congress adjourns, and they ought to have no trouble in succeeding. The bill has the hearty support of Secretary Carlisle and of all the leading architects of the country, and the practically unanimous support of the press. What it does is to create a commission, to be appointed by the President, consisting of "three architects of high scientific and artistic attainment and large practical experience, and two officers of the Engineer Corps of the United States Army." This commission, under the general direction of the secretary of the treasury, is to discharge all the administrative duties relating to the procuring of designs and the appointing of architects for all buildings hereafter erected by the Government. The secretary of the treasury is to be president of the commission *ex officio*, and the supervising architect is to be its secretary and to act as general superintendent of the department, but to have nothing to do with the designing and preparation of drawings and specifications. The design of the bill is to bring to the aid of the Government the best expert architectural talent of the country, in order that future Government buildings may be constructed in such manner as to reflect honor upon us as an enlightened and progressive people. It does not interfere with the present system, but makes it possible for that system to accomplish the best and most artistic results. It will not add to the cost of public construction, but will, through better supervision, quicker and better work, save the Government large sums annually. The bill ought to pass without delay. It has been reported from committee in the House with strong approval, and it is now regularly before that body. The Senate should act upon it promptly, and both houses pass it as a pressing measure preeminently in the interest of the public welfare.

Democrats and Republicans have just been put to the test in the matter of surrendering a governorship to the Opposition on a narrow majority, and the Republicans make the better showing. On the face of the returns the Republicans elected their candidate for Governor of Tennessee by a few hundred votes, while the Democrats retained the Legislature. In California, on the other hand, the Democrats secured a small majority in the contest for Governor, while the Republicans control the Legislature. In California the Republicans have promptly surrendered the governorship to the man who was elected, while in Tennessee the Democrats are keeping out the man whom the people elected, on the pretence that there were frauds which the Legislature must investigate, and propose to have the Democratic incumbent hold over pending such an investigation. There is absolutely no defence for this course, and it only illustrates the fatal capacity of the Democratic party for blundering.

It is impossible to look upon the organization of the Assembly which Tom Platt, through Speaker Fish, has effected, otherwise than as a challenge to the reform sentiment of New York city. Out of thirty-six chairmanships, twenty-eight are assigned to members from districts of the State outside of this city and Brooklyn. Of the remaining eight chairmanships, Brooklyn has six and New York two. And what are New York's two? Mr. Conkling, who is an expert on city politics and government, is assigned to the chairmanship of the committee on lands and forestry, and Mr. Lawson, whose experience as a legislator is confined entirely to city matters, is placed at the head of the committee on trades and manufactures. What delicious jokes these assignments must seem to Platt! At the head of the committee on cities is placed Mr. O'Grady of Monroe County, who injured his reputation as a man of independent character by abandoning his claims to the speakership early in the contest and withdrawing in favor of Fish. In short, the organization of the Assembly is precisely what everybody familiar with Mr. Fish's public record might have expected it would be. He has never failed during his career to cast his lot with corrupt and tricky politics. His natural taste is in that direction; and, with Platt as his guiding spirit, he can be depended upon to gratify that taste to a more unlimited extent now than ever before.

It seems impossible for Platt's pastors to keep out of politics. He had to move away from Dr. Parkhurst's preaching in order to enjoy his devout Sabbath meditations in the sanctuary undisturbed by allusions to sinners nearer our day than Ahab or Judas, and we read with much sympathy the report of his evident edification under the ministrations of his new pastor, last Sunday. He "joined in the singing" with his old-time zest, and settled back to thorough enjoyment of a sermon without a single unedifying reference to sins any modern is inclined to, being, in fact, "all about the Waldenses." Yet what does his new non-political pastor do the very next day but go to a pastors' association and denounce a "scheme" of Mayor Strong's and the German Reform Union to allow the people to say whether they want saloons open on Sunday afternoons, and so "have our Sabbath voted away from us"? This political activity of his new pastor will pain Platt deeply. He thought he was now safe from such religious embarrassments. Still, the cause is one which appeals to him strongly. His strict Sabbatarian principles are almost as strong as his bi-partisan convictions. Rather than have one saloon legally open on Sunday, he would have fifty illegally open, provided the blackmail were collected and distributed in an orderly bi-partisan manner. The Pastors' Association may count upon Platt in this fight for the American Sabbath. All he will ask of the pastors in return is their aid in *his* fight for the American Boss in city politics, and we must say the chances are that he will get it.

Mayor Strong's message, coming after his appointments to the few places he has filled, is an additional assurance to the public that he has not forgotten the pledges which he made before election. He declares that "municipal administration can and should be made a matter of practical business, differing chiefly in the magnitude of interests involved," and that he shall endeavor to name for office "men whose capabilities are their endorsement." His appointments thus far have been on a level with these professions, and in this respect his conduct is in refreshing contrast with that of his Tammany predecessors, who, while making the most extravagant professions of determination to fill the offices with only the best men, regularly filled

them with the worst. Mayor Strong shows practical wisdom also in refraining from more than brief comment upon the various municipal departments until he has examined their condition and needs. He will in this respect follow the example set by Mayor Hewitt in 1888, and send a series of special messages to the Board of Aldermen, taking up the departments, one or more at a time, reviewing them and making suggestions which will "enable our fellow-citizens to clearly understand the somewhat complicated management of public affairs." Mayor Hewitt's special messages were the most instructive and valuable documents of their kind ever put before the community; but the public mind was so little alive at the time to the need of an honest and intelligent government of the city that they commanded very little attention. Mayor Strong will address the public in a much more favorable time, and we have little doubt that the response to his suggestions will be far more encouraging than it was to Mayor Hewitt's.

We have no wish to depreciate Superintendent Byrnes on mere suspicion, or any ground which he has not himself supplied. But we must say again, as we have said before, that the accumulation of a fortune while in the police service by means of police services secretly rendered to outsiders, is likely to destroy his influence over his subordinates. Besides this, the mere knowledge that such accumulation is possible is enough to ruin the *morale* of any man in the police who has once risen above the ranks, if he sees that it can be made without discredit. It is sure to make him despise his regular pay and to set him looking out for lucrative jobs. This would be true if the police force were now all it should be. But in its present venal condition the example would act on it with redoubled force. In addition to this, Superintendent Byrnes is disliked and distrusted by a very large proportion of the voters who have brought about the present opportunity for reform. Would it be wise for Mayor Strong to fly in the face of this prejudice, even if it be ill founded, and try to reform the force through instruments in which the public would not have thorough faith? It is not as though there was nobody but Superintendent Byrnes to do the work of reorganization. There are at least two or three gentlemen available and thoroughly competent for it, with whose motives and characters no fault can be found. Nothing is more necessary in an administrative reform than to avoid the retention of discredited agents. All who have for any reason forfeited the public confidence should "go." Superintendent Byrnes has rendered great services to New York city in the last thirty years. This should not be forgotten in spite of all that has happened. But there prevails everywhere but in New York a salutary custom which compels men in high places to retire when public trust in them has been weakened, and we think Superintendent Byrnes should obey it, even if Sheehan does not. Mayor Strong may rely on it, nothing but new brooms will do the work he has in hand.

In the published statement of Jay Gould's personal estate there appears among the claims the following item and entry: "S. B. French, $9,716.04, no value." French is our old friend Steve, of the Police Board, the famous "bi-partisan." He declines to say why Jay Gould paid or lent him this sum, but it is entirely safe to say that Gould did not give it to him except for full and adequate return of some kind. It cannot have been lent on Steve's note alone. It was given, of course, while Steve was in active service as a "bi-partisan." We wish very much that Steve would give us a full and frank explanation of the transaction, as it might throw light on Gould's other relations to the Police Department.

The attempt of the Governor of Texas to secure under the extradition law the sending to that State of men who have never been within its limits, on the claim that they have violated the anti-Trust law of the commonwealth, is followed by the refusal of an Ohio judge to surrender to Kentucky one of her criminals on grounds quite as untenable. A negro named Hampton, under indictment for a crime in Kentucky, escaped to Ohio. He was arrested, and his case was taken before Judge Buchwalter of Cincinnati. The papers were in regular form, but the judge refused to order Hampton's surrender unless he could have a letter from the Governor of Kentucky and the sheriff of the county where the crime was committed, giving assurances that he would be protected from a mob and given a fair trial. The judge's defence was that he had lately sent two colored men back to Kentucky and Georgia, both of whom had been lynched. Gov. Brown of Kentucky very properly treats the demand of the judge with contempt. He easily shows that it contravenes the Constitution of the United States, which says that a person charged in any State with crime "who shall flee from justice and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime." It would be as absurd to hold that the authorities of one State must be satisfied with the administration of justice in another State before they would surrender a criminal as to maintain that a man who, it is claimed, is connected with a combination that has violated the laws of a State, can be treated as having fled from justice when he never was in the State. This is true even if, as is alleged, the Ohio judge has, in a State statute, some color of justification for his action.

The encounter between the Rev. Lem Penrod and Mr. John Slate at Grassy Creek, Kentucky, the other day, on the subject of infant baptism, will, we fear, cause a good deal of unreasonable scandal. Finding it impossible to get Slate to take a proper view of this important ordinance, Penrod drew a revolver and shot (probably merely as a warning) at Slate's leg, the ball passing through his boot. Slate, instead of taking this in a proper spirit, "rushed at the minister," whose resources at close quarters were not, however, exhausted, for he produced a butcher knife and endeavored to slash Slate's abdomen, but only reached his trousers. Friends then stopped the fray. This attempt on Slate's abdomen we cannot excuse, Slate's head being the real seat of his error; but in a fray it is, of course, difficult to plant one's blows where they will do the most good. But we must not too hastily condemn the Rev. Penrod's methods, for infant baptism is by no means the only doctrine erroneous views on which have been corrected with the knife or the bullet. There is hardly a single theological error which in times past has not been corrected by cuts, bruises, and burns. Penrod is simply an anachronism, but we trust he will keep an eye on Slate, and get him right somehow eventually.

The output of books is a good trade indication, and, judging by the returns of the English book-market, to be found in the *Publishers' Circular*, the year 1894 shows a considerable recovery from the world-wide financial depression. More new books by 171 were published in 1894 than in 1893, while the reprints—that sure sign of distress or uncertainty in the book-making business—were less by 68. Coming down to the classifications, we find theology scoring its customary increase, but science, education, and law increasing in still greater proportion, while belles-lettres and essays beat them all, the advance in the latter case being from 96 new issues in 1893 to 370 in 1894. Novels and tales jump from 935 to 1,315, but this is pretty well balanced by the decline in juveniles from 659 to 269. The question of accurate classification comes in here, as the *Circular* observes, and the difficulty of shading off stories told for the young from tales in general may account for the ups and downs in the two sets of figures. A better way would be to reckon both classes together, and then we should find the general group of fiction to have been about stationary in point of number in the two years. On the whole, the literary year shows a picking up of courage on the part of publishers. The American figures will probably reflect, as they usually do, conditions similar to those given for the English trade.

INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.

THE subject of international arbitration has been brought to the attention of the people afresh by the presence here of Mr. Cremer, the president of the Peace Society of Great Britain. It is forgotten, apparently, that Mr. Cremer comes hither at our own invitation. This invitation was publicly communicated in the proceedings of the International American Conference, held during Mr. Harrison's administration under the presidency of James G. Blaine, secretary of state. This conference assembled at Washington October 2, 1889. It remained in session under the presidency of Mr. Blaine till April 19, 1890. On the 17th of April it adopted a project of a treaty for the settlement by arbitration of all international disputes with one exception, which exception was in the following words:

"Art. IV. The sole questions excepted from the provisions of the preceding article are those which, in the judgment of any of the nations involved in the controversy, may imperil its independence; in which case, for such nation, arbitration shall be optional, but it shall be obligatory upon the adversary power."

The plan was supported and voted for by the representatives of all the conferees except Chili. In its preamble it recited that war is the most cruel, the most fruitless, and the most dangerous expedient for the settlement of international differences; that the growth of moral principles among civilized peoples has created an earnest desire for the amicable adjustment of such differences; that the conference considered it a duty to lend its assent to the lofty principles which the most enlightened public sentiment of the world approves, and accordingly did "solemnly recommend" all the governments there represented to form a treaty of arbitration on certain lines, which it proceeded to indicate.

Whenever a project for a general plan of arbitration is proposed, the Jingoists, with an air of superior wisdom, tell us that anybody who sits down and attempts to draw up a working scheme will find it entirely impracticable. The International American Conference did not find it so. On the contrary, it discovered and proved that the only obstacle in the way of a general plan of arbitration hitherto had been an unwillingness to enter into it. All difficulties were composed as soon as the parties desired to compose them. The project provided that arbitration should be obligatory in all controversies concerning diplomatic and consular privileges, boundaries, territories, indemnities, the right of navigation, and the construction of treaties, and in all other cases, with the single exception noted, even though the controversies antedated the present treaty. It was provided that courts of arbitration should be appointed jointly by the governments concerned, and that in case they could not agree, each government should appoint an equal number, and the arbitrators themselves should appoint an umpire, who should vote only on questions where the arbitrators failed to agree. The court of arbitration might select its own place of meeting unless the governments concerned should agree upon a place. All questions should be decided by a majority vote, even though a minority should withdraw from the conference, and in such case the majority should continue in session until all the questions in dispute were decided, and the decisions of the majority should be final. Nations entering into the agreement were not allowed to withdraw except with the consent of all the others. The agreement was to continue twenty years, and until one of the parties should give one year's notice of its desire to withdraw. It should remain in force as to the others until they gave similar notice.

The next day, April 18, the following proposition was reported by the committee on arbitration, and was adopted:

"The International American Conference resolves: That this conference, having recommended arbitration for the settlement of disputes among the republics of America, begs leave to express the wish that controversies between them and the nations of Europe may be settled in the same friendly manner. It is further recommended that the government of each nation herein represented communicate this wish *to all friendly powers*."

An additional resolution was adopted declaring "that the principle of conquest shall not, during the continuance of the treaty of arbitration, be recognized as admissible under American public law." Finally Mr. Blaine declared that this was a new *Magna Charta*, and the greatest work of the conference. He said in his concluding speech:

"If, in this closing hour, the conference had but one deed to celebrate, we should dare call the world's attention to the deliberate, confident, solemn dedication of two great continents to peace, and to the prosperity which has peace for its foundation. We hold up this new *Magna Charta*, which abolishes war and substitutes arbitration between the American Republics, as the first and great fruit of the International American Conference. That noblest of Americans, the aged poet and philanthropist, Whittier, is the first to send his salutation and his benediction, declaring, 'If, in the spirit of peace, the American Conference agrees upon a rule of arbitration which shall make war in this hemisphere well-nigh impossible, its sessions will prove one of the most important events in the history of the world.'"

It may be affirmed that our status on the subject of arbitration was well fixed by the two great precedents known to the present generation; that of Geneva on the *Alabama* claims, and that of Paris on the Bering Sea question. These were notable triumphs in the direction of "peace on earth and good will towards men," but it needed, perhaps, the broad generalization of the International American Conference to distinguish us among the world's great powers as the champion of this mode of settling international disputes. It scarcely needs to be said that a treaty of general arbitration, like any other treaty, may be denounced in an extreme case, and that each nation is the judge of the circumstances constituting an extreme case. The value of such a treaty is that it gives the initiative and the advantage to the friends of peace in every case of international dispute, and compels the Jingo party to play second fiddle. It puts a moral compulsion upon the nation to try peaceful methods first. And so it will be found in nine cases out of ten that war is avoidable.

SOCIAL DEFENCE AND PROGRESS.

A SORT of league has just got under way in Paris called the "Comité de Défense et de Progrès Social." Founded by Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu and like-minded men, its aim is declared to be to make a stand against the growing perils of socialism. By means of public lectures and pamphlets, and by political organization, if necessary, it hopes to vindicate all that is excellent in the present social order, at the same time that it shows sympathy for all rational and feasible reform. The league is for advance movements as well as for defence. It makes no pretence that all is for the best in the best of worlds. Strong as is its conviction of the worth and necessity of such a social organization as we now have, it will not commit itself to blind and indiscriminate praise of existing institutions, but will admit their weak points, and work as heartily as any other for improvement. All it insists upon is that the whole structure shall not be destroyed under the name of improvement.

Such an initiative seems well conceived and likely to be of much use in France. That country has been too much given to creating a new heaven and a new earth overnight. Lowell called it a "French fallacy" to suppose that "a new system of government could be ordered like a new suit of clothes." To the slower and more tenacious Anglo-Saxon this would seem as unreasonable as to order a new suit of flesh and skin. As Prof. Freeman said: "At no moment have Englishmen sat down to put together a wholly new constitution in obedience to some dazzling theory." Doubtless one reason of the ease with which French socialists get a hearing and credence and a political following is to be found in the traditional French facility in making new constitutions out of hand and voting-in the millennium on the spot. It is an encouraging thing, therefore, to find a body of influential Frenchmen coming over to the Anglo-Saxon view, that government and society are built up by painful efforts and slow accretions; that what we have laboriously acquired should not be given up at the demand of every theorist who comes along, and that even those reforms that can be shown to be urgent and possible should be entered upon only with caution and careful experiment.

A firm grasp of this truth is the chief merit of the article by Dr. J. H. Denison on "The Survival of the American Type" in the January *Atlantic*. Our system of government, our respect for law, our methods of local administration, the free course we offer individual and corporate enterprise, constitute a type, an organism,

back of which lie long centuries of struggle and sacrifice. Thus the issue with which socialism confronts us is: "Shall we develop the present forces, or shall we throw away nature's plan and give up the Anglo-Saxon organic nation in which law is reduced to a minimum?" It is the type itself which is on trial, which is struggling for existence. None of the schemes afloat in sentimental heads about a division of property, about the abolition of poverty and of grinding toil, is fairly and properly considered unless its destructive effect on the whole American conception of government and society is taken into the account. When that conception is felt to be attacked and imperilled, its defenders may be excused for heat and vehemence in repelling the assault.

Just here it is well to ask who are the most ardent defenders of the system of free competition and Government interference reduced to the minimum. It is common to say that they are the great capitalists, the large employers, the money kings. It is the men in Wall Street whom the Populists and Socialists think they are making "tremble" when they talk about confiscatory taxes and the state assuming control of all industries. But this is all a delusion. Great property is the least concerned about such matters. It can always defend itself. Who can imagine a man like Jay Gould caring very much about the kind of government he lived under? A collectivist government would have no terrors for him. It would mean only a few more officials to bribe, or, if the burden became too grievous to be borne, a grand smash and a new Cæsar at the head of affairs, with an aristocracy of wealth in which the Goulds would figure as dukes and viscounts. No, the men who really tremble and are saddened at the way in which short-sighted humanitarianism or reckless agitators would destroy in a year what it has taken centuries to build up, are the men who have at stake not so much their property as their sentiments and convictions. Just in proportion to their historical and political knowledge, just in proportion to the sympathy with which they have entered into the long struggle which has finally secured us freedom under law, do they dread and denounce crude plans of innovation.

Yet it is precisely these men, too, who are really the best and truest friends of reform and progress. This is an admirable thing in the programme of the French association referred to. It will not be put in the position of unyielding conservatism. It is for progress in what is good as well as for defence of what is good. It says to impatient schemers, Show us a reasonable prospect of social betterment without greater social damage involved, and nowhere will it be more welcome or find heartier advocacy. This is the attitude of rational and humane men in all countries. They suspect violent and sweeping changes. Reform which is to last they know has always come about, and they believe always will come about, by painful steps and slow. But they are no champions of stagnation. Of all men they are the ones who are most attentive to "the still small voice that speaks to the conscience and the heart, prompting us to a wider and wiser humanity."

END OF THE POLICE JUSTICES.

THE Committee of Seventy has done an extremely popular as well as wise thing in deciding to abolish the police-court system rather than to attempt its reform. The able and experienced lawyers to whom was assigned the work of drafting a reformatory measure upon this subject reached the conclusion very early in their deliberations that the present system was so thoroughly bad, and had become so thoroughly odious, that reform of it was out of the question. Death, instantaneous and certain, was the only adequate remedy for it. They therefore prepared a bill which abolishes both the system and the name, and which gives us in its place a new system of inferior courts of criminal jurisdiction, with nine city magistrates and five justices of the Court of Special Sessions. No man can become a city magistrate or justice who has not been for ten years at least in active practice as attorney and counsellor at law in the courts of the State.

Our present bench of police justices, fifteen in number, will give way to a bench of nine city magistrates, whose term will be ten years, and whose salary will be $7,000. The police-justice term is ten years and the salary is $8,000. This reduction in number brings the force of magistrates down to the court-house capacity of this city, and thus makes it possible for all the magistrates to be on duty every day. At present, since there are only nine places for the police justices to sit in, six of them are idle every day in the year. Divver was able to show on his recent trial that though he had been absent for weeks and even months at a time, he was no more neglecting his duties than were his associates. As a matter of fact, there was no excuse whatever for the increase of the number of police justices which was made in a Platt-Tammany "deal" in 1890, except to provide "places" for four more workers at $8,000 a year. The new bill undoes this act of public plunder, and also provides against possible neglect of duty hereafter by requiring that a city magistrate shall be in constant attendance in each of the courts between the hours of nine in the morning and five in the afternoon on every day except Sundays and holidays. The five city justices who are to constitute the Court of Special Sessions, are to serve for a term of ten years and receive a salary of $9,000 a year. They are to take the place of the present Court of Special Sessions, which is made up of three police justices, who are assigned by the full body of police justices, and who are allowed to sit alternately and as often and at such times as they may think expedient. The new justices are required to sit in every month of the year, and three of them must be present at every session.

It is evident from even this brief outline of the bill that the new system provides a method of inferior criminal justice which is as far removed as possible from the present system. In the first place, it abolishes utterly and for ever from the bench the Divvers, Martins, Meades, Hogans, and their kind by its requirement as to practice at the bar. Grady and Koch and a few others of the present list of indescribables are, we believe, nominally members of the bar, but the amount and kind of their practice are not such as would permit any mayor with reasonable respect for the law under which he was acting to appoint them to the bench. They were not put on the bench because they were lawyers, but for far different reasons. Every effort that has been made for the last quarter of a century to have the requirement of practice at the bar for a fixed period put into the law, has been opposed bitterly by Tammany and its Republican allies and has been defeated. This feature of the new law is likely to be the chief centre of attack now, for it will not merely put Justices Taintor and Meade, both Republicans, off the old bench, but will bar them from admission to the new. Still, it is the all-important feature of the new system, and must not be allowed to be either modified or omitted.

Nothing ought to be allowed to stand in the way of this, the most pressing and beneficent of all the reforms hoped for at the hands of the Legislature and Mayor Strong. It is impossible to overestimate the benefits which will accrue to the city if Mayor Strong is allowed to equip these new courts with upright, able, and honorable men. They will at once become the centres of law and justice, and cease to be, as they have been for years and are to-day, the centres of "pulls," politics, and injustice, and the actual allies of crime. They will become pure instead of impure fountain-heads of justice, protecting and aiding rather than oppressing and robbing the poor and the helpless, punishing rather than shielding criminals, aiding and directing the police in enforcing the laws rather than baffling them or conniving with them in violating the laws. Of all the shames which have fallen upon us as a city through Tammany rule, that of the police courts has been the blackest and most inexcusable.

We have entire confidence both in the supply of reputable lawyers for the new courts and in Mayor Strong's determination to put only men of that kind into them. The drafters of the new bill have concluded wisely not to reduce the salaries below limits which would make it possible for lawyers of character and ability to accept the positions. They have provided

adequate pay, and they have also provided that adequate service shall be rendered in return. In fact, their system creates for the city a dignified, intelligent, honest tribunal of justice for all classes, and especially for the poor and helpless, for the first time in our history, at least since Tammany became a power: and it will be a serious reflection upon our civilization and our capacity for self-government if we do not insist upon its adoption.

THE ARMENIAN TROUBLE.

THERE is imminent danger that the attempt of the European powers to interfere on behalf of the Armenians will come to nothing. England is the only one which is pushing vigorously for an inquiry today, and the Sultan is resisting her fiercely. He has long borne her a grudge as the most persistent of his persecutors, and this has been aggravated by the occupation of Egypt, concerning which the French lose no opportunity of inflaming his mind. Against this, however, England could contend if she had the hearty support of Russia, for Russia is the only power capable of coercing the Porte without much trouble or outlay. She could occupy Armenia at any moment, and the Sultan could do nothing either to prevent or avenge it. But Russia gives only a half-hearted support to the English remonstrances, and is quite ostentatious in her display of friendliness to the Turks. It is not impossible that, were the facts all known in Russia, there would be an outbreak of sympathy with the Armenian Christians not unlike that which followed the Bulgarian massacres in 1876, and led to the war of 1877. But pains are taken, as is credibly reported, either to prevent the news from reaching the Russian people or to minimize its importance. Germany turns a cold shoulder to the whole affair, following her policy of non-interference established by Bismarck in 1877, when he announced that he would not sacrifice one Pomeranian grenadier for the whole Bulgarian population. Italy's help, in the present condition of her morals and finances, is, of course, hardly worth considering. To crown all, the snow at the scene of the massacres is so deep, and the cold so intense, that it is doubtful whether commissioners and witnesses could get at each other, without great difficulty and hardship, for at least two months if not more.

All this brings out in a striking manner the value of the Eastern policy of Lord Beaconsfield, who was for twenty years one of the great Tory idols, and to whose memory they still burn incense. He stipulated, indeed, with the Turks at Berlin that the Armenians were to be well treated, but, as plainly appears, without the smallest expectation of enforcing the stipulation or of providing any means of doing so. In truth, he concluded a sort of defensive alliance with the Turks, for which the island of Cyprus was to be the consideration. But Cyprus has turned out not only a worthless possession but a great burden. The defensive alliance, moreover, is something with which the Turks would be glad to dispense, and the existence of which is offensive to Russia, for it provides that if Russia seeks to occupy any more Turkish territory, besides what she had already seized in the war, "England engages to join his imperial Majesty the Sultan in defending it by force of arms." It is now quite certain that England would do nothing of the kind, and would gladly be rid of the island of Cyprus.

Moreover, there is every likelihood that, during the coming summer, home affairs will withdraw English attention from most foreign topics. It is generally acknowledged by the Liberals that the dissolution of Parliament and a general election are near at hand, and the prospects of a Liberal victory are not good. Not only have the Home-Rulers "soured on" Lord Rosebery, as our politicians say, but the Independent Labor party is attacking the Liberals in the rear, and in many localities making a return of the Liberal members hopeless. It is quite possible that if the Tories came in, Lord Salisbury might seek to divert attention from home troubles by an active foreign policy; but one of the things in the democratic movement in England which most alarm Conservatives is the growing indifference of the masses to imperial or foreign affairs, so that the probabilities are in favor of some sort of fostering of socialistic nostrums for which the Tories have of late shown a strong taste.

What our Government can do in the Armenian matter, or whether it can do anything, is a fair subject for discussion. We have had one snub, in the attempt to take part in the inquiry, and, generally speaking, the methods of Turkish government are none of our business. But wholesale massacre is in our time the affair of the civilized world. It is not government, or a method of government. It is a crime against the human race. We can no more pass it without notice because we do not suffer from it, than pass pirates without notice on the high seas because they attack none of our ships. The whole of Christendom, including ourselves, has a right to refuse to treat a power which perpetrates such atrocities as are said to have occurred in Armenia, as within the pale of ordinary diplomatic intercourse. Diplomatic relations rest on the basis of a common civilization and common notions of humanity and justice, so that we might very well consider the refusal of the Porte to satisfy us as to the truth of the charges, as a good reason for an interruption of friendly diplomatic intercourse. The solemn warnings of Washington against foreign meddling, the wisdom of which has been proved by the experience of a century, do not touch this case. He denounces passionate attachments to, or passionate hatreds of, foreign nations. He denounces foreign influence on our domestic politics. He denounces political connections and permanent alliances with foreign states. But none of these warnings cuts us off from remonstrance with the perpetrators of gross cruelty or injustice, on a great scale, in any part of Christendom, and there is no nation which could speak with greater force for the common rights of humanity than we could, particularly just now, when every power in Europe seems to be approaching the Armenian horror with the Tammany question, "What is there in this for me?"

ALEXANDER IRELAND AND EMERSON.—II.

NEW YORK, January 1, 1895.

IN 1843 Mr. Ireland settled in Manchester. Carlyle's edition of Emerson's first Essays (1841) had excited much attention there, which was increased by the publication of the second series (1844). In 1845 the Manchester *Examiner* was founded by some Liberals of that region, among them John Bright, M. P., who during its first two years often wrote the leading articles. In 1846 Alexander Ireland became its managing partner, and held that position for thirty-five years. The new journal paid especial attention to literature, and by this means his literary friendships were greatly extended. One of his most important friendships was that formed with the eloquent lecturer George Dawson (whose Life he wrote, 1882), and while they were together on the Lakes (1846) Ireland visited Wordsworth. He had the happiness of completing the aged poet's collection of portraits with one of Ben Jonson. In the summer of the same year he derived great pleasure from the visit of Margaret Fuller, who (August 17, 1846) sends him the poems of Ellery Channing and "a sketch of travel in some of our Western States, by myself"; and on October 6 wrote him from London:

"I am much pleased to have your feeling of 'Margaret.' As you say, there are such things in real life, yet I fancy the picture, like that of an antique Venus, was painted from study of several models. The writer, Sylvester Judd (a name as truly American in its style as one of his own invention, Beulah Ann Orff), is a man approaching middle age who has heretofore only made himself remarked by one or two strokes of character of a kind noble and original. I have never seen him, but some years ago received from him this message, 'that he wished me to know I had one admirer in the State of Maine,' a distinction of which I am not a little proud, now that I have read his book. He is a clergyman, but it seems has not for that forgot to be a man. Time allows me now to say no more, except that I am ever, dear sir, in friendly heart and faith, yours, S. M. FULLER.—P. S. Should you see Dr. and Mrs. Hodgson and Mrs Ames, remember us [she was travelling with Mr. and Mrs. Marcus Spring] to them with grateful regard. I should be much interested at any time to know what any or all of you are doing for the good of others, and your own, what feeling, what hoping; to the new fraternity I think we belong, whose glory is service, whose motto *Excelsior.*"

Mr. Ireland was a good deal stirred by Margaret Fuller's accounts of Emerson's lectures and growing influence in America, and resolved to make an effort to get him to England. Mr. William Lloyd Garrison passed two

days (October 12, 13, 1846) in Manchester, and naturally received a hearty welcome from the manager of the *Examiner*, who seems to have followed him to Liverpool. At any rate, on the day when Mr. Garrison sailed for America, November 4, Mr. Ireland was on shipboard with him, and confided to him a pencilled note to Emerson, very brief, but pregnant with important results. In his reply to it ("Concord, 28th Dec., 1846") Emerson said:

"I was very glad to be reminded by your concise note, written on shipboard and conveyed to me by Mr. Garrison, of our brief intercourse thirteen years ago, and which it seems has not yet quite ended. Your affectionate expressions towards me and my friends are very grateful to me; and, indeed, what better thing do men or angels know of than an enduring kindness? In regard to your inquiry whether I shall visit England now or soon, the suggestion is new and unlooked for, yet opens to me at once so many flattering possibilities that I shall cheerfully entertain it, and perhaps we may both see it ripen one day to a fact. Certainly it would be much more practicable and pleasant to me to answer an invitation than to come into your cities and challenge an audience."

But Ireland was unwilling to have this matter adjourned, and again urged the visitation, no doubt after correspondence with friends. So I judge by a further letter (February 28, 1847) of which he (Ireland) gave me a copy, in which Emerson says he had "not anticipated so prompt an execution of the project as you suggest," and adds:

"I feel no call to make a visit of literary propagandism in England. All my impulses to work of that kind would rather employ me at home. It would be still more unpleasing to me to put upon a few friends the office of collecting an audience for me by much advertisement and coaxing. At the same time it would be very agreeable to me to accept any good invitation to read lectures from institutions, or from a number of individuals who sympathized with my studies. But though I possess a good many decisive tokens of interest in my pursuits and way of thinking from sundry British men and women, they are widely sundered persons, and my belief is that in no one city, except perhaps in London, could I find any numerous company to whom my name was favourably known. If I were younger, it would give me great pleasure to come to England and collect my own audience, as I have done at home here; and I have that confidence in my favourite topics and in my own habits, that I should undertake the affair without the least distrust. But perhaps my ambition does not give to a success of this kind that importance it has had for me. At all events, in England I incline rather to take than to give the challenge. You must not suffer your own friendly feelings to give the smallest encouragement to the design. It would be strange but most agreeable to me to renew our brief yet never-forgotten acquaintance of thirteen or fourteen years ago in Edinburgh."

Meantime Ireland had, as Carlyle wrote Emerson from Yorkshire, "awakened all this North Country into the fixed hope of hearing you." On March 18, 1847, Carlyle writes: "I had furthermore seen your Manchester correspondent, Ireland, an old Edinborough acquaintance too, as I found. A solid, dark, broad, rather heavy man; full of energy, and broad sagacity and practicality; infinitely well affected to the man Emerson too. It was our clear opinion that you might come at any time with ample assurance of 'succeeding,' so far as wages went, and otherwise; that you ought to come, and must, and would—as he, Ireland, would farther write you."

Ireland, who had many eminent friends, Leigh Hunt among them, not only wrote innumerable letters, but travelled to the more important places, enlisting every man and woman interested in literature, all "progressives," writing paragraphs in many papers. He created for Emerson's sake a higher order of lecture machinery and system than any then existing, one that lasted many years. The arrangements duly made and reported, Emerson answered, July 31, 1847:

"I owe you hearty thanks for your effective attention to my affair, which was attractive enough to me in the first proposition, and certainly assumes in your hands a feasible shape. I have a good deal of domestic immoveableness—being fastened down by wife and children, by books and studies, by pear-trees and apple-trees—but, after much hesitation, can find no sufficient resistance to this animating invitation, and I decide to go to England in the autumn. . . . Meantime, I beg you not to give yourself any further pains in this matter, which I fear has already cost you much. It will give me pleasure to speak to bodies of your English people, but I am sure it will give me much more to meet with yourself and other honoured individuals in private; and I see well that, if there were no lecturing, I should not fail to find a solid benefit in the visit."

On September 30 Emerson writes that he will leave Boston on a ship, not a steamer, the *Washington Irving*, October 5. On the 22d of that month he was with Ireland in Manchester, and the same evening at Carlyle's house in London. The details of Emerson's lecturing tour in England I have given in my 'Emerson at Home and Abroad,' but I have since found reasons for ascribing to it the dignity of a Visitation. He appeared at a moment when, as I heard J. S. Mill say, "Carlyle was turning against his friends." The causes of this revolution in Carlyle's mind, and whether it was in a right or wrong direction, cannot be discussed here; but certain it is that early in 1848 he began to be regarded by some sheep of his pasture as a doubtful leader. Frederick the Great began to supersede the Chartist in him. Throughout England his disciples flocked after Emerson, who kept up the old Carlyle standard. This was more than Mrs. Carlyle's flesh and blood could bear, and she angrily complained to a visitor (Espinasse) that he talked too much about Emerson. It was unwise in Froude to publish this ebullition of jealousy, and still worse to reveal the scar of the wound which Carlyle felt, but confessed to no mortal. Carlyle's long-healed wound was transferred and made fresh in the hearts of his old friends, and none felt it more keenly than Ireland, who wrote me:

"I am just now busy with Froude's new volumes. More ought to have been said about Emerson's never-to-be-forgotten solicitude for Carlyle's interests, and his regular sending of monies to him from the American reprints of his books, when he was receiving nothing from English publishers—thus keeping the Chelsea pot boiling. I am surprised and disappointed to find how he is spoken of by Carlyle. *E. g.:*

"'Emerson is now in England, in the North, lecturing to Mechanics' Institutes, etc —in fact, though he knows it not, to a band of intellectual *canaille*. [This is too bad. Emerson's audiences consisted of earnest and thoughtful men and women—just the kind of minds that sought strength and courage from Carlyle's own writings.] Came here and stayed with us some days on his first arrival. Very *exotic;* of smaller dimensions, too, and differed much from me, as a gymnosophist sitting idle on a flowery bank may do from a wearied worker and wrestler passing that way with many of his bones broken. Good of him I could get none, except from his friendly looks and elevated exotic polite ways; and he would not let me sit silent for a minute. Solitary on that side too, then? Be it so, if so it must be.'

"Contrast this with what Carlyle wrote to others about his admiration for Emerson, and with what he wrote to Emerson himself. [Here follow extracts, *e.g.:* "I do not know another man in all the world to whom I can speak with clear hope of getting adequate response from him."] I have a good mind to send these to the *Athenæum* to be printed in parallel columns with the extracts from Froude's book which I have given. It is difficult to reconcile these utterances of Carlyle."

It will be seen by reference to the Emerson-Carlyle correspondence that after Emerson had departed, Carlyle felt somewhat guilty (ii., p. 216, *seq*), and many times uttered his gratitude and affection. Never did I visit the Chelsea home but the first question of both inmates was concerning Emerson, and the last words Carlyle ever said to me (a short time before his death) were: "Give my love to Emerson. I still think of his visit to us in Craigenputtock as the most beautiful thing in our experience there."

This little history must draw to a close, though before me are many letters from Ireland, and some from Emerson, which tempt me to prolong it. When Emerson's house was burned in 1872, Ireland was the first of those who induced me to send from England proffers of assistance in rebuilding it (which Emerson gratefully appreciated, but declined), and when Emerson reached London (November, 1872), Ireland was already there waiting for him. The meeting between these old friends was touching. Emerson remembered individually the young scholars and thinkers whom Ireland introduced to him twenty-five years before, some of whom had travelled from distant parts of the country to sit at his feet in Manchester, where he had lived two months. No one was better able to give him account of each and every one of them than Ireland (whose correspondence, should it ever appear, will be a detailed history of scores of interesting men and women little known to the world, as well as of others who became noted). To quote Mr. Ireland:

"He spent the last two days of this, his final visit to England, under my roof, along with his devoted daughter, Ellen. This afforded an opportunity of bringing together many of his old friends and hearers of 1847–8, whom he was well pleased to meet. To every one he gave a few minutes, and the stream of conversation flowed on for several hours. After all the guests had departed he indulged in a cigar, and expressed his gratification at having met so many 'good people,' as he called them. 'Would that I could have held converse with each for half-an-hour.'"

I have perhaps said too little of Mr. Ireland's own contributions to literature, which are of high value. He had attained a unique position in England, was much consulted by literary men, and was honored with banquets by several literary clubs and societies. Nearly every literary American visiting England was entertained in his house. Among his dearest friends was Mr. Horace Fairchild, sometime consul in his neighborhood, with whom he has corresponded for many years. In 1865 he assisted Mr. Fairchild and an American friend of his in securing a complete set of the publications of the Anti-Corn-Law League, a unique collection now in New York. Ireland from time to time wrote literary articles for the Manchester *Guardian*, his last being one on the death of Oliver Wendell Holmes. He received many cordial letters from America—from Holmes, Lowell, Prof. Norton, Miss Peabody, and others. He possessed a grand library, which contained many rare volumes.

My aim has been mainly to call attention to the fact that Emerson's fruitful lecturing tour in England was altogether, and his wide influence there largely, due to Alexander Ireland. It is, I believe, well understood by those acquainted with Emerson's career, that he himself was greatly influenced as a public teacher by his experiences and friendships formed during that visit, and it is certain that he contributed much to the direction of the new life which Carlyle awakened but could not lead.

During my long residence in England I have been brought into personal relations with nearly all of Emerson's old friends, and they cherished his memory as that of the man who did most to mould their lives. Many are now dead, but a considerable number of them gathered with the large assembly which in September last listened, in South Place Chapel, to Edward Emerson, who, beside the bust of his father, pedestalled amid flowers, read to them the correspondence between Ralph Waldo Emerson and John Sterling.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

THE LIBERAL PARTY.

LONDON, January 1, 1895.

THE Liberal party has met with a check in the result of the two bye-elections in Forfarshire and the Brigg division of Lincolnshire. In both cases there is a good deal to be said with truth by way of explanation. But the result remains, and, coming immediately after the question of the House of Lords had been formally raised by the Prime Minister, it shows that that question has not at once awakened a burst of enthusiasm. Liberals believe that the enthusiasm will come. The problem presents so many sides and offers so many alternatives that the country requires time to take it in, and it has been easy for adroit opponents of the Government, maladroit friends, and one or two malcontent adherents, to confuse the simple issue which is for the moment presented to the country—the predominance of the House of Commons. Meanwhile the bye-elections have revived the spirits of the Opposition. It is believed, at least in well-informed Liberal circles, that, in spite of the bluster of the Opposition press, the managers of the party were unwilling to precipitate a dissolution of Parliament. It may be that these recent successes have modified that view.

What the result of a dissolution might be, it is of course impossible to say. It may at first sight seem strange that in a country where the working-class electors far outnumber the rest, liberal government should not be sure of a substantial majority. The Liberal policy, at least for many years, after everything had been done for the middle classes, has been to extend or rather to create the political power of the workingman, to cut down every privilege in which he did not share, to shift burdens on to other shoulders than his. If I am not mistaken, Lord Salisbury published a magazine article two or three years before the franchise was extended to householders in counties, in which he assumed that, even then, under the existing distribution of seats, a Liberal majority must be permanent, and the subsequent Redistribution Act effected nothing to make the prediction less probable. It has not so turned out; but the truth is that, over and above the natural force of conservatism, which is powerful in every class in an old, prosperous, free, and, on the whole, well-governed country, there are stumbling-blocks in the path of the Liberal party, and hindrances from within sufficient to account for the party being weaker than it ought to be.

Take, for example, the politicians who describe themselves as the Independent Labor party. It has as yet only one representative in the House of Commons, Mr. Keir Hardie, who has expounded its objects in an able article in the new number of the *Nineteenth Century*. But while it counts only one member of Parliament, and its prospects of gaining any more at the next election are extremely doubtful, it draws its voting power mainly from the Liberals; at the last election in Scotland alone it handed over three safe Liberal seats to the Tories; it has nearly done the same in other cases; and it has the will and probably the power to do so again at the next election. Why, it may be asked, should a labor party not act with the Liberals? The formula of the new party is frank socialism. Their object is "the collective ownership and control of the means of production, distribution, and exchange." That, of course, is an object which the Liberal party cannot accept. It is one which the country would not accept either now or at any period, however distant, to which political imagination can project itself. On the other hand, if the detailed programme of the party as distinct from the general formula be examined, containing such items as an eight-hour day, old-age pensions, taxation of unearned income "to extinction," while it contains several points on which Liberals could not go the whole way with them, there is not one in the direction of which Liberals have not been working more or less; and if the men of the new party took their place among Liberals as an extreme wing, in proportion to the force behind them they might get much of their own way. As a hostile force they are powerless except to spite and injure the Liberals and help to give victory to the Conservatives. They affect to despise Conservatism as a played-out force; but that is an error, as they would discover if they were to succeed in placing a Tory government in power for a long term of years.

The socialistic idea on which this new party is based suggests the explanation of such support as its leaders have obtained. With the growth of intelligence and education, the great contrast between the lot of the rich and of the poor—not to be based on any possible standard of merit, and all the more important when the brevity of human life is considered—is more vividly and deeply felt. It is so in all classes, to some extent in all political parties. The question is as to the remedy. Liberals believe that they have moved in the right direction and as fast as they were permitted by their opponents to go, by conferring on the working classes political power, in both imperial and local matters. The Socialists forget that they would be powerless without this instrument, which is hardly cool from the forging, and they reproach the Liberals for not giving them money or money's worth by law—comfort, leisure, all, by state agency. It is forgotten that since the enfranchisement of the working classes was completed, within a very few years, not a little has been done in the direction they desire, all by Liberal effort, some of it by the hand of a Conservative Government, such as free-education, allotment, and small-holdings acts, the poor relieved from taxation, the burdens of the rich increased, improved factory inspection, enhanced wages in Government works. Some of these changes must certainly lead to future development on a larger scale, for example, in the direction of increasing the powers of borough and county municipalities to take and use land. Then there is the important pledge to grant payment of members of Parliament—a measure by no means acceptable to every Liberal, but a good example of the concessions to their own opinions which the more special representatives of labor among Liberals can obtain by influence and argument.

The hostile attitude of the Socialists is probably due in part to the situation of the leaders. As a body they are doubtless as sincere in their convictions, not to say fanatical, as other men. Conscious of this, and in several cases of superior ability, though a few have gained considerable influence, they have not as a rule been taken at their own valuation by the world at large. The party managers have been most anxious to get some specially labor candidates accepted, even though their opinions might be extreme. But they have not been acceptable to the local Liberal committees. They take their revenge by becoming still more extreme and waging war against the party.

The gravamen of the charge of these leaders against the Liberal party is that it pursues political measures to the neglect of social measures. That this reproach is not justified I have already indicated. In fact, political reform was and is the necessary instrument by which social reform can be carried out. But this leads me to another but kindred category of the hindrances which beset the Liberal party. Having recently enfranchised the working classes, it is true that its main object in domestic affairs would naturally be, and in fact is, to attend to those interests of the masses which had been hitherto unrepresented, to watch, to guide, to satisfy consistently with justice the crowding aspirations of the new political force which it has let loose. But it has been the fate of the party that, in some measure from necessity, in some measure from other causes, many of the Liberal measures which have been most in the eye of the public, important as they are, just as they are, have in several cases directly affected only some sharply defined geographical area out of the whole kingdom, or have been mainly promoted by the middle rather than the working class, or in their particular form been likely to divide the working class—in short, did not strike any common chord in which the masses, or the great majority of them, would join. Such questions are the great question of Irish home rule, an imperial question in the highest sense, yet just as clearly a local one; disestablishment in Wales and in Scotland; and liquor legislation. The Socialists say, These be your gods; we want something more substantial. The Tories, of course, say, This is a policy of mere destruction and attacking of interests; we are all in favor of social legislation, which you will not give time for.

The measures I have mentioned have all one difficulty in common. If there be a necessity for a main stream of Liberal policy calculated to benefit directly the laboring masses and insure their support, the leading champions of these various reforms too often have made scant allowance for it. It is their bill and their interest which must take a front place. For the Irish leaders there is the most excuse, and latterly they have shown not the least measure of self-control and forbearance. The minatory language of the Nationalists has often been unbridled enough, but that is now mostly confined to the followers of Mr. Redmond. The Liberal party have taken up the cause, and they will not desert it. The masses of the British people have acknowledged to a most wonderful extent the justice of the Irish claim with unselfish sympathy. Mr. Gladstone tried to win the battle in one year, then in six or seven. It has taken longer. But it is an absolute impossibility, and the most of the Nationalists see it, that the centre of gravity of British politics should be perpetually kept on the other side of St. George's Channel. If it were attempted, the result would be Tory government largely recruited from Liberal votes. Patience and time are necessary.

Disestablishment in Wales and Scotland is also a just claim. The former has long received the unanimous and cordial support of the Liberal party; but that is no reason, but the contrary, why it should be urged on with menace and almost with mutiny. In the same way Scottish disestablishment, a measure which many, perhaps most, of the supporters of the Established Church know is sure to come, has, perhaps, not gained by being included formally in the party programme before it was possible to press it to a conclusion. The prominence of the question at the last election weakened its own supporters, and weakened them greatly at the polls, from Mr. Gladstone downward. It is partly a middle-class question. In many constituencies the workingmen care little about it either way. Yet the lineal descendants of the clerical advisers who compelled Lesley to come down from the hill at Dunbar, when the Lord delivered them into the hand of Cromwell, have always insisted that this question should be put in the very front.

Again, take the liquor traffic. There is no doubt of the expediency of legislation or of the urgency of the problem. It ought, too, to be a workingman's question, and so it is. The pick of the workingmen are deeply interested in it. But the promoters of reform have always taken up a very uncompromising, and their leaders an impatient, attitude. Not only is the publican interest exceedingly powerful, but very drastic and unelastic proposals are apt to excite distrust and opposition among even respectable workingmen—unavowed, perhaps, but finding an outlet in the ballot-box.

The object of all these bills is right, but the zeal which claims for each a first place, though it represents, from one cause or another, only a partial interest, is intemperate and damaging to the party and their own cause, which depend on the party, and on the party alone. Now one great cause of this feverish and menacing impatience is the struggle for parliamentary time; and one great cause of want of time, though not the only cause, is the House of Lords. Here, therefore, is an object of attack on which all promoters of particular measures may agree, and which, moreover, touches the interests, the spirit, the freedom of every citizen of the country. The response to Lord Rosebery's call has not come like a rushing wind. Liberals believe that it will come with increasing volume and harmony. Of his own position with respect to this question and the situation generally, I may take some other opportunity to speak. C. D.

BENJAMIN CONSTANT.

PARIS, January 1, 1895.

SIGNORINA MELEGARI has collected many letters written by Benjamin Constant, and has published his diary, or "Journal Intime," written between the years 1804 and 1816. Constant wrote this diary for his own use, and took the precaution to write it in Greek letters. In 1871 only, M. Adrien de Constant, his cousin, who found this precious manuscript in his archives, transcribed it into Roman letters, but he suppressed some parts of it. The diary was published in instalments in the *International Review* at Rome.

There is another Diary, written before 1804, said to be in the archives of the Constant family, and which may some time be also published; there is even a third *Diarium*, which Constant kept for the eventual publication of his memoirs. Sainte-Beuve cited some notes on this Diarium which Constant gave to his secretary a few days before his death; but Signorina Melegari could find no trace of it anywhere. It is probably lost at present in some collection of autographs. For the period which precedes 1804, we find nothing in the work edited by Signorina Melegari but the letters written by Constant to his family, especially to his mother's sister, Madame de Nassau. It would have been better to follow the chronological order, and to give these letters before the "Journal Intime." As it is, we are obliged to jump back from 1816 to the years of the French Revolution.

Constant's letters are already partly known; some of them have been published from the manuscripts left by Charles de Constant, the cousin-german of Benjamin, to the Public Library of Geneva. The greater number of these were addressed to Madame de Nassau (who was born Chandieu). The new volume gives us also letters addressed to Madame de Charrière, with whom Constant maintained an intimacy for so many years. The letters of Constant to Madame Récamier were published in 1882 by Madame Lenormant, niece of Madame Récamier. As for the letters which Constant wrote to Madame de Staël, they have all been destroyed.

Benjamin Constant was born at Lausanne in 1767; his mother, Henriette de Chandieu, died in giving birth to him. He was brought up, and much spoiled, by his grandmother, Madame de Chandieu, and his aunt, Madame de Nassau. His father was a colonel in the service of Holland; all the noble families of Switzerland furnished officers to the Swiss regiments which served in the States, in France, in Rome, in Naples. It was the misfortune of Benjamin Constant to have had, in a sense, no nationality; to have lived, the greater part of his life—almost all his life—out of his own country. He was neither really Swiss, nor German, nor English, nor French; his horizon was wide, but perhaps too wide; he felt no real duties to any country, and was essentially a cosmopolitan, a citizen of the world. As he had no country, he had no real family; he never knew his mother, he saw little of his father; his aunt Nassau was an amiable friend to him, but nothing more; he was married twice, but never married for love, and he separated from his wives almost immediately after the marriage. His versatile mind, his egotism, never knew the restraint of duty: he felt only the influence of the passion of the hour. His moral nature was never developed, and he was unconscious of his want of morality. He was thrown very early, after short visits to Oxford and Edinburgh, into the midst of the philosophical school of Paris, when the French Revolution was already preparing.

During this first visit to Paris, in 1787, he led the most dissipated life, and made the acquaintance of Madame de Charrière (Miss Van Zuylen, married to a gentleman of the Pays de Vaud, M. de Charrière, who had his country house at Colombier, near Neuchâtel, the author of several novels, all now forgotten). He was twenty years old, she was already forty-seven, but she condescended to become the *marraine* of this *chérubin*, a much more precocious *chérubin* than that of Beaumarchais's "Mariage de Figaro." Benjamin's father, learning at Bois-le-Duc that his son was leading an idle life in Paris, ordered him to join him in Holland, instead of which Benjamin left for England. He consented, however, a little later to accept the post of chamberlain at the little court of Brunswick. There, in 1789, at the age of twenty-two, he agreed to a marriage with a lady-in-waiting of the Duchess Wilhelmine, Baroness of Cram. She was older than he, without any fortune, plain, violent, and quarrelsome. She soon gave him occasion to ask for a divorce.

Constant quickly became disgusted with the court of Brunswick. The Duke was at the head of an army which had entered France; Constant's heart was in reality on the side of the French revolutionists. "Our armies are in France," he writes to the Countess of Nassau (1792). "You must feel, in view of my relations and of the gratitude I owe to the chief of these armies, on which side I ought to be." But he was not really on the side he alludes to; at least, he was uncertain. He deprecates in his letters the 10th of August, the execrable 2d of September, but he has no sympathy for the émigrés. He despises the Girondists, and does not hesitate to call them "les soudoyés des émigrés." He blames Dumouriez; he says that half the French Assembly is sold to the foreigners. But we must read the letter written at this epoch to his aunt, Madame de Nassau, a document which proves how in very troubled times the clearest of minds (for Benjamin had a remarkably clear mind) find it difficult to take the true measure of men and of things.

Constant left Brunswick and returned to Switzerland. On the 17th of September, 1794, he met Madame de Staël for the first time; she was twenty-nine and he was twenty-seven years old. It has been said of Madame de Staël that the world was too small for her fiery soul. Constant was not long in falling under her powerful influence. He accompanied her to Paris in 1795, and, in her salon, became acquainted with Talleyrand, Narbonne, Montmorency, Barante, Jaucourt. He asked for letters of naturalization in France, and bought, not far from Chantilly, the estate of Hérivaux, the westernmost and wildest part of the ancient domain of the Condés. From that moment his life was mixed up with the history of constitutional ideas in France, as he became the champion of the doctrines which Madame de Staël had developed in her great and remarkable book on the French Revolution. The First Consul admitted him to the Tribunate, but when the Tribunate was reduced in numbers, he was excluded with Cabanis and others. The salon of Madame de Staël was not in the movement which prepared the Empire; Napoleon disliked the daughter of M. Necker. When Madame de Staël was exiled, Constant went to live in Weimar; during the summer he joined her at Coppet, on the Lake of Geneva.

The "Journal Intime" begins at Weimar in 1804 (Year xii., 1st Pluviôse). Constant sees Goethe as soon as he arrives. "Shrewdness, vanity, physical irritability even to pain; remarkable mind, fine eyes, face a little worn—such is his portrait." I will make other quotations relating to Goethe:

"I always feel some uneasiness in conversing with Goethe. What a pity he has been led away by the mystical philosophy of Germany. He confessed to me that the bottom of this philosophy was Spinozism. Schelling's mystics have in truth a great idea of Spinoza. But why associate him with religious ideas, and, what is worse, with Catholicism? It is, they say, because Catholicism is more poetical. And Goethe says: 'I would rather that Catholicism should hurt me than not be able to use it in order to make my plays more interesting.' Goethe uses analogy too much; he makes great pretensions in chemistry and in the exact sciences."

Another day, Constant writes:

"Very interesting supper with Goethe. He

is full of wit, of outbursts, of depth, of new ideas; but he is the least *bonhomme* that I know. Speaking of 'Werther,' he said: 'What makes that book dangerous is to have weakness depicted as a force. But when I do a thing which suits me, the consequences do not concern me. If there are mad people for whom this reading is bad, I can't help it.' I know nobody in the world who has as much gayety, *finesse*, strength and breadth of mind as Goethe."

This appreciation of Goethe as a man is more just than the judgment passed on his works: "Read over 'Faust.' It is a mockery of the human species and of all men of science. The Germans find in it an extraordinary depth; as for myself I think it is not as good as 'Candide.' It is quite as immoral and as dry, and it is not so light; there are not so many ingenious pleasantries, and there is much more that is in bad taste."

We find nothing of interest in the Diary on Schiller, who is "too exclusively a poet." Here and there are remarks which are extremely clever, on every possible subject; many portraits also very much alive, such as this: "Madame de S—— is quite of the German sentimental style—pink ribbons, melancholy attitudes, a soft voice, mind a little wandering, susceptibility, bitterness, epigrams, a great sentiment of superiority to her husband. . . . And you think her a desirable woman. . . . Why! it's hell!" He knew much about this sort of hell since he had fallen under the sway of Madame de Staël. "La grande amitié," said Madame de Sévigné, "vit de querelles." Great, indeed, was the friendship (shall we call it love?) which these two extraordinary persons, Constant and Madame, felt for each other. Constant was thinking of her when he wrote this: "The attachment of some women, the empire which they maintain over a man, to everybody's surprise, is like the sleep which overtakes travellers on the Great Saint-Bernard. They are dissatisfied with their situation, but they submit to the sensation of the present, which every moment becomes more difficult to conquer, and death arrives while they intend to depart a moment afterwards." Madame du Deffand said to Pont-de-Veyle: "We have been friends for forty years; don't you think it is because we don't love each other much?" Constant might have said the same to Madame de Staël, after the long years of their acquaintance. He complains incessantly in his diary of his slavery, but he is a willing slave. These two volatile minds, living in a constant hurricane of ideas, were well mated; they were both in a permanent agitation. Madame de Staël was the more manly of the two, the more sincere, the more generous. In 1806 Constant writes: "I received a letter from Madame de Staël. It is the shaking of the universe and the movement of chaos. And still, with all her defects, she is to me superior to everything. I am going to join her at Auxerre." In 1807: "Letter from Madame de Staël. What a fury! O God, deliver us from each other!"

In 1814 a new passion takes the place of the old one. "I spend the evening with Mme. Récamier; and this woman, with whom I lived in Switzerland, whom I have seen on many occasions and in all sorts of ways without her having made any impression on me, suddenly seizes me and inspires me with a violent passion. Am I mad or stupid? But it will pass, I hope." Alas! it did not pass. "Work, literature, politics, all is ended. The reign of Juliette begins." Juliette was flattered by the admiration of Constant, but she did not return his passion. "I have spent a diabolical day. She is a bird, a cloud, without memory, without discrimination, without preference. As her beauty has made her the object of perpetual homages, the romantic language which has always been addressed to her has given her the appearance of a sensibility which is only skin-deep." Mme. Récamier was prudent, and Constant did not deserve any deep and permanent affection. As he was in love, so he was in politics; he attacked Napoleon and then supported him during the Hundred Days. The best that can be said of him is that, on the whole, he was faithful to the cause of liberalism and of constitutional ideas. If he had been born in England, he would have been a Whig. He was thrown into the agitations of the French Revolution, and it is no wonder if sometimes he did not see where his duty lay.

Correspondence.

THE BURNING QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is evident that the currency is to absorb public attention for some time to come. The papers are full of interviews with bankers and men of business, and the same tone is common to all—that business will revive when the currency question is settled, and hardly before. There is a widespread feeling, at once of shame and anxiety, at the effect of our childish helplessness not only at home, but upon our reputation and financial standing abroad. This feeling finds expression in astonishment and indignation that Congress does not come to some agreement upon a broad basis of public interest.

That which is not understood, and which constitutes the danger of the situation, is that Congress is absolutely incompetent to do this. It is only local private and party interests which are represented there. The nation and the public interest are not represented at all. The House is made up of men selected from 356 equal fractions of the country, the Senate of 88 men from 44 separate States. The first object of every one of them is to see that his district or his State—that is, the most powerful private interests in them—get their full share of whatever is going. No one of them, and nobody else, has any authority or any responsibility to provide for the welfare of the great mass of the nation. The men are not to be blamed for this. They are and do just what the situation calls for, and no government in the world, under the same conditions, could do any differently.

Of all the functions of government there is perhaps none which more deeply involves the moral, social, and physical welfare of a people than the provision of a sound and stable currency. It ought to be settled upon scientific principles with no reference at all to private interests, and the experience of the world in the last century has done much to establish such principles. We leave them entirely out of sight, and hand over the subject to a conflict of private interests. To reverse this, it is necessary that one man and one scheme should be heard and fully considered at a time, and that exclusively from a national point of view. There is but one man in the United States who can meet these requirements, and that man is the Secretary of the Treasury for the time being.

The simplest and most pressing need of the moment is a resolution of Congress declaring positively that the obligations of the United States will be met in gold, and that when the word coin occurs it shall mean gold coin. Why is this not done? Because the interest of party stands before that of the nation, because both parties stand in terror of noisy minorities through the country, and because men of the type of Gorman and Hill, Quay and Wanamaker, Stewart and Bland, can by threats, cajoling, and bribery, direct or indirect, hold back a timid majority from a direct committal. If the Secretary of the Treasury stood by the Speaker's chair, one or half-a-dozen independent members could force him to take a definite stand on behalf of the Government on one side or the other, and the great body of members would be compelled to register their votes for or against him. Can it be possible that any Secretary would propose, or any party majority would vote, a direct negative on such a question? If so, the country had better find it out at the earliest moment.

Meantime there is a perfect tempest of discordant views and opinions pouring over the country like a flood. Nobody who fancies that he knows anything upon the subject will listen to anybody else, and there is no means of distinguishing those who know much from those who know nothing; while the great mass who do not pretend to know anything and are anxious to learn are stunned and dazed by the clatter about their ears.

It may take a great deal of tribulation and disaster yet to teach the lesson, but sooner or later it will be found that the only path out of this Slough of Despond lies in giving a public initiative to the Secretary of the Treasury *ex officio*.

G. B.

Boston, January 12, 1895.

THE TENURE OF POSTMASTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I saw with great satisfaction the introduction of the bill by the chairman of the Committee on the Reform of the Civil Service, to take postmasters out of politics by making their official tenure one of good behavior—though, I suppose, with a shorter method for determining the end of good behavior than an impeachment before the Senate. I have also seen the remarks of the Hartford *Courant* as reproduced by you, and your answer.

I think, on constitutional grounds, that both the *Courant* and the *Nation* are in error. Congress has the fullest power to prescribe by law the tenure of office for those who may be appointed hereafter; but it has not the constitutional power to strengthen the tenure or to extend the term of any man already appointed. To do so would be equivalent to reappointing him for an additional term. To say by an act of Congress that Mr. Dayton shall keep the New York Post-office after his term expires in 1897, or after the next Republican President's pleasure in him comes to an end, would be such a clear usurpation in the two houses of Congress, who might pass a bill of that sort by a two-thirds vote over the President's veto, that everybody would denounce the attempt as a nullity. For the Constitution has not conferred the power to appoint postmasters on either one or both houses of Congress. An act which should do the same thing, not for Mr. Dayton alone, but for all postmasters, would not on that account be any less unconstitutional.

That all the great constitutional lawyers on the Democratic side did not see this point when the tenure-of-office law in Johnson's days

was passed and vetoed and repassed—that Mr. Evarts and the other defenders of Johnson on the trial of the impeachment did not stumble on it—has nothing to do with the business. The point was to me just as clear in 1868 as it is now; and it needs but to be stated to a lawyer to find a ready assent. The Court of Appeals of Kentucky has passed on it fully in Clark vs. Rogers, 81 Ky. Reports, p. 43.

It follows that only those postmasters would be "tied in" who are appointed after the passage of Mr. De Forest's bill. After the 4th of March the Senate will be Republican, and it will not consent to the appointment of postmasters except where vacancies arise by expiration of term, death, or resignation; and when a Republican President comes in, two years hence, he will have his hands free.

Respectfully, L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, KY., January 6, 1895.

TAXPAYERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many friends of good government in the East are probably not aware of the effectual efforts being made by the several taxpayers' associations to promote honesty and efficiency in the administration of remote forest towns and counties of the Northwest. The owners of the lands that are unjustly taxed are not philanthropists, but simply professional and business men and capitalists, often non-resident, who cannot longer afford to be robbed by petty local political bosses and machines for their personal ends.

One of these associations, to which I belong, has advised its members to refuse to pay over 40 per cent. of their taxes on lands located in some twenty townships, scattered through six counties in one State. In the case (an extreme one) of one county, their printed circular advises: "Reject everything in this county—State, county, town, highway, school, and all other taxes in every township and city in the county." My attorney writes:

"It is the policy of this association not to fight taxes merely on pure technical defects, but only in case of excessive and unjust taxation, and in such cases to use any technical defect that could be found. Every year the township treasurers seem to be chosen from a more ignorant class of people."

Every year, too, more and more tax is contested in the courts, and the association generally wins. The inevitable result will be that the inhabitants of this region will find it *will pay* to elect intelligent men of character to office instead of the ignorant and dishonest, just as New York city has found out. All this points towards the one certain cure for bad government. When men of property find that they can save more money by working for good government than they can make by following ordinary business, they will become practical, efficient reformers, working through some form of good-government organization, spending their money and time, just as myself and friends are now doing; some of us not having found so useful a field (save in independent voting) before. T. B. B.

BAINBRIDGE, GA., January 8, 1895.

THE CYCLOPÆDIA OF CHRISTIAN BIOGRAPHY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A few days ago we received a letter from one of the Anglican bishops in the United States, enclosing a circular which had been sent to him, and which contained an announcement of a 'Cyclopædia of Christian Biography, etc., etc., edited by William Smith, D.C.L., and Henry Wace, D.D.,' and asking if this work was issued with our consent.

If it were not so issued, the bishop assured us that he, in common with some other Americans, would perfer to have nothing to do with it. At the same time he suggested some communication of the facts of the case to you, sir, who took a leading part in setting before the public the true story of the American edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.'

I am not personally acquainted with the bishop, but I deeply appreciate his kind and courteous consideration of our interests, and propose to adopt his advice by laying the case before you.

The 'Cyclopædia [or, as we call it, the Dictionary] of Christian Biography' is, as I dare say you are aware, one of the great series of dictionaries originated and carried out by the late Sir William Smith and my father. It covered a field up to that time unoccupied, and was written by some of the leading scholars of the day. After ten years of preliminary labor, the first volume was published in 1876; the fourth and concluding volume appeared in 1887.

It is needless to add that the work was a very costly one to produce (having cost us £16,000), and one, moreover, for which we could only anticipate a very slow sale. At the present moment we are some £3,000 or £4,000 out of pocket by the undertaking.

Since its first appearance the work has been brought out in the States by Messrs. Little & Brown in conjunction with ourselves.

In December, 1891, Messrs. Little & Brown communicated to us a proposal, which had been made to them by "the publishers of a religious magazine," that we should supply to those publishers (whose name was not at the time communicated to us) a special edition of our work; "but," added Messrs. Little & Brown, "the price would have to be very low; it is quite possible, therefore, that it may not be in your power to entertain" the proposal. Sir William Smith was then alive, and after consultation with him, and careful calculation, we found that it literally was not in our power to comply with this proposal on the terms suggested, and we accordingly declined it, preferring to continue our association with Messrs. Little & Brown.

In March, 1894, Dr. Wace received a letter from a Mr. Dagley, writing on behalf of the Christian Literature Company, New York, announcing that a new edition of the 'Dictionary of Christian Biography' was about to appear, asking him to undertake something "in the nature of a revision which would not require more than a few months," and pointing out that such a new edition "would not operate to 'his' disadvantage, and in fact we believe we could make it a source of quite some revenue to you," etc. Dr. Wace, I need hardly add, promptly informed us of this offer, and as promptly declined to have anything to do with it.

The Christian Literature Company write that "the original edition has been on the market long enough, so that the sale of it here is practically completed." At the same time in their prospectus they pay us the compliment of alluding to "this monumental work, without a rival, and indispensable to every historical student."

Now, sir, I am perfectly well aware that we have no claim for redress in this matter; indeed, some thanks may be due to the undertakers of this enterprise for having consulted us at all (for I understand that the original application to us and the present prospectus practically emanate from the same quarter) where they were free to appropriate all the fruits of our labor and outlay; but I am encouraged by the kind words of the bishop to lay the facts before you in case you may consider them worthy of publication, for public opinion is the only tribunal to which we can appeal. I blame no individuals; I only mention the foregoing facts as one out of many examples of the hardships incurred under the existing state of our international-copyright relations.

JOHN MURRAY.

LONDON, January 4, 1895.

THE *SPECTATOR* ON THINGS AMERICAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Let me call attention to two delicious bits from the London *Spectator* of December 29, 1894. (The italics are mine.)

In the first editorial article: "The Chinese Government still talks of negotiation, and has taken the very odd step of asking the American President to send them a statesman to advise the ambassador they are sending to Tokio. *Mr. Cleveland has accordingly selected a Mr. Foster.*"

Again, a very eulogistic review of Mr. Scudder's 'Childhood in Art and Literature' ends thus:

We will conclude with a specimen of the humour which Americans *can put into their gravest state documents:*

"The sixteenth amendment to the Constitution reads: 'The rights and caprices of children in the United States shall not be denied or abridged on account of age, sex, or formal condition of tutelage,' and this amendment has been recognized in literature, as in life, while waiting its legal adoption."

Save me from my friends, may Mr. Scudder say.

The same criticism quotes Dr. Johnson as saying of Goldsmith, "Nihil tetigit quod non ornavit"—which he didn't.

WILLIAM EVERETT.

WASHINGTON, D. C., January 8, 1895.

THE NEED OF A NEW REVIEW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Kindly grant me the space for a few words upon a subject often discussed in private, but not, so far as I know, in your columns. Earnest men who can recall the *Princeton* and old *North American* have not ceased to regret the death of the former, and the worse fate that has befallen its scholarly rival. The *Yale Review* is pretty rigidly limited to the results of original research in history and economics. Nearly the same is true of the other specialists' organs. There is no one of the great monthlies which has for its main purpose any higher result than the diversion of its popular audience of, say, from fifty thousand to half a million readers. The *Forum*, indeed, apparently gives perfect freedom of utterance to the most competent and fearless voice available; but its limitations as to space are imperative, it usually touches only topics already in general debate, and its contributions are nearly all "requested" by the editor.

There are, without doubt, a large number of papers, by competent and even graceful hands, lying in academic or other desks at this moment, which ought to be available for a thousand colleagues, and for ten thousand or more

advanced—or at least mature and earnest—students, scattered throughout the country. There is a healthful reaction setting in here, and quite as much in Germany itself, against excessively narrow special research, and particularly against the delivery of its results in undigested and uncorrelated form. More and more it is recognized that the specialist has not justified even his research adequately until he has stated his chief discoveries in terms intelligible to a wide audience, and, above all, has made clear how his report modifies the mass of seemingly settled and generally accepted truth.

The periodical many of us have vaguely in mind would cover, in a sense, the whole wide field of history and literature, with open paths toward ethics, sociology, and at least some applications of many sciences. There is a widespread and growing feeling of the essential unity, the *commune vinculum*, among such studies. Are not the times ripe for a publication which would stand, not for the theoretical discussion of any such educational harmony, but, perhaps, for its concrete illustration?

There was a rumor, seemingly baseless, "a year and more agone," that the stalwart young university in Chicago contemplated such a publication. Should it not rather be upheld by a large editorial committee representing all the leading centres of the highest education? Such names as C. E. Norton, N. S. Shaler, John Fiske naturally occur to a Harvard man in such a connection, but every Sparta has no doubt equally worthy sons. Certainly the application of the best results drawn from studies in history, literature, and elsewhere, to the obsolescent art of simple living and high thinking is not an unworthy nor dilettanteish ideal for a university publication. The motto might be taken from Emerson: "How to give all access to the masterpieces of art and literature, is the problem of civilization."

I am, very cordially yours,

WILLIAM CRANSTON LAWTON.

PHILADELPHIA, January 7, 1895.

THE INTERNATIONAL POSTAGE-STAMP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondents who are urging an international postage-stamp seem to have made no provision for the difference in exchange between different countries; so that if such a stamp were issued, it would be sold by that State which used the most debased currency.

For example, if I were to mail a letter from El Paso to England, it would cost 5c. United States currency, while in C. Juarez, on the other side of the river, I could nearly buy two 5c. stamps with my 5c. of American money. Americans would also find it to their advantage to buy their stamps in England on a basis of $4.80=£1, since the 2½d. stamp is used as equivalent to the American 5c.

Yours respectfully, SINESTAMPS.

SAN FRANCISCO, CAL., January 8, 1895.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of the book, 'A Run through Russia,' of August 23, 1894, I desire to call your attention to two mistakes. Your reviewer says: "On page 87 he ranks John the Baptist, Tolstoi, George Fox, William Penn, and Christ as equal gods." What is said is as follows: "Count Leo Tolstoi shows the power once more in the world's history of the principle of renunciation, as Buddha showed it in India, and the divine founder of Christianity showed it in Galilee"—which is a very different statement from that of the reviewer.

Again, your critic says: "They shared in the afternoon tea of a court lady's reception, evidently mistaking it for a lunch given for them, since it was so stated." As a matter of fact it was no afternoon tea at all, but a special lunch for the two visitors, to which they were invited by letter—with no other guests present, as can be verified by the rest of the party.

Other matters of lesser import are passed over, in the hope that you will do me the justice to correct these statements, which are calculated to injure the writer in the eye of the public.—Very respectfully yours,

WM. WILBERFORCE NEWTON.

[Though Dr. Newton trims his quotation at the beginning and at the end so as to leave out John the Baptist, George Fox, and William Penn, we think our phraseology was too loose in this instance, and open to objection.

As regards the other matter, we had to depend entirely upon what we found in his book. On p. 37 he states that he and his friend called upon Countess K. "on a Friday evening," and received "a delightful cup of tea from the smoking samovar."

"Upon inquiring when we could best see Countess Tolstoi, our hostess remarked to Madame Novikoff, 'Let me see; the Emperor came up from Gatchina the day before yesterday—well, there will be lunch at one o'clock to-morrow—but by three you will find the Countess disengaged.' . . . We failed to receive an invitation to meet the Czar. . . . On the following day we paid our respects to the Countess Tolstoi at the Winter Palace. . . . The ubiquitous samovar upon the table furnished us our indispensable cup of tea. . . . Another elegance in blue daisies and white stockings, similar to the gentleman already described at the Marble Palace, served us at lunch."

No Russian eats luncheon at three o'clock P. M., the hour at which Dr. Newton tells us, in effect, that he called on Countess Tolstoi. They lunch between eleven A. M. and one P. M., and do not use the samovar for that meal. If the Countess Tolstoi had been present at the Emperor's luncheon, as Countess K. had intimated on the preceding evening that she would be, it is plain that Dr. Newton mistook afternoon tea for luncheon. We now for the first time hear of a letter of invitation from Countess Tolstoi, which was hardly suggested by the phrase "paid our respects." The hour is still unnamed. —ED. NATION.]

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & CO.'s January announcements include 'A History of the Novel previous to the Nineteenth Century,' by Prof. F. M. Warren of Adelbert College; Nevinson's 'Slum Stories of London (Neighbors of Ours)'; a translation of Kalidasa's 'Sakuntala,' by Prof. A. H. Edgren of the University of Nebraska; 'Deutsche Gedichte,' an inexpensive collection of German poems, edited by Dr. Camillo von Klenze of Chicago University; and 'Classic French Letters,' edited by Prof. E. L. Walter of the University of Michigan.

Macmillan & Co. have in preparation a volume on Aristotle's 'Theory of Poetry and Fine Art,' by Prof. Butcher of Edinburgh.

'Philosophy of the Mind,' by Prof. George T. Ladd; 'Reminiscences,' by George Augustus Sala; and a revised edition of the late Prof. Austin Phelps's 'English Style in Public Discourse' are just leaving the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

D. C. Heath & Co. will publish 'The School Poetry Book,' by James H. Penniman, edited with a kind of logical arrangement and for the encouragement of memorizing.

Mrs. Annie Besant's Autobiography is to be published in this country by Henry Altemus, Philadelphia.

Another volume of the *Bookworm*, "an illustrated treasury of old-time literature," comes to us from A. C. Armstrong & Son. It is hard to describe the contents of this undated periodical, in which one may look to stumble upon anything pertaining to literature, as, in the present instance, a list of books ordered of an English firm, in 1771, by the Chevalier d'Éon, a recent black-letter find dissected from an old binding, a discussion of the identity of Junius, etc.

Four more charming little volumes of the "Temple Shakspere" (Dent-Macmillan) have come to hand, viz., "All's Well that Ends Well," "Twelfth Night," "King John," and "A Winter's Tale." They will, like their predecessors, quickly find their way into the pocket.

Munson's Phonographic Dictionary, in which the various strokes are indicated by Roman letters, is now a work of relatively long standing. It is, of course, adapted to the author's system. We have just received from the Phonographic Institute Co. of Cincinnati Part I. (A—Breathlessly) of 'The Phonographic Dictionary and Phrase-book,' conforming to the so-called "American system of shorthand." The compilers are Benn Pitman and Jerome B. Howard. Here we have the phonetic outlines themselves clearly delineated over against the corresponding words. This is ingeniously effected by making groups of three words, thus securing the necessary depth for the outlines, which, by the way, are fully vocalized; and position is indicated when necessary. The typographic difficulties of a work like this seem to us to have been remarkably well overcome, and the dictionary cannot fail to give a great impetus to the study of shorthand.

A tradition, probably dating back to the days of "Left-legged" Jacob Tonson, and still surviving as a time-honored joke, even in the pages of Thackeray and Rider Haggard, represents the publisher as the natural enemy of the author, the parasite created and equipped especially to batten on his brains. Nowadays better conditions prevail: the publisher is usually a man of culture and refinement; sometimes a scholar; occasionally an author. Such a publisher was Mr. Fields, who honored himself and his calling by the justice and generosity of his dealings with literary men, and who was the personal friend of many of the best writers of his day. These friendships he perpetuated in a most interesting collection of annotated books, autographs, portraits, and other relics dear to the book-lover; and these Mrs. Fields has taken for the groundwork of a group of pleasant papers, full of anecdotes and personal recollections of the literary men of the last generation, and copiously illustrated ('A Shelf of Old Books,' Scribners). The bibliophile who, opening it at random, lights on a facsimile letter from Lamb, De Quincey, or Hunt, will find it no easy book to lay down.

About a third of the volume is devoted to Leigh Hunt, to whom both Mr. and Mrs. Fields seem to have been peculiarly attracted; and it is clear that, with all the foibles of the man, some of which were irritating enough, he possessed a singular power of fascination. Around Hunt are grouped anecdotes of Keats, Shelley, Severn, and others of that circle. The chapter on Edinburgh introduces us to Scott, De Quincey, Wilson, Dr. John Brown, the brothers Chambers, and other men of note; and the last chapter, "From Milton to Thackeray," is an entertaining *olla podrida* of literary anecdotes agreeably told.

The character of the papers which make up Sir Edward Strachey's 'Talk at a Country House' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) presupposes more leisure and less critical shrewdness than the reader of the day is in general possessed of. Their appearance from time to time in the *Atlantic* has already made familiar the model of conversational complaisance they offer, through a form of dialogue in which each participant is always of one mind with the other, and exhibits exemplary patience at the other's quotations of poetry. Most of the opinions expressed are such as our fathers have declared unto us in the old time as safe and blameless to hold, and the volume is one which may without reserve be recommended to any whom time ambles withal, and who have a fancy for seeing turned over the liberal stores of a mind that includes a knowledge of Persian Poetry and Arrow-headed Inscriptions, together with views on Love and Marriage, a General Election, and Maurice and Tennyson, and which raises no question that is not easily laid in the pleasant setting of a Somersetshire manor house.

'Notes on Tobogganing,' by Theodore Andrea Cook (Scribners), will be found very interesting by American visitors to St. Moritz who indulge in that exhilarating amusement. The illustrations, from instantaneous photographs, are excellent, and give a most accurate idea of the difficulties that beset the bold rider whose ambition prompts him to try for a "record" on the celebrated Cresta run. Mr. Cook has followed the local custom in calling the sport tobogganing, though this is, in fact, a misnomer. It is true "coasting," which differs from tobogganing firstly in that it calls for the use of a sled with steel runners and quite unlike the Canadian toboggan, and secondly in that it is performed on a crooked run, and therefore necessitates much skill in the matter of steering. Mr. Cook is evidently of the opinion that the sport as developed at St. Moritz is a new discovery; but the boys of any village in the hilly part of New England could demonstrate the fallacy of this notion.

It is always a pleasure to come upon a book bearing the name of so penetrating and so impartial a critic as M Émile Faguet. As editor-in-chief of the "Classiques populaires," published by Lecène, Oudin & Cie., he has shown admirable judgment in the selection both of the classical authors and of the writers intrusted with the task of presenting them anew to the public in a popular form. One of the early issues, the volume on La Fontaine, was from his pen, and, it must be confessed, not up to his usual high standard. He was evidently trying to write in genuine popular fashion, and he is altogether too earnest for that sort of work. His new volume, 'Voltaire,' is in his real manner, and infinitely more "popular," in the best sense of the word, than the other. It is a study of the great eighteenth-century writer which one reads with unflagging interest. Well constructed, well written, plentifully illustrated by well-selected and not always hackneyed extracts from the matchless prose and easy verse of Voltaire, the book is at once a valuable addition to Voltairian literature and a capital number of the deservedly popular collection to which it belongs.

For the same series M. Léo Claretie, whose exhaustive work on the origins of Lesage's 'Gil Blas' is well known, has written an excellent volume on Lesage. In it he speaks not of the great novel alone, but of the varied and powerful dramatic work which includes "Turcaret" and the brilliant "Théâtre de la foire," and of the other novels of Lesage, such as 'Le Diable boiteux,' 'Guzman,' and 'Le Bachelier de Salamanque.' The analyses of the different works are fully illustrated by copious and well-selected extracts, so that a good and comprehensive view of the writer's productions is had, with a clear summing up of Lesage's qualities and defects, the share he took in the evolution of the novel, and the place he occupies in French literature. Within its limits the book is one of the very best yet written about Lesage.

Still another contributor is M. Paul Morillot, who has had the good fortune to speak of André Chénier in moderate and impartial fashion. André Chénier is usually, nowadays, regarded as the representative, at one and the same time, of the purest art of antiquity and of the coming Romantic School. M. Morillot does not favor this view, and applies himself with marked success to the destruction of the legendary Chénier, whom he seeks to replace by a truer representation of the man drawn from a critical study of his works. Haraszti's book, which deservedly attracted much attention on its publication, was an effort in this direction, and M. Morillot has benefited by the labors of the Hungarian critic. His own examination of the poet's work, his independent and fearless judgment of it, make his book a valuable contribution to the knowledge of the real Chénier.

We take leave for the moment of the "Classiques populaires" by mentioning the 'Alfred de Musset' of M. A. Claveau, and the 'Béranger' of M. C. Causeret. The former is decidedly the fuller and better biography, being a good account of Musset's life and work, with analyses of his principal poems, plays, and tales. The secret of Musset's charm and his real position towards the Romantic school are brought out with sufficient distinctness, and the essential difference in the quality and inspiration of his verse before and after Venice is successfully shown. M. Causeret has displayed no less patience and energy in endeavoring to interest the present generation in Béranger, but he cannot be said to score a success. M. Francisque Sarcey hit off the only true way to resuscitate the song-writer, and that is to sing his songs, not to read them or talk about them. What survives of Béranger is very little indeed, and the most valiant efforts of his admirers must fail to give him a high place among poets. Songs that need a long commentary and a tedious historico-political introduction for their comprehension will sooner or later be neglected save by the antiquarian.

Within the last few years we have noticed two handbooks for the study of Dante by Dr. G. A. Scartazzini, the well-known editor of the "Divine Comedy"—his 'Prolegomeni' (1890) and his 'Dante-Handbuch' (1892), the latter of which has been translated into English by Mr. A. F. Butler, under the title of 'A Companion to Dante' (1893). The indefatigable compiler has now turned his attention to his much earlier work of the same character, the little two-volume 'Dante' in the Hoepli series of popular manuals (1883), translated into English by Dr. Thomas Davidson in 1887. This manual Dr. Scartazzini has thoroughly revised, increasing the matter by a third, and has published under the new title of 'Dantologia: Vita ed Opere di Dante Alighieri' (Milan: Hoepli). The contents are not greatly different from those of the preceding books, but the treatment is more concise, the make-up of the little volume excellent, and the matter, especially the bibliographies, well up to date.

The Boston Public Library has put forth a remarkable 'Catalogue of the Books relating to Architecture, Construction and Decoration' on its shelves November 1, 1894. Its value will appear from a mere examination of the contents: Bibliography, Biography, Dictionaries, History and Theory, Periodicals, Periods and Styles, Architecture of Countries (geographically ordered), Illustrations of Architecture (as amphitheatres, asylums, fountains, prisons, railroad stations, schools, etc.), Architectural Details (limited to four topics), Technical Details (including drawing, construction, and decoration in its several branches), Handbooks (including estimates, formulæ, and specifications), Building Laws (with contracts, etc.). These classes are followed by indexes (1) of authors, (2) of places and subjects. The building fraternity and the public owe this intelligent labor to a woman.

The first number of the new series of *Science* contains a double introduction, by Prof. Newcomb and by President Gilman, setting forth the aims of the paper under its changed management. Prof. Brinton contributes his address as president of the American Association, and Dr. Goode, director of the United States National Museum, his address as president of the Washington Philosophical Society. There are more technical articles by Major Powell on modern aspects of ethnology and anthropology; by President Mendenhall of the Worcester Polytechnic Institute on the action taken by the electricians of the world recently assembled at Chicago in defining electrical units, and by Congress in legalizing these; and by Dr. C. Hart Merriam and Prof. Scudder, the first editor of *Science*, on zoölogical subjects. The book reviews are signed by Profs. Woodward, Packer, Conn, Brinton, and Britton, and the number ends with notes and news of societies, journals, and books. The print is open, but this cannot long be the case if the paper prospers, as we must hope. The strength of the "editorial committee" is its weakness, as every journalist knows; and this body should in time yield to a single control. Not a member of it can expect candid criticism of his own work in signed reviews in his own paper. The responsible editor is Prof. J. McKeen Cattell, Garrison-on-Hudson, N. Y. The publisher's address is 41 East Forty-ninth Street, New York.

The latest number of the *National Geographic Magazine* has an interesting note, by Prof. I. C. Russell of the University of Michigan, concerning the altitude of Mt. St. Elias, towards whose summit he has made a nearer approach than any other man. The peak is capped with a sharp pyramid of snow, built by the winds and of variable height with storms, seasons, and years. The depth of the snow is estimated at not less than 200 feet, and possibly as much as 300 or 400 feet. The height of the summit may therefore be expected to vary by a decidedly greater amount than the error of its measurement by good trigonometrical work. The same number of

the magazine announces that a gold medal is offered by the National Geographic Society for the best essay, not exceeding two thousand words, on the River Systems of the United States, written under certain conditions by scholars in our public schools and submitted to the Society not later than July 15, 1895. Full details of the competition may be obtained on addressing the secretary of the Society in Washington. A new series of monographs is also planned on the physical features of the United States, to be prepared by various expert authors, expressed in untechnical language, well illustrated, and addressed to the teachers of our public schools. If successfully carried out, this project bids fair to exercise an important influence on the teaching of geography in our country.

A succinct and clear presentation of the architectural development of the Greek stage, according to the "neue Lehre," is given by Dörpfeld in the *Berliner Philologische Wochenschrift* for December 22, 1894, reviewing two essays on the Greek Theatre by K. Dumont, published as the first volume of a series of "Études d'art grec" (Paris: E. Leroux). Dörpfeld disposes of Dumont with the impact of a trip-hammer, retracts his former opinion that *Theologeion* should be substituted for *Logeion* in Vitruvius, since a Delian inscription discovered by the French has shown that Vitruvius's use of the word is correct, and proceeds to point out the small but pregnant error of the Vitruvian account. Dörpfeld's long-promised work on the Theatre of Dionysos in Athens he hopes to bring out this winter. All students of the Greek theatre and drama will welcome its appearance.

The *Débats* of December 23, 1894, notes the fact that a crisis has overtaken wood-engraving in France like that which the art has been passing through here. "Process" (*procédés originaux*) is at the bottom of the trouble there as here, but the French engravers complain also of excessive augmentation of their ranks from the schools and ateliers and from foreign countries. It is estimated that one-fifth of the 500 engravers in Paris are non-French. Hence a movement of "protection" for the craft by limiting the number of apprentices and excluding foreigners altogether from instruction.

Among the Hans Sachs literature of the past year is a portfolio of facsimiles of prints of old Nuremberg, with particular reference to the three R's of that famous city—"Rathaus, Regiment, und Rat" (Nürnberg: Heerdegen-Barbeck; New York: Westermann). The fourteen plates are described in eight pages of letterpress. The Rathaus is shown in a great variety of views, external and internal, in connection with ceremonies and public rejoicings, as over the peace of 1649, when the multitude caught in their hats the streams of wine issuing from the Swedish lion in one of the win dows. The peace congress itself is pictured, with a key to the personages. The "Regiment" is reflected in the torture-chamber, in public punishments, and in the carting of adulterated wine to the ill-smelling Pegnitz. A series of patrician portraits closes this very curious collection.

A chapter might be written on the success of the late Rev. Dr. John Lord as a lecturer on history, but we content ourselves here with notifying his numerous auditors and admirers all over the country that Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, has admitted him to his "Imperial panel" portrait gallery.

A correspondent calls our attention to an obvious slip in our issue of January 3, whereby the Episcopal Church was credited with holding to three sacraments, instead of two.

—A well-printed pamphlet of twenty-six pages has been published "for the history classes of the Providence High School," which is worthy of wider circulation. The most elaborated list of historical novels, dramas, etc., ever made is that of the Boston Public Library, which for two years has been publishing serially. But this contains so much matter (titles in foreign languages of long-forgotten plays, etc.) which is of interest only to the advanced student of literature that it is unusable by the general reader. The Providence list is arranged chronologically under countries, and, though not free from errors, can be commended as the best known to us for common use. We note that while the unfamiliar "C. M. Mundt" is substituted in the author-list for the familiar Luise Mühlbach, "G. Samarow" is printed instead of the author's real name, Oskar Meding. The "Miss Lynn," author of 'Amymone,' is known to this generation as Eliza (Lynn) Linton. Curiously enough, we find mentioned no book relating to Italian history between the seventh and the fourteenth centuries, the period of Frederic Barbarossa and of Guelph and Ghibelline. From the absence of books relating to the history of the United States and Canada we infer that American history is not studied at the Providence High School. The misprints are so numerous as to lead one to doubt whether the proof was read at all.

—In this connection we may mention Mr. George Saintsbury's three articles on Historical Novels in *Macmillan's* for August, September, and October. Mr. Saintsbury's views are more remarkable for the reflection of what we suppose is the common British opinion than for that critical insight which enables us to see things in a new light—to get new pleasure from increased vividness of perception; but they do not, we think, always coincide with the best critical opinion. To all intents and purposes the historical novel, he says, was invented by Scott, since, previous to the appearance of 'Waverley,' though novels dealing with persons and events of the past were not unknown, their history and archæology were conventional, while their fiction was generally unreadable. Next to Scott, Dumas is the most important worker in this field, and after him, each for two novels, Thackeray and Charles Kingsley. It is not, however, 'Hypatia' (which most people would hold to be Kingsley's most successful effort) but 'Westward Ho!' which is held up for admiration. 'Romola,' which one would expect to find in any list of great novels, is barely mentioned, 'The Cloister and the Hearth' is not named at all, and even 'The Scarlet Letter' is ignored, though it fulfils the first (and most rarely realized) condition of good work in this department—that of reproducing not the "own words" of some historic character, but the very atmosphere of the time described. Our British critic, indeed, with the natural preference for mediocre works of home production to the best articles of foreign make, fails even to name two great triumphs of German authors—works which number their native readers by the million, and are widely known in English translations—Hauff's 'Lichtenstein' and Scheffel's 'Ekkehard.' He evidently prefers, since he mentions having read the greater part, if not all, of their works, such masters as G. P. R. James and W. H. Ainsworth; even Marryat and Lever are discussed at some length—to the exclusion of all Americans except Cooper. Yet, besides Hawthorne, at least five American novelists of this class have been widely read in other countries—Judge Thompson, the author of 'The Green Mountain Boys'; J. H. Ingraham, whose tasteless fictions have been read by as many thousands of orthodox people as, in our time, it has been the good fortune of Gen. Wallace to attract; and the author of 'Zenobia' and 'Julian.' We have no means of knowing whether Mr. Saintsbury fails to mention these because he never heard of them, or because, with the exception of the first-named, their books fall under what he calls "the curious curse which seems to rest on the classical novel."

—The late Prof. Ramsay's 'Manual of Roman Antiquities,' now in its fifteenth edition (New York: Scribners), is as welcome as ever, although in execution its present form is strangely uneven. The first chapter, on the topography of Rome, has been all but rewritten by Prof. Lanciani, and it is illustrated with several new plates and with two new plans, one of the city (signed by Lanciani himself) and the other of the Forum. It would be difficult to find anywhere a more succinct and at the same time accurate treatment of this topic. Lanciani, moreover, is here not merely repeating what he has said before; he has carefully revised some of the views which he put forth too hastily in former works—as, for example, his earlier theory about the origin of the Monte Testaccio. But the remaining fourteen chapters have not undergone the same careful overhauling. They are reprinted as they stood before, and apparently by some "process," so that the type differs in an ugly way from that used in the first chapter. The editor, Dr. T. E. Charles, seems to imagine that the progress in the study of Roman antiquities has not been such as to call for a thorough revision of the body of the book, and he has therefore contented himself with printing at the end of each chapter a list of references to the most recent authorities on the subjects treated therein. This list forms, indeed, a handy bibliography; but, citing only foreign works, as it does almost entirely, it will hardly be of much practical use to the sort of students for whom the book is primarily intended. To these, then, all but the first chapter remains what it was; but even so, and in spite of numerous errors, the book will continue to perform its task fairly well. In political and legal antiquities it still remains almost the only English book in its field; but in the department of private life there are far better works to be had. We can say nothing in praise of the illustrations. Execution (in general poor enough) apart, and aside from the fact that the sources are rarely given, it is pretty hard on Lanciani that the list of illustrations should make him seem to give the name "Temple of Vesta" to the round temple of Mater Matuta; and we had hoped that we had seen the last of the decrepit old imposition called a "wall-painting from the baths of Titus."

—The intellectual world generally, not less than scientists, will be interested in the elaborate memoir of Dr. Eugene Dubois, of the Dutch East Indian army, on the remains of a preëminently hominine anthropoid which were recently discovered in the Post-Pliocene (or late Pliocene?) deposits of the island of Java. If the premises in the case have been well taken—and there is no special reason to doubt that they were—then seemingly in this discove-

ry we have the actual substance of the "missing link" itself. The remains in question consist of the roof of the skull, the femur, and a molar tooth of a mammalian which was of approximately the size of man, but whose affinities were largely with the apes, as is proved by the general cranial conformation and by certain simian characteristics of the thigh-bone. On the other hand, the cranial arch is surprisingly pronounced, falling almost half-way between that of the chimpanzee and that of man, while the cranial capacity actually approaches the "physiological minimum" in man, and is double that of the gorilla! The thigh-bone is in form and dimensions the absolute analogue of that of man, and, in the opinion of the author, gives unmistakable evidence of having supported an habitually erect body. To this remarkable "manlike transition form" (*menschenähnliche Uebergangsform*) Dr. Dubois gives the name of *Pithecanthropus erectus*, using the generic designation which Prof. Haeckel applied in 1868 to a hypothetical form to be discovered, and which now comes in with special appropriateness. The nearest ally to *Pithecanthropus* appears to have been the large chimpanzoid *Anthropopithecus Sivalensis*, from the Siwalik deposits of India, which, indeed, may be ancestral to this newly discovered form and to the African chimpanzee as well. Dr. Dubois unhesitatingly places the extinct Javan ape as the intermediate form between man and the true anthropoid apes, and the order of development (evolution) which he assumes to have been most likely is: *Prothylobates*, *Anthropopithecus Sivalensis*, *Pithecanthropus erectus*, *Homo sapiens*. This view is largely at variance with that held by some of the American palæontologists, who look to a lemurine ancestry for man.

—The richness of the South African gold-fields seems to have been underestimated even by the optimists. A work has just appeared from the pen of Dr. Karl Futterer, 'Afrika in seiner Bedeutung für die Goldproduktion in Vergangenheit, Gegenwart, und Zukunft' (Berlin: Reimer), which contains some very interesting data regarding the possible gold-production of the Dark Continent. At the present time the gold-mining activity is nearly all concentrated in the region of the Transvaal, whence in 1893 there was obtained a product the valuation of which was placed at upwards of $29,000,000. Barely more than one-thirtieth as much was obtained from all the rest of the continent put together, although at various times the northeast and northwest have yielded heavily in the metal, and, if we are to believe a statement of Diodorus, the Egyptian kings alone mined gold to the amount of $30,000,000. The total African yield up to the present day is roughly estimated to be 1,235,500,000 marks (approximately $300,000,000), of which 400,000,000 were drawn from northeast Africa, 600,000,000 from the northwestern region, and 235,500,000 from the equatorial and southern parts of the continent. Dr. Futterer takes a much more hopeful view of the gold situation than Prof. Suess, and believes that we have an as yet almost untouched resource in Africa. He follows Schmeisser in the opinion that for many years to come the value of the gold output will be largely on the increase, and assumes that from the Witwatersrand gold-fields alone the yield in twenty-five years will be $1,000,000,000; at the end of that time it is conjectured that the mining operations will be conducted at a depth of half a mile. Naturally, no absolute dependence can be placed on such estimates of the possibilities of the gold-bearing conglomerates, but Dr. Futterer properly emphasizes the importance, in placer operations, of ancient (or fossil) as well as modern washes, and how extensive these may be we do not yet know.

THE ORIENT IN FRANCE.

The Deserts of Southern France: An Introduction to the Limestone and Chalk Plateaux of Ancient Aquitaine. By S. Baring-Gould, M.A. Illustrated by S. Hutton and F. D. Bedford. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1894. 2 vols, pp. xxii, 296; xii, 303.

THE world is long in awakening to the fact that there is an Orient in the Occident; that we need not go to Egypt for desolate gorges and ranges, nor to the Ægean for mountains knee-deep in the sea, nor to Tangiers for pointed arches and Moorish patios, nor to Italy for Magna Græcia, nor to Palestine for Tyrian strongholds. Why did the Phœnicians prowl about the northern coast of the western Mediterranean, and the Greeks send colonies thither, and the Saracens invade the interior, but that they found their own country over again? Northern France is a mediæval land, the realm of Charlemagne, and the prey of Rollo the Norman; it is fiercely western and northern. Provence and Languedoc are not even a Latin country, notwithstanding the noble Roman monuments; the scenery, the people, and much of the history are Oriental. Whoever loves the Apennines and the snowy ranges of the Peloponnesus and the olive groves of Corfu, will find himself in all those places of delight when he visits Southern France.

Of the many strange and beautiful regions in this ancient land, none are so little visited or known as those great table-lands, the Causses, which Mr. Baring-Gould stigmatizes as "deserts." The word suggests the "Great American Desert," which disappeared from the geographies thirty years ago and never has been recovered. Languedoc is a desert as Attica is a desert, the great white-caps of mountains rolling up out of green luxuriance. It is a desert as Sicily is a desert: wherever the hot sun plays upon the naked rock there is an Asiatic glare, but where it strikes a watered valley or plain, there lies the full, grateful, and abounding soil of African oases. It is a region not like the gloomy gorges of Roncesvalles further south, where Roland sounded his defiant horn; the uplands have the charm of their own undulation, like a heavy sea turned to stone, and the gorges are walled in by magnificent cliffs so tapestried with trees as to be a forest set on edge. In this land one finds remnants of the successive waves of population which have followed each other since history began. The Greek regularity of feature and stateliness of expression are still to be seen at Agde. In Arles the Roman women still wear that coif which so sets off their superb beauty that it for ever disproves the axiom that women care to dress becomingly; else why does not the world adopt it? At Béziers is the spot where thousands of Albigenses suffered death for devotion to a purer faith than that of their persecuting neighbors. At Aigues-Mortes is that jewel-box of a walled town which St. Louis began. At Montpellier is one of the oldest universities in Europe. At Nîmes the Protestants made head against Louis XIV. At Pont-de-Montvert the Camisards slew the fanatic priest Du Cheyla. The Cévennes is one of the few spots in Europe where the English came into near relations with a strangely mixed Oriental race, and at last gave ground before it. Over this narrow space have marched the Greek, the Saracen, the Frank, the Frenchman, and the Englishman, every one with a hand heavy to strike and hollow to retain. Is it a wonder that the babbling Gascon is so rare a character in this Gascon country? It is a serious people, gay on occasion, but stiff from resistance to half a score of foreign masters, and surging back, after every suppression, into their old beliefs. Perhaps this became the great Protestant centre in France because Greek love of reason and Roman stubbornness survived here—older than the Church and stronger than persecution.

This long digression is after all a criticism, for Baring-Gould's 'Southern France' is a different and more matter-of-fact country, in which the historical emotions are kept carefully in check. He has undertaken "a book of preparation for intending tourists, that they may be able to understand what they see." For this laudable purpose the first necessity is to give the intending tourist some adequate idea of the strange and delightful scenery of the region. No proper impression can be derived either from the two brief chapters on topography, or from the cheap and characterless woodcuts which give so indefinite a notion of the cliffs and caves on which masonry clings as do lichens on boulders. The more effective woodcuts appear to be for the most part borrowed from Martel's 'Cévennes,' and have the usual merits of French popular scientific drawings: they are interesting works of the imagination. Some of the process pictures, especially those of the Cathedral of Rodez, are, however, both beautiful and genuine. The author takes us round about some of the scenic splendors, but he has evidently never been permeated by them. One cannot help wondering with what eyes he saw Montpellier le Vieux, when he describes it as in "a depression of the Causse Noir." The most remarkable thing about that city of the gigantic dead is that it is a high point, a great bastion of the Causse, commanding the country for miles about. The description of the gorge of the Tarn is more lifelike, though it is physically impossible that the Cirques des Baumes can ever have been "a vast cavern, three quarters of a mile in diameter." One wishes also for the proof that the Causses were wooded up to the time of the Revolution; the towns, with few exceptions, have certainly always lain in the gorges.

The first volume is given up chiefly to an account of the people of the country. Here Mr. Baring-Gould, in his zeal for complete preparatory information, irresistibly recalls the delightful discourse of the French pastor at Berne on the murder of Carnot. Parricide, he explained in an elaborate introduction, is wrong; fraticide is wrong, and also regicide and deicide; but he did not distinctly express an opinion on assassination. So Mr. Baring-Gould makes us acquainted with the "reindeer hunters," the "dolmen builders," the "men of iron," and the "rock-dwellers"; but, except for a brief chapter on the Caussenards and two more on Roquefort cheese and truffle-hunters, he hardly reaches the present agreeable inhabitants of the country. Whatever the interest of the tourists for whom the book is written in the Neolithic artist who

> "Sketched delightful mammoths on the borders of his cave,"

they are entitled also to a more detailed and distinct account of the living descendants of the cave dwellers and their invaders.

The second volume is practically historical, and hard to criticise because of the agglutinative character of Mr. Baring-Gould's mind.

Thus, Murat was born on the Causse de Gramat, and thence ran away while still a boy; therefore a long chapter of the 'Deserts of Southern France' is devoted to the career of this Caussenard in Paris, in Egypt, in Spain, in Russia; to his purple pantaloons and yellow boots, to the roasted cats of his kitchen on the retreat from Moscow. Apropos of the remarkable Byzantine churches of Périgeux, we have an essay on the Roman house, but nothing on the domed architecture of the churches of Nant, in the valley of the Dourbie. Notwithstanding a whole chapter devoted to the interesting "bastides," or free towns, the author returns to the same subject in the Murat chapter, and repeats his own language to the extent of nearly a third of a page. The explanation must be the same as that for the repetition of the narrative of King Hezekiah in Kings and Chronicles—that both narratives refer to an unknown original.

Not to recognize the genuine interest in his narrative shown by Mr. Baring-Gould would be ungracious. He has apparently lived much in the country, has explored the caves, inspected the cheeses, made plans of the dolmens, sketched the picturesque ruins, descended into the "avens," read more or less of the books enumerated in his excellent Appendix A, and stayed at the inns briefly described in Appendix C. The chapters on the castles, towns, and churches are full of borrowed historical and archæological lore; but the historical sketches are patchy; they have no continuity; they are not finished pictures of distinct periods or episodes, and the author deliberately omits the most picturesque and characteristic story—that of the Camisard war. He has some of the qualifications for his work, but not that sense of literary order and taste which is indispensable for a good book. He is oppressed by his own learning, multiplies examples which are only names to his reader, and jumbles together observation, legend, archæology, architecture, and history. The Causses deserve a more affectionate treatment, such as that suggested by Stevenson's inimitable 'Travels with a Donkey through the Cévennes.'

If any reader have a mind to test Mr. Baring-Gould's book, let him provide himself with the serviceable Baedeker's 'Southern France,' and the excellent illustrated guide-book, 'Itinéraire Miriam: Les Causses et les Canons du Tarn'—with which, by the way, Mr. Baring-Gould seems unacquainted; let him read Martel's elaborately illustrated 'Les Cévennes' and Miss Betham Edwards's the 'Roof of France'; let him study the detailed maps published by the French Ministry of the Interior (not the État-Général maps), and thereupon let him straightway take the steamer for Havre, or Bordeaux, or Genoa, and hasten to Marjevols, or Mende, or Millau, or Rodez, or Villefort, and thence into the heart of the Cévennes. There he may drive, or ride his bicycle, or float down the Tarn in a flatboat. Even in January the sun must lie warm in the "cirques" of the gorges, where winter resorts are sure to be established in no long time; in summer there is air enough on the Causses; in spring or fall the climate is as delightful as at Corfu. Anybody who can stay in small Italian towns can be comfortable at the hospitable, badly-drained and well-provisioned inns. Inhabitants of deserts are said to be unhappy elsewhere: if one would know the charms of a well-watered and commodious desert, penetrated by diligences and perforated by the telegraph, if one would experience the East without the long journey thither, let him betake himself to the Cévennes.

GLADSTONE'S HORACE, AND OTHERS.

The Odes of Horace. Translated into English by W. E. Gladstone. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894. Pp. xii, 154.

The Odes of Horace. Books I. and II. Done into English verse; with Andromeda, Ariadne, and Jason. By J. Howard Deazeley, M.A., Merton College, Oxford. London: Henry Frowde; New York: Macmillan. 1894. Pp. iv, 91.

The Hawarden Horace. By Charles L. Graves, author of 'The Blarney Ballads,' 'The Green above the Red.' 2d edition. London: Smith, Elder & Co. 1894. Pp. vi, 91.

The Odes and Epodes of Horace. Edited with introduction and notes by Clement Lawrence Smith, Professor of Latin in Harvard University. [College Series of Latin Authors.] Boston: Ginn & Co. 1894. Pp. lxxxvii, 404.

ALL readers of Horace remember the flood of malediction he pours upon a certain tree which nearly killed him by its fall. Ode after ode gives utterance to these bitter feelings. That the woodman of Hawarden, never so happy as in swinging his axe, should, in the fulness of time, appear among the translators of Horace, seems in accordance with the fitness of things. Mr. Gladstone lays down in his preface most judicious rules for a version of Rome's solitary lyrist, beginning with the necessity of compression, a quality which not one of his own original works ever exhibited, and ending with melody, which indeed he has often introduced into his magnificent orations, but a melody constructed in other keys and with other cadences than those of Horace. But when it comes to working out these rules, Mr. Gladstone has failed, as so many brilliant and sensitive minds have failed before him, in recalling even a shadow of the charm which invests every strain of the friend of Virgil and Mæcenas. Compression he has sought to attain by destroying one of the most striking characteristics of English as opposed to Latin: he cuts out articles and particles with an unsparing hand, wherever their troublesome syllables would prolong his verse, till many of his lines read like a telegraphic message, as far removed as possible from the flow which is so marked a quality of Horace. And his own potent charm as an orator has scarcely a note in common with the charm of the hymn to Aphrodite or the odes to Dellius and Postumus. He has given his best energy to reproduce the sense and spirit of the original. He has drawn on the entire English vocabulary to avoid the elaborate circumlocutions of Francis, and he has wisely clung to the classic English metres, instead of straying off into the vagaries of Bulwer. He has, perhaps wisely again, made his metrical forms suit the temper of the odes, rather than use the same English form invariably for the same Latin. He has done a great deal; but the delicacy, the flow, the tone hovering on the borders of jest and earnest, and passing so easily into either as the poet demands; the new richness given to common words, the simplicity which attends the introduction of strange ones—in a word, the charm—is no more attained by Mr. Gladstone than by his many predecessors.

It would be unfair to give specimens of the worst failures—the mistakes in sense, the jolting lines, the uncouth words, the un-English inversions, unfortunate exaggerations of such as are strange even in Latin. Not a few odes are sad travesties of beautiful originals; and what is worst, Horace's best odes suffer most. As a not unfair specimen of the more successful efforts, take the appeal to the gods from *Jam satis terris:*

> Which god shall trembling Rome entreat
> A falling empire's weight to bear?
> How vestals find petition meet
> For ears less open now to prayer?
>
> To whom shall Jove the charge assign
> Our crimes to cancel? Come at last
> With clouds, Apollo, Seer Divine,
> About thy shining shoulders cast.
>
> Or please it thee, fair Venus, come,
> To laugh with Sport and Cupid taught,
> Or Mars, our founder thou; if Rome
> And thine own seed be worth a thought.
>
> Enough of thine insatiate swoop,
> Thy game of shout and burnished helm,
> And the fell rush of Marsian troop
> Their bleeding foes to overwhelm.
>
> Or, gentle Maia's winged son,
> If with an altered form content,
> Deign to be Cæsar's champion,
> Shrined in his earthly tenement.
>
> Long be thy joyous reign in Rome,
> Late the return to heaven be won,
> Nor earlier take thy passage home
> Our manners, foul with sin, to shun.
>
> As father and as prince abide,
> And here thy lofty triumphs gain,
> Nor let the Mede unpunished ride
> While Cæsar lives, and lives to reign.

In the first line, the word *populus*, so significant in Rome, is lost; in the third, Vesta's name is transmuted to an adjective, as, in the third stanza, the adjective *Erycina* becomes Venus. "Cancel" is a poor substitute for *expiandi*. The second line in the stanza to Venus is a mere perversion; the fourth line to Mars is good, but the introduction of the name, and the changed position, sadly weaken the force of *Auctor*. The next stanza is full of non-existent and non-Horatian imagery, and "troop" is exactly wrong for *peditis*. In the next, *ultor* is not "champion." "Shrined in his earthly tenement" is like Pope, or rather Darwin, as an expansion of *in terris*. Then when we come to *intersis populo Quirini*, we are offered "reign in Rome"—exactly what Augustus never dared to do, nor his best friends to propose; and the same blunder occurs in *te duce*. Perhaps *aura* fairly suggests a voyage; but "take thy passage" is painfully suggestive of a ticket office; and "the return to heaven be won" may be very well when Augustus is compared to Pollux or Hercules, but wholly wrong when he is identified with Mercury. Yet the worst of these mistakes might pass if only the air, the tone, or the flow were Horatian. But it is not; and they must stand in their full shadow.

Mr. Deazeley's version of the first two books of Horace can hardly be called more successful than Mr. Gladstone's. The translator has attempted some new forms, or rather new combinations of ancient forms of metre, to represent the Horatian strophes, but with scant success. Like his illustrious senior, he deals havoc, for the sake of compression, among the little words, and strains the English vocabulary, copious as it is, to give something of an equivalent for each Latin word. As far as the music of his line goes, he need not fear a comparison with the veteran. But there is always the terrible doubt which Matthew Arnold raised about Sotheby's and Wright's versions of the 'Iliad'—if there was any reason for their existing. The original poems which make up the rest of his little volume are in very melodious verse. But the inspiration of them hardly springs straight from Homer, or Euripides, or even from Apollonius and Ovid. There is too much Tennyson and Swinburne read into the lines of the ancient Hellenic story. Better let the dreamy second-thought of our century seek no themes to invest with its haze earlier than King Arthur, and leave

Ariadne and Jason to "the pure light of an Ionian sky."

Mr. Graves's very lively 'Hawarden Horace' consists of sixteen burlesque adaptations of as many odes of Horace, in the style of Thackeray's play on "Persicos odi." Their Latin titles all indicate, not obscurely, public or private friends of Mr. Gladstone, and they are supposed to be written by him in the true spirit of Horace's universally contented and moderate Epicureanism, in most amusing contrast to the stately yet often passionate philosophy of the great man of whom they make fun. Mr. Gladstone has not been renowned for seeing the humor of his antagonists; yet his classical sympathies must have kept him from taking offence at the wonderfully pat and melodious absurdities of Mr. Graves's volume. It deserves to be bought and read by every Horatian, who, if he knows anything of English politics in the last ten years, must laugh till he cries over it. We select one of the shortest odes, simply because it is such, a version of "Vile potabis," addressed "Ad Amicum"—in other words, Sir John Acton, who, though a Roman Catholic, was made a peer by Mr. Gladstone:

> Dear Acton, next Wednesday at dinner,
> I cannot but honestly think,
> You'll find that my claret is thinner
> Than that you're accustomed to drink.
> Twelve shillings a dozen it cost me
> That year—I remember it well—
> When Oxford, that loved me yet lost me,
> Created you Hon. D. C. L.
>
> The cheers by your presence excited
> That filled the Sheldonian dome,
> The Vatican vastly delighted,
> And sensibly gratified Rome.
> And so, for the savor historic
> That clings to my modest Bordeaux,
> You'll pardon its want of caloric,
> And vote it the choicest of Clos.

While on the subject of Horace, it seems right to award a word of appreciative notice to the elegant and scholarly edition of the Odes and Epodes by Prof. C. L. Smith, known to all Harvard students for a quarter of a century as a devoted teacher of the poet's works. Mr. Smith derived his appreciation of Horace from the late President Thomas Chase, one of our most thorough and refined scholars, and the pupil's work is worthy of the master's. To some of his variations on the conventional interpretations exception must be taken; especially to that in Od. iii., 30, 2, where, after Kiessling, he makes *situ* mean "decay," and translates "*regali situ pyramidum altius*," "loftier than the royal crumbling of the pyramids," *i. e.*, "loftier than the royal pyramids which will crumble." If he accepts *Marsi* in Od. i, 2, 38, and *vepris* in i., 23, 5, against all the MSS., it seems amazing he should retain the all but impossible *Apulicum* in iii., 24, 4. He hardly appreciates, though stating it, the full force of the argument for rejecting two lines in iv., 8. As was pointed out in our recent review of a life of Cicero, it seems very unnecessary to depart from the practice of the elder historians, and designate the triumvir not only as "Octavius" and "Augustus," but also as "Octavian." He is undoubtedly called *Octavianus* by Cicero and Pollio, to say nothing of later writers; but Cicero calls him *Octavius* almost alternately with the other, and the case of Brutus seems to show that the old name was frequently used after adoption had in strictness changed it.

THOMPSON'S RECOLLECTIONS.

Recollections of Sixteen Presidents, from Washington to Lincoln. By Richard W. Thompson. 2 vols. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co. 1894.

THE title of this work is misleading, and is in fact a misnomer. Personal recollections of sixteen Presidents are almost totally wanting, and the disappointed reader will find merely a brief history of their several administrations. The value of this history must of course depend chiefly upon its trustworthiness in dealing with matters of fact, and on this vital point we are sorry to find it disfigured by serious inaccuracies and mistakes.

In referring to the charter of a United States Bank, and the policy of protection and internal improvements (i., 205-6), Mr. Thompson says:

"All these measures, and others incident to them, were directly involved in the Presidential campaign of 1840, and were so fully discussed before large audiences in every State and in almost every neighborhood, as well as in the newspapers, that the whole country was apprised of them, as well as of the arguments by which they were defended and assailed. I have personally participated somewhat actively in sixteen Presidential campaigns, covering a period of more than threescore years, and I do not hesitate to affirm that I have never known one when the distinctive political issues involved were discussed and investigated with more thoroughness. . . . This is certain, as every survivor of that period will remember, that the opinions of Harrison upon all these questions were well understood by the public—for what he thought and believed with reference to them was made the special object of public inquiry."

The intelligent survivors of the year 1840 will be amazed at these statements. The Harrison campaign was a national frolic. Its orators talked eloquently about "the hard times," and promised the people "two dollars a day and roast beef" if they would elect "Tippecanoe and Tyler too." The campaign was set to music, and the song seriously threatened to drown the stump speech. The Whig masses did not want argument, because they believed the political millennium was at hand, and they preferred to revel in the anticipation of it. Mr. Thompson talks about "the distinctive political issues involved"; but the convention which nominated Harrison avowed no principles whatever. He was not himself a Whig, but a strict-constructionist, who denied to the general Government all power except that which is *expressly* granted by the Constitution, and who boasted in his speeches that he had been educated in the school of the Henrys, the Masons, and the Jeffersons. He doubted the constitutionality of a national bank, and it could not be shown by his published letters or any other satisfactory proof that he agreed with the Whigs on the policy of protection and internal improvements. Indeed, it was his non-committalism on the leading Whig issues and his "neutrality of tint" which constituted his "availability," and led his managers to sacrifice Henry Clay in the Harrisburg convention, because of the right-angled character of his principles as a party leader. As to Tyler, he was not a Whig in any sense, but a Democrat of the Nullification pattern. There was, in fact, but one issue on which the Whigs were perfectly agreed, and that was a change in the national administration. To call such a demonstration a campaign of ideas and arguments is to trifle with the unquestionable facts of our history, and to bring into question the trustworthiness of Mr. Thompson's statements in dealing with other matters.

Mr. Thompson's treatment of Van Buren is equally surprising and indefensible. In speaking of his connection with Jackson and the advantages it gave him (i., 174), he says:

"If the intelligent searcher of our history shall carefully keep these considerations in mind, he will find it difficult to escape the conviction that, if Van Buren had not been elected President in 1836, we should have escaped our late civil war. History is something of a labyrinth, yet it is not impossible, in tracing the course of events, to discover the points where they work together and establish, as well as illustrate, its philosophy."

In support of this view, he cites the fact that in 1836 both houses of Congress disclaimed any right to meddle with slavery in the States or in the District of Columbia, and that the House of Representatives adopted Pinckney's resolution (afterwards known as Atherton's Gag Rule), which was finally abrogated under the leadership of John Quincy Adams. On the basis of this action Mr. Thompson thinks a final settlement of the slavery question was attainable, and would have been established but for the pernicious efforts of Van Buren, in the interest of his own ambition, to make the people of the South believe that the Northern States were hostile to their constitutional rights.

These views are so amazing that it is difficult to see how any student of American politics could ever have embraced them. History must indeed be "something of a labyrinth" if it has led Mr. Thompson so far astray. Such a peace-offering as the surrender of the right of petition and the freedom of debate could only aggravate and intensify the strife between the sections. As to the civil war, Van Buren could neither produce nor prevent the catastrophe, for the simple reason that it was the outcome of the anti-slavery conflict, which had its genesis in the concessions made to slavery in the formation of the Constitution. A man who undertakes to write the history of sixteen administrations ought to know this. Van Buren had faults and made mistakes, and this is true of all our famous public men; but he was a man of undoubted ability, and his private life was without reproach, while the record of his administration will compare favorably with that of a majority of his successors. On the slavery question he was not preëminently unfaithful to freedom. He opposed the repeal of the Missouri Compromise of 1820. On the great and vital issue involved in the annexation of Texas he took the right side, and maintained it in the face of the anathemas of the South. Of all this Mr. Thompson seems to know nothing, while charging him with fomenting a sectional strife which threatened the existence of the Union for the despicable purpose of improving his chances for office.

Mr. Thompson reiterates the charge which he has been repeating for fifty years, that the Liberty party defeated Clay in 1844. He has doubtless fully persuaded himself that this charge is true; but the fact is that Clay defeated himself by his vacillating course on the question of annexing Texas, as shown in his famous Alabama letters, which sorely grieved and disappointed many of his best Whig friends in the free States and fairly justified the action of the Liberty party. Mr. Thompson's partisan zeal as an old Whig blinds his eyes to other facts which easily account for Clay's defeat, such as Polk's Kane letter, which rallied the Democrats of Pennsylvania to his support under the banner of "Polk, Dallas, and the Tariff of 1842," the Plaquemine frauds in Louisiana, engineered by John Slidell, and the influence of Nativism, which had just broken out in our great cities and become a political power. All these were added to the heavy weights under which the Whig craft went down; but Mr. Thompson can see only the baleful hand of Abolitionism in accounting for the fall of his idolized leader.

Mr. Thompson's statements in dealing with the administrations of Taylor and Fillmore (ii., 315) are equally surprising. He says:

"Each of the compromise measures, in the order in which they were passed, became the law by his [Fillmore's] approval. In this respect he acted in precise conformity to the line of policy which Taylor had indicated, so that, in so far as the slavery question was involved, the two administrations were in full accord. That he thereby caused some dissatisfaction in the North is undoubtedly true, but this came from the 'Barnburners,' as they were called, who had rallied to the support of Van Buren, and who, while they did not receive the popular vote of a single State, kept up their organization, well knowing that it had a twofold effect—to divide the North and solidify the South. This, however, did not drive him from his course, and at this point in his history he exhibited, as it has always seemed to me, the very highest and most commendable qualities of statesmanship."

This is not history, but fiction. The administrations of Taylor and Fillmore in dealing with the slavery question were in direct antagonism. Taylor's plan of settlement looked to the early admission of California and New Mexico as States, without the slightest executive dictation or intermeddling with their action as Territories. He thought California was entitled to be admitted at once, on the merits of its application, and that it should not be loaded down with a Texas Boundary Bill, a new Fugitive Slave Law, or any action by Congress affecting the question of slavery in these Territories. He was, therefore, utterly opposed to Mr. Clay's scheme of compromise, which Senator Benton derisively named his "Omnibus Bill." This position exasperated Jefferson Davis and the extremists of the South, whose attempt to intimidate the President only made him more invincible. Clay and several of his compromise associates also completely lost their temper, and spoke of him with scorn and contempt, while both Northern and Southern members saw that the President's scheme of settlement would in all probability secure our Territories to freedom and free labor. It was a critical time in the anti slavery conflict, for it became evident on all sides that the President would never surrender; and when he died, "Clay's Omnibus," as Prof. Von Holst declares, "was left sticking in a swamp," where, there is every reason to believe, it would have remained if Gen. Taylor had not died at that critical moment. The Barnburners were dissatisfied with Fillmore because he repudiated the policy of his predecessor, and even the Free Soil members of Congress, who had zealously opposed Taylor's election, were now his best friends. His sympathies were with them, and when Fillmore turned his back upon his anti-slavery professions as a New York Whig, the leading anti-slavery men throughout the country denounced him as an apostate, as they afterwards denounced Webster for his seventh of March speech. To say that Fillmore "acted in precise conformity to the line of policy which Taylor indicated," and that, "so far as the slavery question was involved, the two administrations were in full accord," is to make a jest of history. It profanes the name of Taylor by linking it with a policy which he indignantly spurned; while it seeks to whitewash the memory of Fillmore as the champion of the compromise of 1850.

But our space precludes further criticism in detail. In the matter of style the work is fairly well done, and the interest is well sustained. The account of the trial of John Quincy Adams is especially graphic and fascinating. The radical fault of this history, as we have already indicated, is its lack of moral tone. Its atmosphere, so to speak, is unhealthy. What the writer thinks about negro slavery, and whether he believes the civil war was caused by the abolitionists or the slaveholders, are matters about which the reader is left to his conjectures. The fatherly tenderness with which he speaks of Pierce, Fillmore, and Buchanan is equally characteristic, and is in striking contrast with Hildreth and Von Holst, who have set us the wholesome example of unsparingly telling the truth about our public men. Indeed, Mr. Thompson's point of view has tainted his entire work. His early devotion to slavery has never been cooled, and constantly broods over his pages. While in Congress in 1842 he voted to censure Mr. Giddings for introducing his *Creole* resolutions. He opposed the Free Soil movement of 1848, and has been the defender of the Compromise of 1850 ever since its adoption. He was a zealous champion of the Indiana Black Laws. He justified the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, and condemned all organized movements in the free States to make Kansas free. He declared that the refusal to admit Kansas as a State on account of slavery would be a virtual dissolution of the Union. He believed the slaveholders had as perfect a right to take their slaves into the Territories and hold them there, as the people of the free States had to do the same with their cattle. He argued that the discussion of the slavery question by the people of the free States was unconstitutional, and that slavery was sanctioned by Abraham and the patriarchs, as well as by Christ and his Apostles, while it involved no moral question whatever. He believed the South had always acted generously towards the North, and never committed any aggressions upon her rights, but that the North had always been the aggressor. He was a Know-Nothing leader in 1856, and one of the State electors for Fillmore, and in 1860 he took the field for Bell and Everett, and denounced the Republican leaders as nullifiers and disunionists. That a writer with such a moral outfit and surveying the field of politics from such a standpoint could write American history truly, was to be expected only by the believers in the miraculous; while his recognized leadership in a party which was founded nearly half a century ago by Lincoln, Seward, Sumner, and Chase, and which prides itself on the emancipation of 4,000,000 slaves, is a frightful illustration of the truth that "politics makes strange bedfellows," or a melancholy confession of party degeneracy.

The Life of Jonathan Swift, Dean of St. Patrick's, Dublin. By Henry Craik. 2d edition, with portraits. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

THERE are two ways of writing biography, both good. If Mr. Forster had completed his Life of Swift, we should have had a vivid picture, not only of the man, but of the time. We should have been introduced to Addison, Pope, Steele, Arbuthnot, Sheridan, as they lived and talked, and should have watched the bewildering shifts and changes of politics as the political kaleidoscope kept turning. But such a book would have been at least twice as bulky as that before us. Mr. Craik has limited himself to the facts of Swift's life, with no more extraneous matter than is necessary for understanding the story. But he has spared no pains in collecting his material: he has sifted and weighed the evidence on doubtful points with laudable candor; and while a conscientious endeavor to get at the exact truth is apparent throughout, his attitude towards his subject is distinctly sympathetic and friendly. The result is that we lay down the book with a worse impression of Swift than that produced by the lurid painting of Macaulay. Macaulay, when handling a Tory, and especially an apostate from the Whigs, never shrinks from suppression, distortion, or insinuation: he dips his brush in the darkest colors. For this personal equation the reader is ready to make the necessary allowances; but when we find a friend and apologist making no better defence than is made here, the case, we feel, must be bad indeed.

We are not disposed to pass any harsh judgment on Swift's political career. Whether he quitted the Whig party because the Tories seemed then to hold the winning hand, or because it had not done enough for him, or from some more creditable motive, is not now of much account. Political disloyalty was epidemic, and almost everybody of mark was mixed up in questionable intrigues, if not tampering with positive treason. Enthusiasm of all kinds was dead, and nobody was willing to be a martyr for a cause that he only half believed in. The only real loyalty left was with the uncompromising Jacobites, and their cause was as hopeless as it was insensate. Swift was at best but a half-hearted Whig, and the change was not great to a half-hearted Tory.

But it is his personal relations that give the dark side to Swift's character. It is clear that he was selfish, callous, and vain to an extraordinary degree; bitterly and implacably resenting the least slight to himself, and brutally indifferent to the feelings or the rights of others. So conspicuous are these traits that his friendly biographer has to invent special pleas for him—that an extraordinary genius like Swift cannot be judged by ordinary standards, and that his cruelty to friends and kindred was a kind of self-torture practised for the discipline of his own soul. For example, just when he felt that his foot was on the ladder which led to promotion, his only sister married a currier of Dublin. True, he was a man of education, well-to-do, and moving in respectable society. But disgust at this alliance with a base mechanic craft was enough to cancel all ties of blood, and Swift broke off all connection with his sister for ever. It is true that when, by her husband's bankruptcy and death, she was left a penniless widow, he allowed her a pension; but he saw her no more, nor otherwise recognized her existence. As Mr. Craik puts it, "with his usual self-torture, he refused himself the boon of personal affection for the one really close relation that he possessed."

The episode of Miss Waring is still more characteristic. When Swift was only the poor prebendary of Kilroot, on a stipend of £100, he made passionate love to this lady, who had some fortune. The lady did not at once either accept or reject him. So the matter rested till he had been taken into the service of Lord Berkeley, had accompanied that nobleman to England, and the vision of political preferment and fortune was before him. Then he "found it needful to put a period" to this encumbering affair, and wrote to his "Varina" that he doubted her fitness to be his wife, and that the idea had better be given up; but if she is disposed to insist on it, he is willing to take her, "without regarding whether your person be beautiful or your fortune large." Such a letter, the candid biographer admits, would have been brutal in any one but Swift; with him it is "unsparing truthfulness," combined with imperviousness to sympa-

thy. It is true, he showed the same callousness of heart where his own interest was not concerned, as is seen in that passage in his journal where he chuckles over the fact that he had arrived just in time to prevent the secretary from signing the pardon of a man condemned to be hanged. He knew nothing of the man except that he was "a fiddler," "and so," he triumphantly ends, "he shall swing." Mr. Craik does not mention this very characteristic anecdote, so we do not know whether he would call it an antinomy of genius or an act of spiritual discipline.

The circumstances involving the deepest blot on Swift's fame, his heartless treatment of Vanessa, are conscientiously related and his conduct but faintly excused. "He humored her passion," and "it played only on the outside of his life," we are told. He kindled and cherished the affection of a pure and tender woman, allowed her passion to grow unchecked, and then killed her as cruelly as if he had plunged a dagger into her confiding heart; and we are told that she was the unhappy victim of "the self-absorbed loneliness of genius." No doubt; but might this not have been expressed in directer phrase?

Mr. Craik is convinced of Swift's marriage to Stella, and states the arguments very fully in an appendix. We cannot see that the case has been made out on either side, but incline to doubt the marriage. There might be reasons why Swift should not marry; but we can see none why the pair should go through a form which was but the mockery of a holy rite, which in no respect changed their relations, and was to be kept for ever secret. For our own part, we believe Swift to have been absolutely incapable of love to man or to woman, as he was incapable of that self-abnegation which is love's essence. He liked dearly to be flattered and caressed, to have great lords call him "Jonathan," to have ministers ask his advice, and duchesses solicit his acquaintance; and he liked to write about all this to Stella, and tell her how he despised them all. And when, after all, no bishopric fell to his share, and he saw that an Irish deanery was the highest point of all his greatness, then he tells us that he despises and loathes mankind. Is this the misanthropy of Timon or of Apemantus?

Swift's unquestioned power of attracting and imposing on both men and women must have been due to some personal quality which we seek in vain in his works. His political tracts, vigorously as they are written, show no deeper statesmanship than temporary expediency; his satires are bitter and usually coarse lampoons, with neither the energy of Dryden nor the keenness of Pope. The 'Tale of a Tub,' by many thought his best work, fails to leave any permanent impression on the reader beyond that of a series of bitter gibes without unity or definite purpose. But one thing he certainly did, and we thank him for it: at a time when elegance was thought to be all in all in writing, he showed what power lay in a simple virile style, and what plain, homely words could do when managed by a master's hand. His style alone preserves his works from joining that respectable company on the shore of Lethe, of "books which no gentleman's library should be without."

Criticisms on Contemporary Thought and Thinkers. Selected from the *Spectator*. By Richard Holt Hutton. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

Mr. Hutton's essays are excellent specimens of the best sort of critical and controversial writing. His plain, straightforward, and very lucid style is an admirable vehicle for what he has to say about the thought and thinkers of the day. No one can read these volumes without becoming impressed with the very agreeable feeling that his own power of criticism has been heightened by the perusal.

On the whole, we have found what we may call the non-literary essays the best—for instance, those on Carlyle and Mill. Here Mr. Hutton is thoroughly at home. In his literary criticism he is apt to be a little too deep—willing enough, perhaps, to recognize the fact that literature should be judged as literature—recognizing the danger of groping about for explanations of the character of the finished product in that of the man himself—but still dissatisfied unless he is sure that his plummet has got a little lower down than all the other plummets. For criticism of a poet like Burns, for instance, Matthew Arnold is enough. He may be right when he discovers "Tam o' Shanter" a more genuine literary product than "A Man's a Man for a' That"; but when Mr. Hutton adds to this that in the latter poem Burns was expressing "what he wished to feel, but on the whole did not succeed in feeling, *though it would have been better for him if he had succeeded*," we feel that really we are beyond our depth, and cannot help suspecting that Mr. Hutton is too. If Burns had succeeded in feeling what he wished to feel but did not, it might have been better for him as a man and a poet, but he would obviously have been a totally different man and poet; and what he would have been had he been not Burns, but somebody else, it seems idle to speculate. Of course it is absurd to say that you shall not examine Burns's poetry in the light of what we know about his life. We cannot, perhaps, prevent the one from influencing our judgment of the other; but certainly no habit is more apt to warp the mind, especially of the English-speaking critic, and nothing, we may add, so fosters the power of seeing extremely far into millstones.

But when Mr. Hutton is in his own field—that is, when he is discussing pure thought—he is a master. His essays on Mill and Carlyle are excellent specimens of criticism of a very keen kind. A better analysis and explanation of Carlyle's relation to "Shams" we have not met with anywhere. The following is the substance of it:

"It is in some respects curious that Carlyle has connected his name so effectually as he has done with the denunciation of Shams. For the passionate love of truth in its simplicity was not at all his chief characteristic. In the first place, his style is too self-conscious for that of sheer self forgetting love of truth. No man of first-rate simplicity—and first-rate simplicity is, I imagine, one of the conditions of a first-rate love of truth—would express commonplace ideas in so roundabout a fashion as he. . . . What he meant by hatred of shams, exposure of unveracities, defiances to the 'Everlasting No,' affirmation of the 'Everlasting Yes,' and the like, was not so much the love of truth as the love of divine force—the love of that which had genuine strength and effective character in it—the denunciation of imbecilities, the scorn for the dwindled life of mere conventionality and precedent."

In other words, it is not really unveracity and insincerity that he hates, and it is not Truth that he worships, but force and strength; and what he called "cant" was not hypocrisy, but obsolete, obsolescent, or even mistaken principles.

A large part of Mr. Hutton's essays is devoted to controversy. He is a stout foe of all materialism, necessarianism, and agnosticism, and a firm believer in a personal God, in freedom of will, and in a future life. In logic-chopping on these subjects he is indeed an expert controversialist. Perhaps he has at times a tendency to be what Carlyle called "sawdustish," but that is almost inherent in controversial writings on these subjects. Very likely, also, he is here and there unfair—as, for instance, in his attack on utilitarianism, in which his account of that philosophy is certainly a caricature. But in the main, as a champion of religion he is very successful.

United States: Facts and figures illustrating the physical geography of the country and its material resources. Supplement I.—Population, Immigration, Irrigation. By J. D. Whitney. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1894.

Within the past few years large amounts of money have been voted by Congress for the investigation of the various phases of the irrigation problem. These appropriations have been urged on the ground that it was the duty of the Government to find some way by which the water necessary for agriculture, which nature had denied to the arid and semi-arid regions, could be artificially supplied. The two methods by which more water can be made available are, first, the better utilization of waters already on the surface, and, second, the bringing up of underground waters to the surface. The most evident method of accomplishing the first is the establishment of storage reservoirs near the sources of present streams, by means of which the water now running to waste in those seasons when it is not needed for purposes of agriculture, could be held back and distributed at the proper time. The only known method of bringing underground waters to the surface is by means of artesian wells, and a very strong popular belief exists in certain parts of the country that there is a great underflow beneath the plains, constituting actual rivers whose volume of water rivals if not exceeds that of those on the surface.

The investigations into these methods of increasing the water-supply of the arid region were mainly conducted under the direction of the Department of Agriculture and the United States Geological Survey, but reports have also been issued by various other Government departments and by Congressional committees. In the present supplement to his able work on the physical geography and material resources of the United States, which has been already noticed in these columns (1889), Prof. J. D. Whitney has devoted most of his space to a critical examination of these various reports and a discussion of the different phases of the irrigation problem. He shows that the popular idea of the underflow is an absurd one, and that the only professedly scientific arguments that have been made in favor of it by one of the special agents in charge of this investigation are incorrect deductions from erroneous premises. He considers that, except under the most favorable geological conditions, the supply of water from artesian wells cannot be expected to be sufficient for agricultural uses, and even then only for very limited areas. He points out, moreover, that irrigation under some conditions, especially when the waters carry a considerable amount of certain classes of impurities in solution, may be hurtful rather than beneficial to the soil, as has been practically demonstrated in India. The breaking of the Johnstown and Hassayampa dams has shown what a danger storage reservoirs may be to the inhabitants of the valleys below, and demon-

strated the necessity of careful construction and constant watching by competent engineers. On the other hand, the experience of Eastern cities in building reservoirs for increasing their water-supply gives an idea of the enormous sums involved, should the building and control of storage reservoirs in the West be assumed by Government, as would seem to be the logical outcome of these investigations.

In an appendix Prof. Whitney discusses the broader question "whether changes of climate can be brought about by the agency of man." Here again he puts himself on record in opposition to a popularly accepted theory, in that he gives his reasons for disbelieving that the planting of trees will have any effect in permanently increasing the rainfall in a given region, and shows that the statement, made by so high a scientific authority as the chief signal-officer of the army, that the rainfall in the semi-arid region has increased since its occupation and cultivation, is not supported, but even controverted, by facts. He doubts, even, what has been so generally believed as to be almost an axiom of physical geography, that deforestation has been the real cause of increasing aridity in certain regions of the world during historical times.

Prof. Whitney's criticisms deserve careful consideration by those who are called upon to direct legislation with regard to irrigation, not only for their high scientific authority, but because of their freedom from any suspicion of being influenced by interested motives.

The Liberation of Italy: 1815–1870. By the Countess Evelyn Martinengo Cesaresco. London. New York: Scribners. 1894.

Countess Cesaresco has given us a story, rather than a history, of Italy's struggle for unity and independence, and it is, in many respects, a well-told story. The only existing works in English with which it may be said to compete are Probyn's 'Italy: 1815 to 1878,' which is more formal, and Miss Godkin's 'Life of Victor Emanuel.' Countess Cesaresco enlivens her narrative with anecdote, and with expressions of her personal preferences and antipathies, much more than Probyn does, and we have found it much more entertaining to read. It should be added that it is a quarter larger than his, which allows her to pursue a different treatment.

The early part of the Countess's narrative lacks charm and effectiveness. She does not sufficiently emphasize the lesson taught by the abortive insurrections in 1820, 1821, and 1831; and when she comes to the great Year of Revolutions, 1848-9, she does not show how each of the parties had its trial and was found wanting. By no mere coincidence was it that ultra-radical democrats controlled Piedmont, Tuscany, and Rome in March, 1849. Possibly the entangled events of that epoch could not be satisfactorily unravelled in the course of seventy printed pages; certainly, the story of Italy can be told much more clearly after 1849, with Piedmont the acknowledged leader, than before that time, when there are the doings of half-a-dozen states and as many factions to be chronicled. Beginning with the campaign of 1859, the work shows a marked improvement, perhaps because the author was herself a witness of the events she describes, and glows in remembering the emotions which every Italian and every lover of Italy then felt. She brings out, more distinctly than has yet been done in English, the very ticklish, uncertain, and dangerous position of the Italian cause after the peace of Villafranca, and again before Garibaldi surrendered his dictatorship in Naples, and during Rattazzi's wild-cat administrations. She devotes more space than usual to the mismanaged campaign of 1866—an episode which is usually passed over with meagre mention, although at Lissa in that year was fought the last great naval battle—and her account of the Mentana fiasco is disproportionately detailed. In general we find her verdicts safe. She gives due credit to the various elements which went to the making of Italy, but it is evident that Garibaldi is her hero, and that Cavour and Mazzini kindle less enthusiasm in her, though she acknowledges their indispensable work.

The style in which the book is written would fit short essays better than an extended history. Obvious sarcasm, at times scarcely distinguishable from persiflage, fails in the long run to enliven; of this rhetorical instrument the Countess makes frequent use. She does not lack earnestness, but she sometimes lacks skill to express it. On the other hand, many of her epigrammatic phrases are more than clever, because they are more than half true. Thus, she says of the English volunteers who arrived a day too late to join Garibaldi in the battle of the Volturno: "Had they been in time for the fight, they would doubtless have left a brighter record than the only one which they did leave—that of being out of place in a country where wine was cheap." But to an historical student the most characteristic, if not irritating, quality in the book is the glibness with which the Countess asserts facts for which she produces no authority. When she tells us, for instance, that at such a date Victor Emanuel carried on secret intrigues with Mazzini, of which even the royal ministers had no knowledge, we naturally expect to learn where she got this information; but she never condescends to footnotes. Herein she makes a great mistake. If she has had, as she implies in her preface, access to sources hitherto unbroached, she ought at least to cite them. That she ignores this practice may be due to the fact that she grew up in a generation which did not teach women the difference between fact and opinion in matters of evidence.

Numerous misprints and inaccuracies might be pointed out, but a more serious defect is the lack of an index. Will British authors and publishers never develop an intellectual conscience? Good type and paper and photogravures of Garibaldi, Mazzini, Cavour and Victor Emanuel—all but the last of which are very good—make the volume attractive, and the last word we shall say about it is that it is worth reading.

The Hero of Esthonia, and Other Studies in the Romantic Literature of that Country. Compiled from Esthonian and German Sources. By W. F. Kirby, F.L.S., F.E.S., etc., corresponding member of the Finnish Literary Society. London: John C. Nimmo. 2 vols.

This extremely interesting and valuable contribution to the literature of folk-lore is the outcome, Mr. Kirby informs us in his preface, of his studies in Finnish popular tales. He had expected to find in the 'Kalevipoeg' merely an Esthonian variant of the Finnish epic, the 'Kalevala,' of which he is preparing a critical English edition; but he found it so dissimilar, and at the same time so interesting, when divested of the tedious and irrelevant matter which has been added to the main story, that he decided to publish a full account of it in prose, especially as nothing of the kind has yet been attempted in English, beyond a few casual magazine articles. To his translation of the 'Kalevipoeg' the author has added a selection from the great mass of Esthonian folk-tales, which have never appeared in English, with a few ballads and short poems. How great is the mass of Esthonian folk-lore, much of which has not yet been published even in its native garb, may be judged from the collection of Pastor Jacob Hurt and his coadjutors alone, As the result of three and a half years' work. Pastor Hurt possesses more than 20,000 items of epics, lyrics, wedding songs, and so forth; about 3,000 tales, 18,000 proverbs, and 20,000 riddles, besides a large collection of magical formulæ, superstitions, and the like. Published collections in Esthonian and German augment these figures, already sufficiently surprising for the small tract of country represented on the helpful sketch-map appended to the book. Scientific interest in their national folk-lore was first aroused among Esthonians about the year 1838; popular interest is of even more recent date.

The 'Kalevipoeg,' or Lay of the Son of Kalev, consists of twenty cantos and about 19,000 verses. The metre is the eight-syllable trochaic, the commonest metre of the Esthonians and the Finns, which Longfellow rendered familiar to us in 'Hiawatha.' In the sketch of the national mythology which he prefixes, and which is of special interest to students of the 'Kalevala' as explaining the similarities to and variations from the inhabitants of the Finnish Olympus, Mr. Kirby states his belief that Finnish and Esthonian religion can be traced through four well-marked stages: (1) Fetishism; (2) Nature-worship; (3) The transitional stage marked in the 'Kalevala,' where the heroes sometimes pray to the gods in conventional Christian phraseology, and at other times try to compel their assistance by invocations and spells; (4) Mediæval Christianity. The 'Kalevipoeg' is a much more archaic and more heathenish poem than the 'Kalevala.' The mythical hero, of gigantic size, whose adventures are contained in this national epic of Esthonia, is supposed to have ruled over the country in its days of independence and prosperity. He is evidently the Kullervo of the Finnish 'Kalevala,' and is called by his patronymic, Kalevipoeg, or Kalevide, the son of Kalev. Witchcraft, sorcerers, visits to the underworld, the uprooting of gigantic oaks, the rescue of fair maidens and other oppressed persons, and the other ingredients of epic lays, including the death of the supernatural hero, are all present in the 'Kalevipoeg.' But there is a certain freshness of invention and a poetry about them which make these volumes most delightful reading.

The same can be said of the folk-tales. It might have been supposed that these tales of Finnish-Ugrian origin would be affected by the Slavic folk-lore of their neighbors, the Russians. But the author is quite correct in stating that there is hardly an element of resemblance, in either the tales or the epic 'Kalevipoeg,' to the corresponding departments of folk-lore in Russia. What few foreign elements are visible are apparently, says Mr. Kirby, Scandinavian or German; but he frequently calls attention in his notes to resemblances with the 'Thousand and One Nights' Entertainment.' There are counterparts to Cinderella, Blue Beard, and Tieck's well known story of "The Elves" (which must have been derived from a common source with its Esthonian version called "The Wood of Tontla"), and to other cosmopolitan stories.

It would be difficult to find anything more

delicately beautiful and poetic than the story which relates how "The Milky Way" came into existence. Lindu, the Queen of the Birds, after rejecting the North Star, the Moon, and the Sun, accepts the wooing of the Northern Light. But the Northern Light must journey back towards midnight; he cannot tarry. He promises to return soon for the wedding and carry the maiden home. Lindu makes all her preparations, but the winter passes; then the spring passes. Summer arrives, but the bridegroom comes not. Lindu sits in the meadow by the river in her bridal robes, veil, and wreath, her tears streaming in little brooks, and heedless of her charges, the birds, who fly about from place to place, not knowing what to do, whither to migrate, where to find their food. Her father, Ukko (the Old God), the supreme deity, commands the winds to bring her to him. The winds bear her gently to heaven, where they set her down in the blue firmament. There dwells Lindu still, in a heavenly pavilion. Her white bridal veil spreads from one end of the heavens to the other, and he who lifts his eyes to the Milky Way beholds the maiden in her bridal robes. Thence she still directs the birds on their long migrations. She gazes at and waves her hand to the Northern Light, and in winter the Northern Light visits and asks after his bride, but they may not hold their wedding.

Hardly inferior are the legend called "The Maiden at the Vaskjala Bridge," which explains how the woman came in the Moon, and "The Song-God's Departure"; while "The Moon-Painter," which relates how there came to be a man in the Moon, is a good specimen of the ingenious and entertaining class of legends. It is seldom that such a delightful and harmless collection of folk-tales is published. It would seem as if a selection of them, properly illustrated by an artist of fantastic imagination, ought to prove successful if issued as a new book of fairy-tales for children and adults.

A Concordance to the Poetical Works of John Milton. By John Bradshaw, M.A., LL.D. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

THE late compiler of this work reproaches a forerunner, Mr. G. L. Pendergrast, who published a concordance to Milton in 1857 at Madras (where Dr. Bradshaw's own labor also was performed), with having left his editing to the printers, "who apparently cut off from either end of a quotation such words as would not fit into a line of the Concordance, thus rendering it necessary for one consulting the work to refer in most cases to the passage in Milton." Strange to say, his own printed Concordance is strictly one-line, with occasional bald fragmentariness like this under *tangles*, "in *t.* and made"; under *peril*, "and *p.* great provoked who thus." The consequence is, that no one can browse with delight in these pages as he can in Bartlett's Concordance to Shakspere. The compression is sometimes reached by omissions, indicated by dots. There is no key to the initials which denote the several works quoted from.

There is not much more to be said about this undertaking in itself considered. Its utility is obvious, both as an index and philologically in comparison with other concordances, of which, for the latter purpose, we cannot have too many. We have run through the short letter Q in this work and in Abbott's Concordance to Pope. Milton employs but 32 separate words to Pope's 40; he has 12 which are lacking in Pope, Pope has 13 which are lacking in him, including quality, quarter (of time), queer, query, quibbles, quickness, quill (pen), quiver (*vb.*). *Quality* seems strangely disused by Milton, considering how copiously Shakspere presses it into service. But Shakspere's vocabulary admits under Q 47 words not to be found in Milton, of which all but 10 are in vogue to day. Shakspere, like Pope, has no use for Milton's quill (the musical attachment); like Milton, but unlike Pope, for queer, query, and quibbles. There is no end to considerations like these, for which, in the fore part of the alphabet, we may turn to Dr. Murray's Dictionary in connection with the above-named concordances.

The Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era: 1789–1815. By J. H. Rose, M.A., University Extension Lecturer in Modern History. Cambridge (Eng.): The University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

THE aim of the Cambridge Historical Series, which this volume begins, and of which Prof. G. W. Prothero is the editor, is to describe European and colonial history from about the fifteenth century. Mr. Rose's treatment of his subject is fresh and vigorous, but the special value of his book comes from his interest in the economic side of the struggle between Napoleon and England. This has enabled him to give greater intelligibility to Napoleon's later career. The prevalent opinion which attributes the wars after 1807 to an insatiable and reckless ambition he rejects, and clearly shows that they were due to the necessities of that Continental system by which the Emperor sought to humble the mistress of the seas. The degree to which Mr. Rose has enhanced the interest of his book by turning aside from the beaten paths of military and political history leads one to wish he had departed more radically still, and had not simply summed up social changes, but had described them. The effect of the Continental system upon the development of manufactures in France and Germany has received no adequate treatment in English. It is difficult to find out to what extent internal free trade prevailed throughout the Empire and its vassal States, and yet this is a question of the first importance.

The weakest part of Mr. Rose's book is his description of the Revolution in France. His lack of interest in it is shown by the fact that he devotes exactly the same space to the Waterloo campaign as to the history of France from the treason of Dumouriez in March, 1793, to the end of the Convention in October, 1795. Various statements in these meagre pages are open to objection; as, for example, the assertion that "the records of the Commune show a careful preparation for" the September massacres. Doubtless the Commune can be held responsible because it did not effectually prevent these massacres, but M. Aulard has proved in the 'Révolution Française' that the Commune was the only constituted authority which made any definite effort to stop them. Among minor inaccuracies may be mentioned the reference in the description of the Royal Session, June 23, 1789, to the Grand Master of Ceremonies as "an usher, de Brézé," a change of function which gives an insignificant setting to Mirabeau's great retort. Mr. Rose also again attributes to Barère that phrase about "coining money on the Place de la Révolution" which Barère himself repudiated with horror, and which is probably as much a fable as his motion that "Terror be made the order of the day."

It is noticeable that Mr. Rose visits a greater moral condemnation upon Napoleon for the murder of the Duc d'Enghien than upon the British Government for its attack upon Copenhagen in time of peace—an attack which destroyed eighteen hundred houses and killed nearly two thousand of the inhabitants. English writers feel that in her struggle with Napoleon England was fighting for some principle, like the liberation of Europe, and they therefore regard with complacency her brutal violations of neutral rights throughout the contest.

This volume is furnished with several excellent maps.

Polar Gleams: An Account of a Voyage on the Yacht *Blencathra*. By Helen Peel. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1894. Pp. xx, 211. 8vo. Illustrated.

CAPT. JOSEPH WIGGINS of Sunderland, the well-known arctic shipmaster, realizing the importance to Siberian commerce of an outlet by sea, and the profitable returns which would result from the demonstration of its existence, boldly entered the Kara Sea in 1874 and cruised about in those waters for eight weeks. The following year Nordenskiöld in the *Pröven* entered the mouth of the Yenisei in safety and repeated the voyage successfully, on the *Ymer*, in 1877.

These explorations showed the practicability of the route in most years, during the summer months, and Capt. Wiggins made a number of subsequent voyages of which a fair proportion turned out well. The construction of the Siberian Railway having been decided upon, it became a most important matter that some way should be found to transport rails to various intermediate points on the great Siberian rivers, in order that construction might proceed on several sections of the route simultaneously. The first expedition of this sort was prepared in 1893, and comprised the steamer *Orestes*, with 1,600 tons of steel rails, the steam-yacht *Minusinsk*, with machinery, and the steam-yacht *Blencathra* as a convoy. The last named is better known to arctic travellers as the old *Pandora* of Sir Allan Young, with a good arctic record. This little fleet was joined at Vardö, Norway, by three light-draught vessels of the Russian navy. The *Orestes* was commanded by Capt. Wiggins, and the naval contingent by Lieut. Dobrotvorski.

Leaving Vardö on the 22d of August, the Kara Sea was entered a week later, the Yenisei on the 2d of September, and the port of discharge, Golchika, 200 miles up-stream, the following day. After three weeks spent in discharging, the Russian vessels proceeded on their way up stream to Yeniseisk, and the *Orestes* and *Blencathra* on their homeward voyage. The yacht touched at Archangel and various Norwegian ports, reaching Dundee early in November. The complete success of the experiment was followed by an order for the transportation of 19,000 tons of rails during the season of 1894.

Miss Peel was one of two ladies, guests of the owner of the *Blencathra*, the first of their sex to make the passage of the Kara Sea. Her experiences are told in a lively and readable manner, and illustrated by a number of creditable pictures from photographs taken *en route*. She is a godchild of Lord Dufferin, who contributes a most amusing preface, while Capt. Wiggins adds a chapter on his journey to Yeniseisk and St Petersburg, and some notes on Nansen's polar expedition. Mr. Frederick G. Jackson, who had been a passenger on the

Orestes, sends a letter on his proposed arctic exploration; and ten pages from an official prospectus of the Siberian Railway, together with a brief abstract of the log of the *Blencathra*, are included in an appendix.

The book is handsomely got up, and serves very well as a memorial of the first important commercial event in the development now planned for Siberia, and also, as Lord Dufferin remarks in the preface, "exhibits the untamable audacity of our modern maidens."

Sea and Land: Features of Coasts and Oceans, with special reference to the Life of Man. By N. S. Shaler, Professor of Geology in Harvard University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

More than two-thirds of the surface of the globe is occupied by the waters of the ocean, whose floor over immense areas is at a greater depth below its surface than the summits of the highest mountains are above it. When we consider that, on land, life is confined to a few score of feet above its surface, but, in the ocean, since the greater part of its creatures may freely swim or float, life may extend miles below the surface, we see that the quantity if not the variety of forms of organic life which flourish in it must be vastly greater than that of land life, and that it presents an inexhaustible field for scientific research. Although man has for centuries travelled up and down upon the surface of the ocean, and an important part of his sustenance is derived from it, it is only within a comparatively few years that any attempt has been made to investigate thoroughly the character of life and the conditions that prevail within its depths. One of the most striking results of the investigations thus far made has been the confirmation of the theory already held by advanced minds among geologists, that the relative distribution of land and water on the surface of the globe has been practically what it is now since the earliest geological times—in other words, that the abysmal depths of the ocean have never been land-areas, as was supposed by the early geologists, reasoning from the fact that marine shells are found in the limestones (supposed to be necessarily of deep-water formation) that now form a large proportion of our mountain ranges. Many new and interesting discoveries have also been made as to the life of the deep sea, the character of its bottom, and other matters, which are set forth in popular form in the volume before us in Prof. Shaler's well-known and admirable style. He has not confined himself to the depths of the ocean, but gives a chapter to the icebergs which float upon its surface and are a source of constant and ever-recurring danger to European tourists. He also treats of its borders, which have been one of his special fields of geological study, of the formation of sea-beaches and harbors, and the influence the latter have had upon civilization.

Whoever loves the ocean and makes annual visits to the seashore can hardly fail to read with interest the rational and scientific explanations here offered for many familiar phenomena, and thereafter view with increased pleasure the well known features of his favorite summer resorts.

A Constitutional History of the House of Lords, from original sources. By Luke Owen Pike, M.A., Assistant Keeper of the Public Records. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

Historical workers in England, as in other countries, fall into several distinct classes. There are the professors, like Dr. Stubbs; the private scholars, like Mr. Freeman during the greater part of his career; the men of letters, like Mr. Froude. One class, however, has for some time been singularly absent—that of the "archivists." Fifty years ago it was different, as the great names of Sir Henry Ellis and Sir Francis Palgrave sufficiently testify. To whatever the disappearance of the class may have been due—whether to a certain undue democratization of historical writing, as some allege, or, as others declare, to the absurd rigidity of the rules regulating employment in the Record Office, which are calculated to create clerks rather than scholars—it is certainly a regrettable fact; for the archivist, with his occasionally irritating attention to minutiæ, brings a useful corrective to the tendency towards hasty generalization that so easily besets historical writers. It is a happy augury for the future scientific productivity of the English Record Office, that of late years two such men have made themselves heard from within it as Mr. Hubert Hall and Mr. Luke Owen Pike.

The reader who goes to Mr. Pike's 'History of the House of Lords' expecting to find a work, as the London *Daily Telegraph* used to say, "palpitating with actuality," will be disappointed. Almost the only material to be found in it directly bearing upon current politics is the account, on p. 386, of Lord Salisbury's scheme for the creation of Life Peers, brought forward in 1888. Mr. Pike justly remarks, from his own point of view as an archivist, that "it would serve no good purpose to mention all the bills which have been accepted in the House of Commons and rejected by the House of Lords." "I could not presume to say," he remarks, "that either house had acted rightly or wrongly. In each case one party might hold one opinion, another party another opinion." He did well, perhaps, to restrict himself to an unadorned statement of legal facts bearing upon the constitution of the House and the qualifications for membership. But, in so doing, one cannot help remarking that it is hardly a history that he gives us; it is rather a sort of expanded chronological table, interspersed with learned disquisitions on such points as whether the Bishops can be described with technical accuracy as Peers of the Realm.

There is a story that when a young Oxford student thought to make use of the statutory promise of the Regius Professor of Modern History to give "informal instruction," and, calling upon him with that intent, ventured, with faltering lips, to express his interest in the early history of the Privy Council, the great Prof. Stubbs cried out: "Oh, I know nothing of the Privy Council; you must ask Dicey." It is, indeed, a thorny subject, on which even so learned a scholar might well hesitate to theorize. The ardent students of the future will have another resource besides Prof. Dicey—they will turn to Mr. Pike's pages; for the origin of the Privy Council is so intimately bound up with the origin of Parliament that our author has taken occasion to go into the matter at some length. We will not attempt to set forth his conclusions here, except to notice that he declares Sir Matthew Hale's old and well-known distinction between the "Concilium Privatum" and the "Concilium Ordinarium" to be devoid of sufficient warrant (p. 44*n*)—a conclusion which some perplexed inquirers will receive with a sigh of relief.

It would not seem beyond the bounds of possibility that some one may yet write a history of the House of Lords which shall be a good deal more than a string of statements properly "documentirt," and yet shall not be open to the charge of partisanship. What ought to be aimed at is an account of the composition and political weight of the House of Lords from century to century, viewed in their relation to the evolution of social classes, together with a comparison of the fortunes of the English assembly with those of upper houses in other European countries. But such an "historian," in the highest sense of the term, will need to get his "dry-as-dust" facts all right before he begins; and for that purpose Mr. Pike's book will be indispensable.

The Humour of Ireland. Selected, with Introduction, Biographical Index, and Notes, by D. J. O'Donoghue. The Illustrations by Oliver Payne. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894. Pp. xx, 434.

This book is a worthy addition to the "Library of Humour" Series, and is the best collection of its kind that has yet appeared. We might have expected extracts from the writings of Miss Edgeworth and the translations of Dr. Joyce. But we have no desire to quarrel with a selection so admirable and comprehensive. It contains all the best that might have been looked for, and will introduce to most readers many pieces likely to have been before unknown to them. We *are* jealous that in the Biographical Index there is no notice of Patrick Kennedy, who, late in his life, contributed so much to our knowledge of the humorous as well as the pathetic side of Irish story and Irish peasant life. Our collector tells us:

> "Irish humor, properly speaking, is, one may venture to say, more imaginative than any other, and it is probably less ill-natured than that of any other. [This we doubt.] If true Irish humor is not easily defined with precision, it is at least easily recognizable, there is so much buoyancy and movement in it, and usually so much expansion of heart. . . . Irish humor is mainly a store of merriment pure and simple, without much personal taint, and does not profess to be philosophical. . . . Luckily, Irish humorous writers do not attempt the didactic."

To make, within reasonable limits, effective extracts from a book such as this would be difficult. To be at all appreciated it must be read. We cannot say there is any intentional coarseness; but we are occasionally, as in "The Fellow in the Goatskin," and in "The Widow's Lament," led far on the road thereto. There is no true wit and humor in so much praise of drink—particularly to such of us as have had opportunities of realizing the disgrace and ruin that drinking customs have brought to Ireland, perhaps more, proportionately, than to any other civilized country. W. P. French and E. Downey have properly been drawn upon for some of the best specimens of modern Irish wit. A certain topical knowledge is almost essential for their full appreciation. The illustration of a work of this character is a mistake.

While this book lay on our desk, the greatest Irish wit of our day, Father James Healy, parish priest of Killiney in Ireland, passed away. He was the delight of viceregal circles for the past twenty years. Mr. Balfour often sat at his table; Mr. Morley attended his funeral. As none of his bright sayings have yet found place in any permanent collection, we cannot better conclude a notice of Mr. O'Donoghue's work than by quoting a few of them. On one occasion, Mr. Balfour, when chief secretary, said to our priest: "Is it true, Father Healy, that the people hate me as much

as the Nationalist papers say they do?" "Hate you!" exclaimed the priest; "if the people hated the devil as much as they hate you, Mr. Balfour, my occupation would be gone." At a dinner several priests began to twit him on the fact that he was not a more active Nationalist. "It is all very well for you young men," he replied, with a twinkle in his eye, "but one night with my double-barrelled gun in a damp ditch would be the death of me." Dalkey Protestant church, near Killiney, is built on an eminence, the greater part of which, immediately adjoining the church, has been quarried away. Some people were chatting over the neighborhood and its beauties one day, and the site of the church was praised. A Protestant gentleman turned, smiling, to Father James and said, "It is a church founded on a rock." Like lightning came the genial assent, "Yes, a blasted rock." The owner of a great oyster establishment in Dublin was one day telling him of the musical accomplishments of his daughter, when Father Healy, with hearty sympathy, said she would be "a regular oyster Patti." Even upon his deathbed he was ready to give a humorous turn to his condition. "Are you distressed?" asked the doctor, a few hours before the last. "Not at all," was the rejoinder; "on the contrary, plenty of fellows owe me money."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Akerman, William. The Cross of Sorrow: A Tragedy in Five Acts. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.

Ames, J. G. Comprehensive Index of the Publications of the United States Government, 1889–1893. Washington: Government Printing-Office.

Appletons' Illustrated Hand-Book of American Winter Resorts. 1894—'95. Appletons. 50 cents.

Bain, R. N. Cossack Fairy Tales and Folk Tales. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners. $2.40.

Banks, Elizabeth L. Campaigns of Curiosity: Journalistic Adventures of an American Girl in London. F. T. Neely. 50 cents.

Bardeen, C. W. Roderick Hume. 2d ed. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 50 cents.

Benner, Samuel. Benner's Prophecies for 1895. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.

Bernard, V. F. La Traduction Orale et la Prononciation Française. W. R. Jenkins. 30 cents.

Billings, Dr. F. S. How Shall the Rich Escape? Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.

Bryce, James. The American Commonwealth. Third edition, revised and enlarged. 2 vols. Macmillan. $4.

Boardman, Irving. Bender's Lawyer's Diary and Directory for the State of N. Y. Albany: Matthew Bender. $1.50.

Bréhat, Alfred de. Jean Belin, the French Robinson Crusoe. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.

Buckley, Rev. J. M. Travels in Three Continents. Hunt & Eaton. $3.50.

Church, Miss Mary C. Life and Letters of Dean Church. Macmillan. $1.50.

Clouston, Octavia. A Title Rejected. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.

Cocke, Dr. J. R. Hypnotism: How it is Done, its Uses and Dangers. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co

Cook, Prof. A. S. A Glossary of the Old Northumbrian Gospels. Halle: Max Niemeyer; New York: Westermann.

De Garmo, Prof. Charles. Herbart and the Herbartians. Scribners. $1.

Dement, R. S. Roubar: A Counterfeit Presentment. G. W. Dillingham. $1.50.

Eaton, Rev. A. W. College Requirements in English. Second series. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.20.

Eddy, Rev. Richard. The Universalist Register for 1895. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. 25 cents.

Furtwängler, Adolph. Masterpieces of Greek Sculpture: A Series of Essays on the History of Art. Illustrated. Scribners. $15.

Gowers, Dr. W. R. The Dynamics of Life. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. 75 cents.

Graves, C. L. The Hawarden Horace. 2d ed. London Smith, Elder & Co.

Greenwood, Frederick. Imagination in Dreams, and their Study. London: John Lane; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.

Griffis, Rev. W. E. The Religions of Japan. Scribners. $2.

Gudeman, Prof. Alfred. Outlines of the History of Classical Philology. Second edition, revised and enlarged. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.

Leader, J. T. Life of Sir Robert Dudley, Earl of Warwick and Duke of Northumberland. Florence: G. Barbèra.

Littell's Living Age, October—December, 1894. Boston: Littell & Co.

Mach, Prof. Ernst. Popular Scientific Lectures. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $1.

Mackaye, Steele. Father Ambrose: The Revelations of May 3d, '68 Deshler Welch Publishing Co. 50 cents.

Magee, Thomas. The Alphabet and Language, Immortality of the Big Trees, etc: Essays. San Francisco: William Doxey.

McElroy, W. H. An Overture to William Tell. The Republic Press. 50 cents.

Meads, S. P. Elements of Physics for use in Secondary Schools. Silver, Burdett & Co. 72 cents.

Medley, D. J. A Students' Manual of English Constitutional History. London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co; New York: Macmillan. $3.25.

Merrill, J. E. Ideals and Institutions: Their Parallel Development. Hartford: Hartford Seminary Press. $1.

Newton, Alfred, and Gadow, Hans. A Dictionary of Birds. Part III. (Moa—Sheathbill). London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.60.

Our Animal Friends. Sept., 1893—August, 1894. Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.

Overland Monthly, July—December, 1894. San Francisco: *Overland Monthly* Co.

Pater, Walter. Greek Studies: A Series of Essays. Macmillan. $1.75

Paton, Mrs. Maggie W. Letters and Sketches from the New Hebrides. Armstrong. $1.75.

Prichard, Maria F. Parliamentary Usage for Women's Clubs. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. 30 cents.

Reid, Christian. The Land of the Sun: Vistas Mexicanas. Appletons. $1.75.

Ross, Albert. Out of Wedlock. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.

Sardou, Victorien. Madame Sans-Gêne: Historical Romance. Dramop Publishing Co.

Sargent, Prof. C. S. Forest Flora of Japan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Savage, R. H. A Daughter of Judas. F. T. Neely. 50 cents.

Saw, Miss F. Petit Livre d'Instruction et de Divertissement. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 20 cents.

Scott, Sir W. Redgauntlet. 2 vols. [International Edition.] Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York; Bryan & Taylor Co.

Scott, Sir W. The Betrothed. The Talisman. 2 vols. [International Edition.] Boston: Estes & Lauriat: New York: Bryan & Taylor Co.

Shaw, Albert. Municipal Government in Great Britain. Century Co. $2.

Spencer, Herbert. Weismannism Once More. Appletons.

The Rights and Pretensions of the Roman See. Church Club Lectures, 1894. E. & J. B Young. 50 cents.

Thompson, Prof. Silvanus. Elementary Lessons in Electricity and Magnetism. New edition, revised throughout with additions. Macmillan. $1.40.

Watson, John. The Annals of a Quiet Valley in the Wordsworth Country. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $2.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 24, 1895.

The Week.

SENATOR ALLISON is one of the coolest heads on the Republican side of the Senate, and he is evidently convinced that all will not be clear sailing for his party in the next Senate. When Gorman appealed on Monday week for Republican aid in meeting the difficulties of the Treasury and the dangers of the currency, Mr. Allison did not join in the sneer of the smaller minds on his side of the chamber. He said it would never do to wait till next December on the ground that the Republican party, having had an overwhelming victory, was the one to deal with all these questions. It was for the best minds in both parties to come to the rescue of the Government finances at once. This conviction of the Iowa Senator that sound-money sentiment is stronger in the present Senate than it will be in the next, is fully justified by the Senatorial elections in the West and the South. Fiat money will be from six to ten votes stronger in the next Senate than it is in this. The Populists do not expect to have a majority for their ideas, but they do expect to be strong enough to block any measure hostile to their ideas. With no change in the Senate rules they undoubtedly will be strong enough. Good Republican policy, therefore, demands speedy and vigorous effort to relieve the Treasury. Delay is dangerous for the country, but is doubly dangerous for the Republican party. Senator Allison's appeal to his colleagues to treat these great questions in a non-partisan spirit makes him appear to great advantage beside the nagging and do-nothing Aldrich.

The *World* publishes an interview with Senator Sherman on the subject of his bill to authorize the issue of short-time bonds for temporary relief of the Treasury. It authorizes the secretary, in order to meet deficiencies, to sell at discretion for coin, at not less than par, the kinds of bonds authorized in the redemption act of 1875, or coupon or registered bonds of small denomination bearing not more than 3 per cent. interest, redeemable in coin at the pleasure of the Government after five years. In lieu of any of these bonds, the secretary is authorized at his discretion to issue certificates of indebtedness of the United States, payable in coin after five years, in denominations from $20 to $100, to bear interest at 3 per cent. Mr. Sherman says in the interview:

"Some of the New York financial men, who seem to have some funny ideas about finance, take exception to my bill because the word gold is not substituted for coin in the provision for the redemption of the bonds. No such provision has ever been made in Government bonds! There is no reason why it should be stipulated that a loan negotiated under the terms of this bill should be paid in gold. This Government's policy is to maintain the parity of the two metals, and there is no occasion for any such change in the wording of our bonds."

We think that all New York financial men will be grateful to Mr. Sherman for introducing this bill and for his efforts to pass it. At the same time it should be pointed out that the main object of putting the word "gold" into the bill is to make the bonds sell better. That word would certainly improve the price and widen the market. It would create a demand for the bonds in Europe and *ipso facto* stop the exportation of gold. At the time when the bond acts of 1870 and 1875 were passed, there was no other coin known to Congress or the people but gold coin. The silver dollar did not exist. It had passed out of men's minds as completely as the mastodon. The reason why no particular metal was mentioned was because only one was ever contemplated. But be that as it may, the question now is, What phraseology will best accomplish the end in view, to wit, the sale of the bonds at a high price, the restoration of the public credit and of general confidence? Mr. Sherman knows that the word gold will do this, and if he had a little more courage he would say so.

Some of the first fruits of the great Republican victory of last fall, which are now being gathered in senatorial elections in various States, are not toothsome. Platt bestriding the party in New York is scarcely a more astonishing and offensive figure this side the North River than is Sewell beyond it, coolly assuming that his election to the United States Senate is the logical and fitting outcome of the reform movement which swept the State last November. One of his supporters in the caucus pointed with pride to Sewell's "able leadership during the dark days of the Republican party in New Jersey." But it was exactly that able leadership which made the days so dark. Nothing did more to keep New Jersey surely Democratic than Sewell's career as Senator, lobbyist, divider of the spoils under Harrison, and bargain-striker with Democratic bosses. As Senator again, he will be in a position to restore the dark days speedily, and will doubtless do so. He will find able assistance in the Senate, in the great work of clouding the party's prospects, in the person of Elkins, who has solemnly accepted the "great trust" of representing West Virginia. When Harrison made him secretary of war, unutterable things disturbed the mental repose of Republican editors whose minds went back to the star-route days, and the few of them whom Harrison neglected to subsidize frankly said that the appointment was not fit to be made. But now he is a Senator, with a benevolent scheme for old-age pensions for all. Platt, Sewell, Elkins — not to mention Thurston, Wolcott, and Chandler—gayly riding the whirlwind of reform and directing the storm of indignation at Democratic rascals, beautifully illustrate the deep yearning of the American people for pure political leadership.

Platt has succeeded in his efforts to capture the chairmanship of the new Republican county committee, and is now complete master of his party. He controls the State committee, the county committees of New York and Brooklyn, the Republican majority in the Legislature, and apparently the Governor. Such power as this has not been equalled in this State by any boss save Hill. In order to get control of the county committee in this city, he has caused the defeat of the most reputable chairman that the committee ever had, and has put in his place a man who has no other idea of the position than to use it as Platt wishes him to; who was so eager to make this use of it that as soon as he was elected he publicly rebuked the members of the party who had refused to recognize Platt as boss. We are glad to be able to chronicle the fact that several of these resented this insulting treatment by withdrawing promptly from the hall. They ought not to allow their indignation to rest at that point, but ought from this time forward to devote all their energies to showing to the people of this city that there is sufficient manhood and decency left in the Republican party to overthrow Platt and release the party from his control. Unless they can do so there will be a speedy reaction, with the result of putting Hill again in the saddle.

Now that the appropriation for collecting the income tax has at last been voted, the President should lose no time in placing under civil-service rules the collectors who are to have charge of that work. Such action has been urged, we understand, by the Civil-Service Commission, but the answer has been made that, until the appropriation was voted, nothing would be done. The duty is obvious of using every precaution to secure honest and competent deputies to attend to this business. It is an offensive thing at best to have one's private affairs inquired into by a Government official; and in the hands of ordinary political workers, such as would be sure to get the job unless compelled to pass an examination, it would infallibly become a means of blackmail or terrorism, or both combined. We have no doubt that the President will add to his many other recent orders placing new classes of public officers under the rules, one making sure that the character and competence of the income-tax collectors

shall be surrounded with all the guarantees possible.

The case involving the constitutionality of the income tax, now before the court in the District of Columbia, may be thrown out for lack of jurisdiction, or on some other ground, but it is clear that the whole question is to be brought, in some way, before the Supreme Court as speedily as may be. When the case was argued before, the main fight was made on the point that the income tax was a direct tax, and so not constitutionally leviable. This issue the court avoided by ignoring all standard economic definitions of what constitutes a direct tax, and deciding, in what, from the standpoint of an economist, must seem a grotesque way, that the income tax was of the nature of an excise. Doubtless new argument will be had on this point, but apparently the chief stress is to be laid on the constitutional requirement of uniformity in taxation. Mr. David A. Wells has led the way, in his *Forum* article, in calling attention to the possibility that the income tax may be held to be fatally obnoxious to this constitutional provision, and the position which he there briefly indicated will be elaborated and given all possible legal fortification by the lawyers who are to argue the case in Washington. Some of the provisions of the law seem clearly to violate the requirement of uniformity; but whether the whole law will go down on that issue no man can foretell. "We all know what judges will do," said Selden, referring to the judges who upheld Charles's right to his ship-money; and 200 years have not lessened the reasons for wondering at judicial vagaries.

The committee on ways and means has voted to report a bill abolishing the discriminating duty of 1-10 cent per pound on sugar from bounty-paying countries. This duty is considered by Germany a violation of treaty as well as an unfriendly act, and has been made the subject of retaliation of a very annoying kind. It should be remarked, also, that the German bounty on exported beet sugar comes to an end in 1896, in pursuance of a law passed in 1891, so that the matter in dispute is the merest bagatelle in any case. The only importance attaching to it is its irritating character. It is capable of putting both countries into a bad temper and causing severe losses to the citizens of both in consequence. The benefit of the duty is absolutely nil. It is not even beneficial to the Sugar Trust. The Republicans may attempt to make some capital out of the repeal bill, but it is not likely that they will carry their resistance so far as to defeat it. They will say, as Mr. Aldrich does, that the trouble is not caused by the discriminating duty, but by the abrogation of the reciprocity arrangement made by Harrison. But if Germany takes the other view of the matter, the cattle-growers of this country, who are suffering from the retaliation, will not be satisfied with Mr. Aldrich's easy explanation of the trouble. There is no doubt that the repeal bill will pass the House. It is hoped that it may be followed by others for restoring the balance between the Government's income and outgo.

The Hawaiian trouble seems to have no end. There has been a "rebellion" in the islands, which was sure to come sooner or later, and there will probably soon be another. No set of men who acquire power by force and fraud are ever secure against other men's force and fraud. But there is one feature in the situation which to us, at least, gives much relief. Great Britain is still at work with her intrigues. When Admiral Walker wrote home that the wicked Wodehouse was gone, and that the commissioner who succeeded him was abstaining from interference, we greatly feared that the change in policy would lead to trouble between the two powers. American diplomacy achieves little in any part of the world without a British intrigue or two. In fact, it is almost impossible to rouse a right state of mind among our people about any foreign matter without showing that the British are trying to get something away from us. In a certain sense, therefore, British agents are in our service. Their rôle is to excite our public men, and back them up by means of intrigues and grabs. We do not say that we have a right to their service, but we have enjoyed it so long that its withdrawal would indicate a certain unfriendliness of which our people would surely take note.

A despatch of the *Evening Post's* Washington correspondent relative to the Hawaiian business supplies, for the first time, an adequate explanation of all the shrieking and holding up of hands in horror. Up to the present that phenomenon has remained a mystery to its closest students. Hatred of Cleveland and Gresham will account for much, but not for all these hysterical cries of bloody murther so long sustained. Jingoism and the professional enthusiasm of naval officers may go part way in explaining the puzzle, but even they leave us very far from understanding the terrific eagerness to get hold of the Hawaiian Islands. But the moment the trained observer of American politics hears a whisper about Hawaiian bonds, about a syndicate to float them, particularly among the constituents of Lodge, Frye, and Boutelle, about a scheme to make a security now worth twenty-five cents on a dollar jump in one day to par—that moment all becomes clear, and he experiences a joy like that of the man on the peak of Darien when a new planet swims into his ken. He listens, for example, to the horrible racket kept up day after day in the *Tribune* —hears about "the furtive conspiracy, studious deceit, brutal insolence, and defiant usurpation" of Mr. Cleveland, closing with the despairing question, "With what miracles of infamy will he consign the chapter to a hideous immortality?"—and is no longer baffled thereby. Over nothing but bonds can such a divine rage be stirred up in this country. Bonds, a syndicate to float them, large holdings among the truly pious investors of New England who want to make only 300 per cent.—the whole thing is a mystery no more, and takes its place alongside Landreau claims, nitrate beds, "good things" in Brazil, and the other historic evokers of American patriotic frenzy.

The bill for reorganizing the navy which is soon to be brought before the House of Representatives for consideration, is such an extraordinary measure that it is difficult to regard it seriously. It is entitled "a bill to reorganize the efficiency of the personnel of the navy and marine corps of the United States," but that is a very misleading title. What it does is to increase the number of captains from 45 to 60, and the number of commanders from 85 to 100; to make 23 commanders who came in from the volunteer navy during the civil war additional in their grade, with promotion the same as now; to create a reserve list (a new departure in this country) of 100 officers, in addition to the present naval establishment; to make all the present commodores admirals, and to permit the seventy-eight line officers who have had thirty-five years' service, to retire as rear-admirals on $4,500 a year each. The increased expenditure for the additional commanding officers would be $100,000 a year, and the reserve list would require an increase of $250,000, making an annual increase of $350,000 in two items alone.

The absurdity of the bill is most strongly disclosed when we come to inquire what use is to be made of the 53 additional commanding officers. There are now 45 captains and 85 commanders, or 130 commanding officers in all. At present only 38 can find employment, and of these only 25 are in command of sea-going ships. A greater number than forty vessels available for sea cannot be expected in the near future, counting ships now building and those proposed to be added. At present no captain can get command of a ship more than one-third of his time, and three years of sea service in ten years is very rare. If now 53 more officers of command rank are made (as the bill provides), and we have 183 for forty ships, they will then remain on shore 75 per cent. of their time, or *eleven years after each cruise*. It is the professed design of the bill to abolish "stagnation" from the navy and promote efficiency

among the officers. But how can efficiency and habits of command be promoted among officers who spend three-quarters of their time on shore? The "stagnation" would be greater under the new system than it is now, and there would be a demand for its banishment by building more ships, giving us a "great navy."

The experience of Brooklyn during the past week shows the dreadful mistake which officials make when they temporize and compromise. After the strike had gone on for a full week, after the strikers had found that the local authorities, if not openly sympathizing with them, were at least most derelict in enforcing the law, after the inefficient management of the police force under an incompetent commissioner had forced the calling out of 7,000 troops—after all this, Mayor Schieren announced on Monday that now "all nonsense must be stopped." If the chief magistrate had taken this stand a week before, there would have been no occasion for expending $15,000 a day ever since in maintaining the great military force now on duty. The time to "stop nonsense" is when it begins—not after it has been given a week's headway. The demagogues are now condemning the companies because they have not secured a full force of new men to operate their cars. But how could this be expected when the new men who were sent out on cars last week found that the very policemen who accompanied them were unwilling to protect them from violence, and were in many cases openly displaying their sympathy with the law-breakers?

The Ohio wool-growers have resolved that the free-wool provisions of the new tariff are "a colossal political crime." This seems to us a mistake. In the first place, it will stir up the wrath of the silverites. They hold the copyright in the phrase "a colossal political crime." By a long-vested right, *that* applies only to the demonetization of silver in 1873, and any other crime that attempts to usurp the proud title will do so at its peril. Besides, it is hardly polite to tell the men—and particularly the women—who are buying better clothing for less money than ever before in their lives, that they are accessories to a crime. Nor will the woollen manufacturers, whose mills are doing better than for years, be pleased to be told by the men whose wool they buy that they are benefiting by a crime. It would be just like them to knock off a cent or two on the price of wool when thus taunted. Furthermore, the market reports for Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago are all telling just now of a firmer market and higher prices for wool. We think that the Ohio growers, on mature consideration, will leave to Stewart and Teller sole and undisturbed enjoyment of the only original "colossal political crime."

The Boston *Journal of Commerce* notices the removal of New England cotton mills to the South with approval and without any feeling of alarm. The movement, it says, is simply the transfer of coarse goods to a more economical situation, to be replaced by fine goods in the northern centres of the trade. As fast as the old machinery in Lowell, Lawrence, Nashua, and Manchester wears out, or becomes antiquated, it will be cast aside and not renewed—that is, not for the same kind of goods. The room will be taken by new machinery for new goods, and the same companies will erect mills at the South for making the coarser fabrics. This is what is going on now. "This change," says the *Journal*, "will not displace a single operative, but will call for a more skilled class of help and eventually a larger number, as a weaver cannot tend the same number of looms on fine goods that she can do on coarse."

Kansas has learned by bitter experience the worthlessness of the Populist nostrums for the cure of hard times. While that party was in control of the State, it passed a law to regulate the sale and redemption of real estate under execution, which it was promised would afford great relief to those who had mortgaged their homes and were unable to meet their obligations. Under this law the borrower, without paying interest or taxes, can retain control of the property pledged for security two or three years, instead of being subject to foreclosure in the usual way. But instead of relieving the borrower, this interference with normal business relations has made his condition harder than it was before. Capital was alarmed by the passage of the law, and was withdrawn as rapidly as possible from the State. It is estimated that $15,000,000 has been thus withdrawn during the last two years by Eastern men who had loans secured by real estate in Kansas, while nearly all the large insurance companies and savings banks which have been accustomed to make loans there positively refuse to take any new mortgages until the laws are changed. Gov. Morrill, who is a practical business man, in his first message to the Legislature urges the prompt repeal of this foolish statute as the first essential to the return of prosperity.

Senator Dolph of Oregon makes a good many tiresome speeches, but his renomination by the Republicans of the Legislature is cause for rejoicing. He has stood out against free coinage, and the silver lunatics resolved to set him aside for this reason. The complete failure of the attempt shows that the craze is fading out in Oregon. The Portland *Oregonian*, which has fought the delusion persistently and forcibly, takes a hopeful view of the silver question. It points out that there is no longer any silver craze east of the Mississippi River, and it attributes its continued vitality further west to the "desperate speculators who have blown everything into silver mines and become political desperadoes." These have played on the cupidity of other politicians and on the ignorance of the masses who feel the stress of the hard times, but the silver fanaticism which they thus foster, in the *Oregonian's* opinion, "will not be of long duration."

The worst feature of the situation is the fact that, while the people may soon recover from the craze, its influence cannot be so speedily extirpated in Congress. A free-coinage Senator is elected to serve for six years, and he is generally a man who will remain "true to silver," however his constituents may change. Wyoming, for example, recently elected such a Senator to serve until 1901, in place of Mr. Carey, who voted against free coinage. Utah will send two Senators of the same type when she enters the Union as a State next winter. Arizona and New Mexico can be depended upon to furnish four more votes in the Senate on the same side in the Fifty-fourth Congress, if the acts providing for their admission are passed during the present session. The compact body of silver Senators from thinly settled and remote States is out of all proportion to the strength of the craze in the country at large, while it is impervious to the force of public opinion in the populous parts of the nation. This is the most serious element in the situation as regards the future of this question.

French finances are in a situation only less critical than our own, and it is to be feared that the great stir over the dramatic political events of last week will prevent the Chamber and the country from giving the subject the serious consideration which it demands. M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu published on January 12 a long exposition of the difficulties confronting the Treasury. These may be summarized as an enormous permanent debt, actually doubled during the past twenty years of peace; a floating debt of proportions which are a little vague, but very bothersome; diminishing revenues and Treasury balances; huge and increasing appropriations and wastefulness. On this last point M. Leroy-Beaulieu makes the following truthful assertion, applicable not alone to France:

> "There has been much talk of late of different bankruptcies; one may add to them the total bankruptcy of the old claims of democracy that it would reduce the numbers of public officials. In point of useless offices and sinecures, democracy has surpassed all preceding forms of government. Not a single sub-préfecture has it abolished, or got rid of one hanger-on of municipal councils, while it has created legions of directors and inspectors of all sorts."

England is as badly afflicted as France with the disease of "fonctionnarisme,"

NEW YORK'S NEW RULER.

THERE is one branch of the subject now engaging every one's attention, which has hardly been touched on, but which merits the earnest attention of the Committee of Seventy and of the Good Government clubs, and indeed of all good people in this city. We mean the fact that we are now contending, not simply with the venality and cunning of Platt, but with what is really a new form of government established by Croker, whose successor Platt is. If we treat the present situation as simply one of Platt's making, and flatter ourselves that, if we beat Platt, our way is clear, we shall make a great mistake, which the new generation will rue; for unless we carry our reform further than the rescue of the city from Platt's hands, Platt will have a successor, as Croker has had.

Croker has established in New York a government unknown to the Constitution and the laws, but just as effective as if it had been discussed in convention and voted on by the people. It consists in the levy of money on the corporations of this city, with which the legislators are purchased before their election by one man resident in New York, who then retails legislation in quantities to suit purchasers either for cash or for salaried offices.. So firmly is this form of government established to-day that no legislation can be obtained in any other way, no matter who demands it, or what plain public necessity calls for it. Platt's government is, in fact, as strong as if he held the State with a victorious armed force. He feels towards the Mayor, the Chamber of Commerce, the Committee of Seventy, and all other public bodies, as Louis Napoleon might have felt towards those of Paris after 1851. He rules the State more fully and completely than the Governor or any public officer. The Governor, in fact, sits as his deputy.

If any one had foretold, twenty or even fifteen years ago, that any such régime could be set up in this State, that the public powers could pass into the hands of a private individual without any popular mandate or recognition, he would have been laughed to scorn. If any European observer had predicted it, he would have furnished materials for ridicule in a thousand newspaper articles. Nevertheless it is to-day the most prominent, notorious, and grievous fact of our political condition. The system, too, was founded by an ignorant man of foreign birth, once a street "tough," and practised by him for several years—with complete submission on the part of the people at the polls. Moreover, he struck its roots so deeply that, when his party was defeated at the polls, he was succeeded in his place, quietly, naturally, simply, by an American, home-loving, God-fearing Presbyterian, with a pastor and a pew.

Now we happen to feel this yoke most severely in the city because it is here the money is raised for the public degradation, and because it is here that we need most legislation. The country as a rule does not feel it in anything like the same degree, and in fact it is the country legislators, for the most part, who serve under Platt in the new bossocracy, as we should call it, but more properly autocracy. It is a régime which cannot be overturned by voting against Platt, for he holds no legal office, nor can we probably produce much *permanent* effect on the legislators now in office, for they are in his pay. We therefore most earnestly urge on our friends who are working for reform in this city to appeal more fully and directly than they have yet done to the people of the interior of the State. We do not believe these people are fully aware of the nature of the system Platt has set up, or of the subserviency of their legislators to him, or of the effects of his rule in this city. We would therefore suggest an address to the voters of the western part of the State, on the part of the Committee of Seventy, describing the situation here, as created by six years of Tammany rule, setting forth the pledges and promises made to Democrats and Independents in order to secure the election of a Republican mayor, and the difficulties thrown in the way of reform by Platt's government.

None of the New York city papers has much circulation one hundred miles away from the place of publication. As we have seen, Platt supplies the papers of the interior, by direct distribution, with his own version of the trouble, and no counter version ever reaches them. Very few indeed of the country voters have more than a vague idea of the difficulties with which we are contending here, or of the problems of city government which have come up within a few years. But few have ever seen any report of the evidence taken before the Lexow committee, and they will therefore readily believe the Platt theory of the report, that the whole trouble was due to the superintendent's lack of power to make transfers and assignments. In fact, not many know more about New York than that it is a great wicked city, controlled by "the money power." What is needed is a vigorous and abundant distribution of readable documents, for which every kind of lists should be used—clerical, medical, collegiate, reform and tariff clubs. The city is and must remain controlled by the Legislature, and if the old government by discussion is to be restored, it must be through the people who elect the legislators.

This method of working on opinion has never yet failed in America. It may be slow, but it is sure. If we ceased to believe in it, we should have to give up popular government as a hopeless failure. It must be remembered how short a time it is since Hill seemed as strongly entrenched as Platt, and what serious doubts many of us felt as to what the popular verdict on Maynard would be. Now the people who ousted Hill and damned Maynard are not going to put up with Platt if the facts are well laid before them. They are as a general rule Americans, who think the State of New York the best "organization" any man can belong to, and who will not tolerate the boss system one minute after they fully understand it. This system cannot be overthrown, however, without a vigorous propaganda, which we earnestly commend to the attention of all who have "enlisted for the war."

THE LEXOW REPORT.

CONCERNING the narrative portion of the Lexow committee's report we have nothing of moment to say. It describes fairly enough the revelations which have been made about the condition of the police force. But we do not remember ever to have seen, in any public document, a passage equalling in audacity the following explanation of the cause of the police demoralization:

> "The conclusion seems irresistible that the bi-partisan system is the only one which can commend itself to the people. The main evil to be corrected is that of the prevalent demonstrated corruption, which apparently, from the testimony of the superintendent, has swept into the force *mainly because of the inability of the executive chief to assign and transfer members of the force.* He testified that if this power to assign were conferred upon the superintendent, and conditions such as revealed by the testimony continued, the superintendent must either be corrupt or incompetent; hence, absolute responsibility could be fixed for such a condition of affairs."

So that our rising in November was due solely to a desire to give the superintendent the power to "assign and transfer" members of the force, under a bi-partisan commission, and this is really the only change for the better the committee offer us. It must not be forgotten that the evidence taken by the committee was not taken in secret. Every word of it was laid before the public, so that there are probably 10,000 persons in this city fully as competent as any member of the committee to draw conclusions from it. Every one of these may fairly consider his intelligence insulted by the proffered remedy.

The arguments in favor of a bi-partisan commission are, in like manner, apparently addressed to an audience which has never had any experience of a bi-partisan commission, and indeed has never seen one. No one would suppose, from these arguments, that the city had had twenty-five years' experience of such commissions, and was perfectly familiar with their defects, and that their possible corruption and rascality had been fully exposed before the committee itself; that a bi-partisan of one party had in their immediate view and presence been proved guilty of selling promotions, and left the chair in shame and "mental prostration," and that another bi-partisan of another party had in the same place admitted himself to be

a "grand-larceny thief." They do not, in fact, contain an allusion to the long history of the bi-partisan system as we have tried it, or attempt to meet one of the objections to it. To the suggestion that the management of elections should be transferred to a separate bureau, the committee simply opposes the assertion that "it would not relieve the situation in respect" to the multiplicity of police functions at present, which is like saying that it does a busy man no good to have his work reduced. The argument against a single head for the police consists simply of the assertion that he would have too much to do.

Let us now examine the committee's remedies. In the first place, they provide for the reorganization of the force by three commissioners appointed by the Governor—not by the Mayor. The Governor is now, to all outward appearance, under the influence and control of "Tom" Platt. These three men would, therefore, probably be Platt men, and they are to have power to examine into the qualifications and efficiency of every member of the uniformed force, and dismiss or retain whom they please. It is true that they are to submit their decisions, with the reasons for them, to the Mayor, and he is to have the power of approving or disapproving them, and his judgment is to be final; but the Mayor cannot, of course, pass intelligently on the qualifications of 4,000 men on the report of persons whom he has not selected, and in whom he may have no confidence. The Mayor, and no one else, should have the appointment of these commissioners. This is what the election of last November meant.

The government of this reorganized force is to remain exactly what it is to-day—that of four "bi-partisans," two of them, we presume, Charley Murray and Mike Kerwin, whose appointment Platt got from Mayor Gilroy, he said in an interview, "by diplomacy"; and bi-partisans they are, with all that the word implies. The only change is, that bi-partisanship is made mandatory on the appointing officer, and the superintendent receives power of assignment and transfer, and of suspension for ten days. Promotions are to be made by the board—no longer by civil-service examination—by *unanimous* vote, unless the superintendent should recommend in writing. Otherwise any one member of the Board could block a man's promotion, and the bi-partisan who would not, under these circumstances, make the officer pay up, would differ greatly from most other members of his species.

Now we should like to ask the Committee of Seventy, Dr. Parkhurst, Mayor Strong, and every other honest man and woman who worked and prayed last fall for the deliverance of the city from the clutches of a corrupt bi-partisan oligarchy, whether they are prepared to sit down under this most impudent attempt on their simplicity and credulity. They are virtually asked in this most ridiculous report, by the aid of arguments which would discredit a schoolboy, to exchange the rule of a Tammany boss for the rule of another boss whose methods are exactly the same, whose character is very little better, and who is just as eager to maintain partisanship in city government as Croker was. Platt is determined to-day that we shall not have what we voted for in November, and that he, who could not poll 5,000 votes for any office in this city, will "down" Mr. Strong, who polled 154,000.

If there be any of the courage, the persistence, the determination to deliver the city which were displayed at the last election, left among us, the time has come for a second display of them. We are betraying no confidence when we say that the delay in the passage of the removal bill is due simply and solely to a desire to extract pledges or conditions from Mr. Strong as to the appointments, and that Mr. Strong's determination to accept no resignations and make no appointments until this bill is passed, is part and parcel of resolute resistance to Platt's dictation. The "three-bill trick"—that is, the introduction of several bills with the same object—is merely a device of the thimble-riggers who serve under Platt to produce delay and give the committee on cities an excuse for many "hearings" and much mock deliberation. But Mr. Strong must not be left to fight this battle alone. Those who elected him must back him up. They must speak out. Platt must be made to understand that, in the language of his brother-sharpers, the people of the city "have got on to his racket." The Committee of Seventy, the Good Government clubs, the City Club, and every organization and order of men and women in the city should make plain that their tenacity and their vigilance are at least equal to those of the public enemy.

SUNDAY CLOSING.

Mayor Strong, in his interview with the liquor-dealers the other day, threw out an intimation of the change which is rapidly coming over the minds of thoughtful men of all classes, concerning the wisdom of the attempts we have been making for so many years to enforce in New York the New England view both of the Sabbath and of liquor. Among them are a great many of those who for years past have been foremost in the efforts made to diminish drinking in this city, and to surround what drinking there has to be with conditions of decency and order. Upon these the argument of experience ought to tell with great force, for in politics and legislation there is no guide like experience. It is worth all the books, sermons, and lectures in the world. The sociologist and the politician both have to stand dumb before it. Happy is the people which has a good stock of it in store, for, as Burke remarks, what is not practicable is never wise. We are not now talking of the regulation of the liquor traffic by high license or otherwise. We are talking of the closing of the saloons to the workingman, on the only idle day he has in the week, in defiance of the wishes of the majority of the city population. The attempt to do this has been persisted in for a quarter of a century. We know all about its history and results, and can therefore speak about it with a confidence which would hardly be justifiable on any other public question.

In the first place, as long as the workingman votes, his opinions in this matter, whatever we may think of them, must be respected. He will find some means of making them tell. Although he may not be able to make head against a law made at Albany, he can exert a powerful influence on the manner of its execution. In this city our Sunday restrictions have simply thrown him into the arms of Tammany, as a power which will permit the law to remain a dead letter. To nothing more than this does Tammany owe its solid vote of 108,000. It cannot do anything for one-tenth part of these people, except contribute in some small ways to their comfort, and this it has done. It has winked at such violations of the law as the working-people had a mind to.

The explanation of this will be very easy if we put ourselves, or try to do so, in the workingman's place when he wakes up on Sunday morning. He lives in one or two squalid rooms in a tenement-house, and he has a vacuous day before him. He does not go to church, and he is not a reader, even if he had books. He is essentially a talker. All he knows of the outer world comes to him through talk, and the one place in which he can talk or discuss with his fellow-men, and under conditions of comfort, is the saloon. He might go to a coffee-room here and there, but there are not enough coffee-rooms in New York for a fiftieth part of the saloon frequenters. The saloon, too, is the one place where he comes in contact with the civilization of the community, with its ideas, or views, or facts. Moreover, whatever be the right or wrong of it, the great bulk of our population will not sit and talk without some kind of intoxicating drink before them. In this they resemble almost the whole population of Christendom, except native Americans who do their drinking standing. What makes the matter worse is that those who denounce and try to change the workingman's tastes in this matter generally live in comfortable houses and belong to clubs, where every hour of Sunday, as of other days, they can order whatever drink they please without hindrance or criticism from anybody. The notion that the working classes do not take note of this when they are breaking the law, is an hallucination. It is constantly in their minds.

In the second place, no machinery for enforcing such a law as our Sunday closing law has ever been devised. No such attempt as we are making has ever suc-

ceeded anywhere any better than here. No police would be equal to such a task even if it were honest. But no police can remain honest which is charged with the duty of preventing any kind of dealer from satisfying a keen, and generally considered legitimate, popular desire. Under such temptations the virtue even of clergymen would in the long run break down. On this point any citizen of New York is one of the highest authorities in the world. We have seen a police force, exceptionally well paid, and probably at the outset as honest as any, become in twenty years, under the operation of constant temptation, an army of brigands and blackmailers. We have seen every liquor-dealer of about 10,000 furnished with a keen inducement to break the law and to escape the penalty by bribing the police. The result has been that the law has not been executed, and its non-execution has been secured by wholesale corruption. Nor is there any use in supposing that we could execute the law with better material. No material is within our reach which would answer any such purpose. Twelve-hundred dollar policemen have not done it, and five-thousand-dollar policemen could not do it. To secure complete prevention we should have to pay salaries large enough to take away the desire for small additions to them. What should such salaries be? The police commissioners get $5,000, apparently without taking the edge off their appetites.

To keep on trying to save Sunday from what good people consider "desecration," by such means as these, and with consequences with which we are now familiar, would be something far worse than a mistake. It would be doing a great wrong for a little right. It would be debauching the whole government of the community in order to prevent a few people from making a harmful use of their liberty. Nothing that we are now saying applies to any regulation of the liquor traffic by license or otherwise. It applies only to the Sunday prohibition. It applies only to the attempt to enforce a law to which the great bulk of the community is opposed. A high license would make every liquor-dealer who held it an agent of the law in preventing illicit traffic and in keeping down the number of saloons. A Sunday law converts every liquor-dealer into an enemy of the law and a debaucher of the police. We advise those who are interested in the peace, order, and morality of the city not to be influenced by the denunciations of those who seek its repeal. Standing on the revelations of the Lexow committee, and on the experience of the last twenty years, they may defy the *à-priori* hosts.

THE FRENCH CRISIS.

THE Latin poets say that crossing the sea does not change people's characters. So also it may be said that no change in the form of government can effect much change in French political manners. The Presidents of the Republic seem to have hardly any better chance of filling out their terms than the Kings and Emperors. Louis XVIII. is the only ruler in one hundred years who has died peaceably in possession of power. MacMahon, Grévy, Carnot, and Perier have followed Charles the Tenth, Louis Philippe, and Louis Napoleon. The resignation of M. Perier may be considered the final breakdown of the experiment which the French have been trying since 1871, of combining an elective presidency with a ministry responsible to the Chamber. It becomes more and more doubtful whether any of our modern democratic parliaments can be much longer intrusted with the power of changing the executive by a hostile vote. What has just occurred in France is what is becoming more and more frequent in all chambers in which the ministry need to command a majority vote in order to stay in power. The "group" system of organization is making such majorities more and more unstable, and it is characteristic of the French to push this group system to its extreme, though the Italians are following fast in their wake, as are the small states of eastern Europe. There are signs of the same tendency even in that "mother of parliaments," the English.

The economical condition of France, too, greatly favors the friends of disorder. She has for a hundred years led the van in the embodiment in practice of the ideas uppermost in the European mind. The spread of universal suffrage has filled the masses with the expectation of some great improvement in their material condition, for his material condition is everywhere the foremost object of the poor man's thoughts. The general depression in business, combined with the continued existence of poverty, has set him to asking more and more imperiously when the improvement is going to begin. All the European governments, at least all the parliamentary governments, pretend that the question is quite reasonable, and that the improvement ought to begin at once. Not one of them, however, seems to know how it is to be effected, and they try to gain time by appointing "labor commissions" and making recommendations of attractive but visionary schemes.

Unhappily, in France this question is addressed to a body on whom the modern eagerness to grow rich has taken powerful hold, who get into the Chamber largely with the view of improving their condition, and who insist on the ministers purchasing their support; and they find themselves in power at a period when the capital is full of speculators and promoters, who stand ready to buy everything that is for sale. Hence the enormous scandals of the past few years, which have furnished the Socialists with plenty of ammunition for the "dénigrement" of the "classes dirigeantes," and, in fact, of the owners of property generally. There is unquestionably, in the detestation of the Socialistic workingmen for the "sale bourgeois," a strong element of contempt for his supposed venality and corruption.

Though last not least, among the difficulties with which M. Perier has had to contend is the Parisian press, which recent revelations show to be venal beyond example, besides being violent and mendacious. There are really only two daily papers in Paris worthy of the attention of a serious man. But then the press in every country fairly represents the public which reads it. All pecuniarily successful newspapers supply a demand, and it may be fairly said that the Parisian public makes the Parisian newspapers. What is peculiar in the journalistic situation there, however, is that the papers which in other countries would only amuse people by their lies and extravagance, in Paris make an impression on the public mind, and they make it even if they live only two or three weeks. Few Parisians have what we call political sense, or even "horse sense," and their credulity in the matter of scandal is worthy of the middle ages. Hence it is possible for a parcel of adventurers at any time by a few weeks of "journalism" to cover a ministry or a public man with odium of some sort, which the French temperament makes it impossible for any one to sit down under or to despise. The sum and substance of it all is, that public life in France is becoming increasingly difficult for real statesmen, and the confidence of the masses in politicians is steadily decreasing. Taine points out that when this general relaxation of the social and political bond occurred after the Revolution, people turned in despair to the army, where the virtues on which states are founded had taken refuge—the feeling of brotherhood, of obedience, of mutual confidence and loyalty, of love of country; and it would not be surprising if we should now witness the same phenomenon.

The Socialists, who were shrieking with delight on Wednesday week, when they had frightened a hypochondriac President into resigning, were howling with rage by Friday over the election of M. Faure, another Conservative chief magistrate. A most curious feature of it all, to an observer at a distance, is the comparative quiet and indifference of the country at large while Paris is torn with fury and faction. The explanation of this fact appears to lie in the massing of the Socialistic sentiment and vote almost wholly in Paris and a few large cities. Reckoning the entire Socialist vote of the country at something more than 500,000, fully one-half of this is cast in Paris alone, while probably nine-tenths of the remainder comes from Marseilles, Toulouse, Roubaix, and other cities. As it happens, some scattering elections, held no longer ago than January 6, give a very good idea of the distribution and location of the dangerous constituencies. In a Paris arrondissement on that day, a Socialist, M. Gérault-Richard, was elected to the Chamber by a vote of 2,742 to about

1,200 for all others. His predecessor, also a Socialist, had been elected by 3,041 to less than 2,000 for all others. But on the same day, in one of the districts of the Côte-d'Or, a Moderate Republican was returned by a great majority, while in an election to the Conseil Général du Rhône the Socialist vote was only 574 out of 3,908 cast. These figures help us to understand how little typical and representative of the nation the political sentiment of Paris is, and how the Parisian mob is powerless to elect a President, even if it can harass and intimidate one when elected.

Indeed, the Socialists themselves confess the almost entire failure of their propaganda among the peasants. Even M. Jaurès acknowledges this, and has insisted upon the need of getting up a more showy bait to make the wary rural voter rise. The explanation is, that the French peasantry of to-day is a property-owning peasantry. According to the estimates of Miss Betham-Edwards, who is a high authority, twice as many French peasants owned land in 1889 as in 1789. The land of France is owned, so it is computed, by 8,000,000 persons, of whom above one-half are peasants. This is one of the great results of the French Revolution which must be duly weighed in reckoning up the good and evil of that mighty convulsion. It at least broke down the feudal land-laws of France, and made land-owners out of millions of men who were serfs. In their hands has been demonstrated afresh what Arthur Young called the magic power of property to turn sand to gold. Regions which he visited in 1788 and found barren and deserted, a hundred years later were clothed with vines and gardens under the tillage of peasant proprietors. Is it any wonder that these men propose to think more than twice before consenting to give up their hard-won property ?

VENETIAN ART IN LONDON.

LONDON, December 29.

THIS year Venetian art is the subject which the directors of the New Gallery have taken upon themselves to illustrate in their winter exhibition. That in the private and lesser-known galleries of England many good, and a few important, canvases by the old Italian masters are to be found, is a fact that need not now be insisted upon, since it has already been well established by the collections hung winter after winter in the Royal Academy. Of course, it is only in Venice that Venetian art is to be seen in its full glory, but there was every reason to suppose that such a loan exhibition, got up in London, would prove interesting if only in a supplementary way.

And interesting it is unquestionably, though also disappointing. Without the journey to Venice, without, indeed, crossing the Channel, finer examples of Venetian art can be found. At the National Gallery, in the British and South Kensington Museums, the subject is to be studied to much greater advantage, with far fewer drawbacks. Besides, some of the noteworthy contributions come from other collections open to the public—from Hampton Court, for instance, and Oxford's University Galleries. Still, the opportunity to pass in review the art of Venice in almost all its periods and branches (there are laces, bronzes, books, armor, glass, porcelain, and so on, as well as pictures and drawings) in one exhibition is exceptional, and therefore of no small interest. The disappointment is to discover how far short all the sections, save perhaps the one devoted to lace, fall of being fully representative of their art at its best.

To consider the pictures first is inevitable, since to them by far the most space is given. They fill the three large galleries and the balcony. Like all old work, mellowed and softened by time, they lend a certain serenity and repose to the walls they decorate, and, as all belong to practically the same school, there is little to disturb a harmony that has much of splendor in it, beauty and richness of color being the chief characteristic of the school in question. But when it comes to looking at each canvas separately, the effect is not so striking, for there is no doubt that, judged from the artistic standpoint, many of the paintings are of no value whatever—mere rubbish, to be frank—while the masterpieces are few and far between. Indeed, the catalogue in itself is enough to make one distrustful. It contains no less than thirty Titians; and fourteen examples of Giorgione, despite the experts who have denied his right to all canvases bearing his name save the one solitary Madonna. However, if the quality of the work were beyond reproach, the vagaries of tradition and catalogue-makers would matter little. But, as it is, there is painting after painting that can be taken seriously only by those authorities and students who measure art with a foot-rule, reducing it to a problem of noses and finger-tips, who set up photographs as the standard, and who unearth forgotten painters to make them play the scapegoat for their fellow-artists. The chances are that before the exhibition closes, the most glaring absurdities of the catalogue will be amended, and pictures will be labelled anew to the satisfaction of the labeller and the dismay of the owners. But, so far as the work is concerned, it will be in the end exactly as it was in the beginning, with no greater claim to distinction, with no greater power to enchant. Those who value pictures according to their artistic qualities will still look at the many with indifference, will still feel the same keen pleasure in the few.

Here, in fact, as in all collections and exhibitions, there are the few good or even great exceptions. The Primitive commands respect when he is seen in such a careful record of architecture and facts, rendered with unmistakable regard to color-schemes, as Jacopo Bellini's "Dominican Preaching in a Public Square"—a rose red square of Venice ; or such a fine decorative arrangement as Crivelli's "St. George and the Dragon," though one wonders if it was as beautiful when the now old gold of the backgrounds and the saint's armor and the horse's trappings was as new and staring as the frame that holds it. A Mantegna or a Carpaccio here and there reminds mildly that the true artist was never bound to commonplace by the accepted conventions of his time. The name affixed counts for nothing when a portrait is as stamped with individuality as two by Gentile Bellini of youths shown in severe profile against a plain ground, from the Oxford Galleries; or the good strong head of Hans Memling by Antonello da Messina; or another of a handsome Venetian by Giovanni Bellini. These are works in which the individuality of the painter and the men they painted is triumphantly asserted. And the same individuality, together with greater facility of execution and more matured methods, distinguishes the portrait of a melancholy, sad-eyed, long-bearded man by Moroni, not unworthy to hang side by side with the "Tailor" in the National Gallery; the beautiful "Andrea Odoni," from Hampton Court, by Lorenzo Lotto; Tintoretto's old and wrinkled "Venetian Senator"; and the "Portrait of a Man" by Giorgione—a small head, lent by Mr. A. H. Savage Landor, which, genuine or not, is very lovely in the subtle modelling of the face and the richness of the subdued color. The famous "Shepherd with a Flute" from Hampton Court is also here, and among the twelve other pictures attributed to Giorgione there are two or three—notably a delightful little sketch, nothing more than a fine note of color, "The Rape of Europa," lent by Burne-Jones—which stand out with much distinction in their present surroundings.

The thirty Titians are mostly tributes to the unintelligence of the collector; the well-known "Triumph of Love," and a less familiar "Mother and Child"—which ought to set the Morelli faction in a flutter, so unlike is it to other Titians—offering the necessary contrast. Perhaps I should add that "The Worship of Venus," the replica of the beautiful Prado picture, sold not long since at Christie's, is here, and also the "Portrait of Antonio Grimani," that scarce justifies the raptures of Crowe and Cavalcaselle. Tintoretto fares more fortunately, for there is an "Adam and Eve" to show how tender and scholarly he could be in the treatment of the nude, and likewise an allegorical "Portrait of Ottavio da Strada," to charm by the exquisiteness of color and grandeur of composition which were his in his happiest moments. Only a hint is given of Veronese's decorative elegance in the "Christ at the House of Levi," a replica on a smaller scale of the picture in Venice ; only a suggestion of the stateliness of Tiepolo, who is most inadequately represented. If two or three Guardis and Canalettos, and a single canvas by Il Greco—as pupil of Tintoretto included among the Venetians—were mentioned, the list would be fairly well exhausted.

The average of the drawings, no doubt because of their comparatively small number, is higher. Of course, many are the merest sketches and notes jotted down roughly, if with delightful vigor. But then, again, others seem to contain the most complete and perfect expression of the artist's skill. Thus, there are drawings of single figures by Carpaccio, done in bistre heightened with white on gray paper, which have all the dignity and grace of the figures in his pictures, suggest far more action, and are marred by none of the archaic mannerisms which the painter of his day could not escape when he came to work out an elaborate composition in color on canvas. The red-chalk studies attributed to Giorgione, in like manner, gain in vigor because of the entire freedom with which they are made. It is curious to contrast the rapid pen-and-ink drawings by Titian, no more than hurried memoranda, with a most delicate, careful drawing of "The Adoration of the Magi," wonderfully dainty in its detail, by Antonello da Messina, or a tiny little head of a man by Giovanni Bellini, in which he has anticipated something of the modern mastery of this medium. Pen-drawings by Campagnola are amusing in their way, while the wash-drawings of Canaletto are as clean and crisp as if destined for the modern reproductive engraver. Another sug-

gestive drawing is one of "Ladies and a Dwarf under a richly decorated pergola," by Veronese, from the royal collection—suggestive less because of the way it is done than of the power displayed to express on a small piece of paper the stately architecture which we have come to associate only with his colossal canvases.

Of the rest of the exhibition it would be useless to speak in detail. The lace is very beautiful, and includes some fine old Greek Venetian, the figures in the design being quite Byzantine in character. For embroideries and stuffs, however, a visit to South Kensington would prove more profitable. The book-bindings are exceedingly well selected; the tooled morocco bindings done for Grolier and those in crimson velvet and gold for the Popes, and in repoussé silver for the Doges, receiving due prominence. But it irritates to find that of all the arts relating to the making of books, the art of bookbinding alone is recognized. What, one cannot help asking, of the work of Aldus, of Ratdolt? The glass and porcelain do not compete with the British Museum collections. There is a strange absence of good brasses, and while armor and lanterns and mirrors may be decorative, they leave many a gap that a well-equipped museum could easily fill. Altogether, if the exhibition be useful, it is within certain very circumscribed limits.

N. N.

RECENT ITALIAN NOVELS.

ALASSIO, December, 1894.

OUT of four volumes before me, three treat almost exclusively of the one subject, the one that serves for nine-tenths of the novels of the Latin races. One must accept the convention, just as we expect others to put up with the bread-and-butter loves, the scruples and principles, of the misses of our novels. It is said that people who are brought up under a more carnal régime get to loathe the insipidity of the misses; it follows as naturally that the most cosmopolitan among Anglo-Saxons sickens of a too protracted contemplation of the unholy trinity. So if, after a dozen or more of stories of Matilde Serao, and five hundred pages of Gabriele d'Annunzio, full of illicit animalism, my remarks should at times be sharpened by an injudicial impatience, the reader is begged to make due allowance for a frailty that is yet imperfectly corrected by education.

Matilde Serao's two dainty little volumes are written to make a pair. The titles, 'Gli Amanti' and 'Le Amanti,' are somewhat difficult of translation. *Lovers* and *Sweethearts* might do if both conveyed an "improper" meaning. There are no English words to express the relations indicated but such as are either insufficient or too gross. Of course, as good Anglo-Saxons, we thank Heaven that our language does not allow us to mention vice without stigmatizing it. Still, virtue is, in a way, a limitation. The tender intimacies that form the subject of these stories are not openly sanctioned by society; of that fact, however, the authoress seems unconscious. With scarcely an exception, the lovers are the most refined and the most elegant of a class in which refinement and elegance are the rule. Gentle breeding and surroundings of luxury unite in the sentimentality of the writer to invest them with a sympathy that is almost poetry—indeed, it *is* poetry, so far as treatment can make it so. And if the end of these illicit relations be almost invariably disappointment and heartache, that is not because there is a Nemesis that pursues wrong-doing, is, in fact, inherent in it. Nothing could be further from the ideas of the authoress than a moral judgment. A mild pessimism, born of satiety, seems at first sight the whole of her philosophy; only, the observation of human nature is at times so clear-sighted, and the satiety or the heart-ache comes so inevitably to all these lovers, that one may suspect that, after all, she understands the deeper meaning of the world she depicts. At any rate, the lesson is there, whether she intends to preach it or not. Even in the two stories where the fair sinners, narrating gayly their own experience, tell how they were so wearied at not being able to find anything to complain of in the lovers they had chosen that they could console themselves only by taking others, the bare facts are eloquent, and to those who have eyes to see and ears to hear, facts are the best of sermons. The world at large, however, is more likely to take Matilde Serao's sweets as bon-bons rather than as medicine, and many find that they upset the stomach rather than put it right.

Taken as bon-bons, there are among the number some very good ones. To my taste the best are under the title 'Le Amanti.' The others are mere sketches; these are real stories, beautifully told, and one at least of them—"L'Amante Sciocca," the stupid mistress—a little masterpiece. The story is not a new one. A man of genius, a poet, who has had more than enough of love-affairs with women turbulent, pretentious, exacting, or otherwise troublesome, wishes to be loved by one who is simple, even though she be a trifle stupid. The case is not uncommon; indeed, the history of literary men is full of such, and, mistress or wife, the same pitiful comedy is enacted over and over again. He finds a woman who is as much his superior by the heart as he is hers by the head, and the union is from the beginning doomed to be unhappy. Its story is told by Matilde Serao with a grace and pathos altogether admirable, and quite worthy of the author's position among the very best of living Italian novelists.

It would be difficult, not to say impossible, not to admire the work of Gabriele d'Annunzio unreservedly when he writes poetry, with certain reserves when he writes prose, or at least when he writes novels. The prose in itself is beautiful; it can be reproached only with a polish perhaps excessive, and with having adopted, along with the naturalistic creed, some of the tricks of style of Zola and the brothers De Goncourt. It is with the matter rather than with the manner that we find fault, and our quarrel is, after all, rather with the school to which he has attached himself than with this or any other single work emanating from it.

The protagonist of 'Trionfo della Morte' has a certain aristocratic refinement and fastidiousness both of taste and of character; make the most of it—it is his only virtue. He is worthless as son, brother, and nephew; as a lover he is purely and simply an animal. For the rest he is a *décadent* with a touch of madness about him. His mistress is but a pale character, little besides a body, and that a diseased one. Such as it is, it has no mysteries for us. Clothed and unclothed, we are allowed to know everything about it that she, or her lover, or her doctor could know, and we follow it through all its actions and sufferings for several seasons, including much that could have no legitimate interest for any one but herself or, at most, her companion. The chief interest of the book centres in the latter. The study of the mental states of a man of intelligence and sensibility, weak, morbid, and corrupt though he be, may not be agreeable, may not even be wholesome reading, but, executed with the mingled delicacy and force brought by the author to the task, it holds the attention from beginning to end. Not that there is no temptation to skip. The main thread of the story, painful and often exasperating, is set off by episodes some of which could be endurable only to one who has an abnormal appetite for horrors. For instance, the description of the pilgrimage to the Shrine of Our Lady of Casalbordino is wonderful in its vigor and clearness. The crowd of the ignorant, the superstitious, the afflicted in mind and body, together with the beggars, the charlatans, the swindlers who prey upon them, the spectacle of loathsome diseases and infirmities, of squalor, filth, and all imaginable forms of baseness that are brought together on such occasions—all this is given with an accumulation of details that would be simply stupefying were it not for the intensity of the author's vision. You seem to see, to hear, to smell, to suffer and be disgusted with him, until finally, in spite of the fascination of his art, I fancy that few will not gladly take refuge in the reader's privilege of skipping.

There are other disagreeable episodes in the book—indeed, given its intention, it could scarcely be otherwise; but then again there are passages of rare beauty and interest. The landscapes about Albano and Monte Gargano are traced with a master hand; better yet, the master is a poet, and in his words the charm, the mystery, the suggestiveness of the scene are all embodied. Then, too, the life of the peasants of the Capitanata, with their legends, their superstitions, their picturesque outside, and the pathos of their ignorance, their sorrows and their patience, furnish material for chapters that are worth more than a cursory reading. The artistic instinct of the author has made him invest his tragedy with every splendor of execution and imagery at his command; his novel is a work of art, where each part, even the least, is finished as carefully as if it were a statue or a sonnet. In fact, it is poet's prose. Other writers, *e. g.*, Zola, may bestow as much care on their style, but that is not all. The sentences of Gabriele d'Annunzio have the music, the indefinable charm, the sentiment of poetry. On occasion they are decorated with the ornaments usually reserved for verse alone. An effect very like that of a refrain is obtained by repetitions of a sentence. For instance, a certain brook that flows transparent over the pebbles and under a fringe of poplar-trees appears again and again, always described in the same words; and these, in fact, are so well chosen that any change in them would be for the worse. Also, the reveries of the protagonist about an uncle whom he had loved in youth are invariably accompanied by a portrait in which no touch is ever changed; and a description of Orvieto is repeated word for word. But, with exquisite art, the image of the uncle Demetrio is given in a solemn, almost mystical cadence, in which the very tone takes on the sentiment of reverie and memory, while the little picture of Orvieto is like a cameo of Gautier for delicate finish.

One may wish, then, that the author had chosen to tell us about persons for whom it would be easier to feel something like sympathy, that his main subject had been something other than the ups and downs of a passion almost entirely animal, that he had not espoused an artistic creed which accepts things as worthy of careful delineation in direct ratio to their disagreeableness. And yet one must

own that he has given us a work of art of a high order, and that he has succeeded in investing a story of mortal corruption "with light, with music, and with perfume." The effect recalls certain martyrdoms of Rubens, where the most delightful carnations, the genial force of the master, are lavished upon a scene of the most revolting horror. Such a book can appeal only to the limited public that is solicitous of perfection in art, or the other, equally limited, that is interested in morbid psychology. Between the two, perhaps aided somewhat by fashion, the novels of Gabriele d'Annunzio reach always a certain number of editions, and are beginning to excite attention also in France. It is not easy to believe that the sentence from Nietzsche that is printed at the head of this volume can have more than a partial application:

"Es giebt Bücher welche für Seele und Gesundheit einen umgekehrten Werth haben, je nachdem die niedere Seele, die niedrigere Lebenskraft, oder aber die höhere und gewaltigere sich ihrer bedienen: im ersten Falle sind es gefährliche, erbröckelnde, auflösende Bücher, im anderen Heroldsrufe, welche die Tapfersten zu ihrer Tapferkeit herausfordern."

Leaving aside the question of the truth of this sentence, it may be that the present work may be dangerous, disintegrating, and dissolvent for some minds, but it can scarcely be for any more than an artistic pleasure, and in no wise a trumpet-call to moral courage.

It is refreshing once in a while to get hold of a novel that does not turn upon a breach of the seventh commandment, and we are grateful to Sig. Rovetta for putting this sin into the background of his action. 'La Baraonda' (which may be translated Babel or Babylon) is the world of bogus enterprises, of sham patriotism, of easy manners and adventures. The hero, Matteo Cantasirena, carries his impudence, his mendacity, his dexterity in manipulating men and circumstances in his own interest to a heroic height. He is by turns patriot, newspaper editor, originator of grand schemes, failing periodically and always getting again upon his feet. His character is admirably drawn and sustained; one may trust its lifelikeness to be recognized outside of Italy. The minor characters are also done to the life—the two soi-disant nieces who are the accomplices of Matteo, the others who are his victims, the German banker Kloss, as great a rascal as goes unhung, who, however, keeps within the bounds of legality and encompasses the downfall of Matteo. The crash comes in the break-up of a sort of lesser Panama—a scheme for uniting all the greater streams of northern Italy by a system of canals, in which the only work really done is the emission of shares and the attempted manufacture of a confiding public for them. As might be surmised, nobody in such a world is of much value; the dupes are weak and the others are rogues.

The author's tale of it is cleverly told, is good of its sort. The fault may be mine if I do not find its merits even greater, but I confess that, after reading even greedily a straightforward story of sharpers and their surroundings, I am apt at the end to be a prey to serious doubts as to the value of the entertainment. It is probably because the tone of the narrator so often echoes that of the world of which he tells. Thackeray describes Vanity Fair, and Balzac, even without visible moral purpose, delineates every turpitude of modern life, and we have no shadow of doubt as to the quality of the performance; but one's serious judgment takes a sort of revenge upon the minor artist who may have amused us with the same spectacle. This may involve a certain injustice, but it is inevitable if we would hold high our standard of literary excellence. In the case of Sig. Rovetta, his 'Baraonda' has so much the character of really good work that I hesitate to apply to it these remarks; but then somehow it has suggested them. S. K.

Correspondence.

THE VICIOUS CIRCLE OF OUR CURRENCY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to call your attention to a phase of the silver question:

A and B are rival bankers in a small town in Illinois, and there is bitter enmity between them. In exchanging checks, A has balances against B amounting each week to about four thousand dollars. B, to "get even," insists on paying with silver dollars, which he gets from the assistant United States treasurer free of all charges. A must accept them, and each week sends several thousand silver dollars to his banker in Springfield, who ships them to Chicago at one dollar per thousand express charges. So they go in a circle every week, causing trouble, expense, and many bad words.

Very truly, H.

Springfield, Ill., January 19, 1895.

CONFEDERATE STATISTICS ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is, I feel sure, not the desire of so able and broad-minded a journal as the *Nation* to do intentional injustice to any one, yet the friends of the late Gen. D. H. Hill cannot help feeling that in your issue of December 20, 1894, you seriously misjudge that officer.

In criticising his report of the numerical strength of his division in the battles of South Mountain and Antietam, you say:

"His statistical returns to the adjutant-general on September 22 reported 5,071 as the effective force of officers and men present for duty—a quick resurrection of the annihilated division! It is not pretended that he received any reinforcements. His killed and his wounded he reported at 2,316, and, adding these to the number present after the battle, it is proved that he had at least 7,387 on the 13th of September, leaving out the missing."

From the 13th to the 22d there were two battles fought, and this report of 7,387 men present was made five days after the last of these.

Is there not a fallacy in this method of estimating the number of troops present at a given time? Try it by an analogous case. On the 22d of September (the same date as Hill's report), Hooker's corps, according to the itemized field returns for that day (Official Records, Series 1, Part 2, p. 349) had present for duty 15,239 officers and men. Now, applying your method of proof, this corps must have had, on any immediately antecedent date, say the 18th, this number, 15,239, plus the casualties of any intervening battles. It so happens, however, that there were no casualties in these four days. So, by this plan, "it is proved" that on the 18th this corps must have had 15,239 officers and men present for duty. But from the field returns of General Meade (p. 349) we find that it actually had only 6,364! No reinforcements had come to this corps. Simply 8,875 men had, according to this official count, been, by the incidents of war, separated from their commands, but were back for duty by the 22d.

If, then, Hooker's corps could in four days increase, by the return of its scattered men, 8,875, was it so utterly impossible for Hill's division, from the same cause, to increase 71 men in nine days? I say 71 men, because he reported his division at 5,000 on the 13th and at 5,071 on the 22d, nine days later. The returning men, scattered by nearly a month's (from August 20) marching and fighting, but getting back into place with the end of the campaign, just about counterbalanced his casualties.

That Gen. Hill was right in his statement of his strength on the 13th is shown (1) by official testimony. You insist on the returns of the adjutant-general. Adjutant-General W. H. Taylor of the Army of Northern Virginia says that Hill had less than 5,000 men at South Mountain ('Battles and Leaders,' vol. ii, p. 578, editor's note). (2.) By historical testimony. Lossing ('History of the Civil War,' vol. ii, p. 469), Swinton ('Army of the Potomac,' p. 202), Longstreet (article on Maryland campaign, 'Battles and Leaders,' vol. ii, p. 665), and others all substantially corroborate this figure. (3.) By the testimony of his subordinates in their reports, Hill had, on the morning of the 14th, five brigades, numbering on that morning as follows:

Rodes's, official report	1,250
Garland's (Garland was killed), McRae, his successor, reports less than	1,000
Anderson's (killed, no report), Col. F. M. Parker says	1,000
Ripley's (gives no numbers in report), Col. W. L. DeRossett says	1,230
Colquitt's	1,100
	5,580

If Garland's and Anderson's brigades were both under the numbers used in the summary, we see that Gen. Hill is perfectly borne out.

D. H. Hill, Jr.

Raleigh, N. C.

[The capital fact which we have insisted upon is, that both armies had a system of statistical reports, made for the purpose of having records of statistics from which there should be no appeal. These are known as the adjutant-general's returns. They are the *only* authority as to numbers present, absent on duty, sick, etc. They are made at regular and frequent intervals, they carry forward the comparison with last reports, they account for all changes, and "prove" like a merchant's books.

Other official reports are made of strategical movements, of battles and skirmishes, of marches and retreats. This second class often refers to numbers in a general way, but is in no sense intended to be, nor is in fact, statistical reporting. That is specially provided for, as we have stated. When the reports of battles, etc., in mentioning numbers, differ from the official statistical returns of the adjutant-general's office, the latter are the only authoritative criterion. Having access to a merchant's books, we do not fix his debits and credits by his casual correspondence, or his accounts of his business given on the street—we go to his books of account.

This is precisely what we have asserted with regard to army history. The official "books of account" are the statistical returns of the adjutant-general. They are

the appointed and only authority for figures. They must be applied to the National army and to the Confederates alike. The examples of doing otherwise which we gave in our reply to Gen. Fitzhugh Lee's note show the transparent sophistry of so doing. Further debate only makes this plainer.

All real students of the history of our civil war have been eagerly awaiting the completed publication of the Official Records, for the purpose of having these statistics put beyond dispute. It must be regarded as a dishonesty to ignore their authority, or talk of any descriptive reports of battles as if they could override these official statistics. Books which were written and published before the official publication, were excusable for using such evidence as was then available; now, writers are not. One of the authors named by Mr. Hill uses the identical sophisms which we exposed, in quoting estimates in round numbers and mere hearsay in contradiction of the official statistics. The only strong apology for Gen. D. H. Hill's descriptive report would be to say that he did not pretend to accuracy in his "round numbers," knowing that the statistical tables had been forwarded and would be referred to if accurate figures were wanted.

The reference to Gen. Meade's report of the numbers in Hooker's corps, after the battle of Antietam, does not militate against our position, but directly confirms it. He distinctly says his division commanders have been ordered "to account for the increase," and make these statistical tables tally with those that have gone before. Neither Union nor Confederate writers of any authority have used the reduced figures of Hooker's straggling corps in estimating the total of McClellan's army in the Antietam campaign. The wrong method we criticised was (among other things) the deduction of stragglers on the Confederate side while this was not done as to the National side.

If the discussion shall impress on the reading public the indisputable fact that there are official statistical tables which are the ultimate and only appeal on both sides, and must be used alike on both, the common sophistry which we have exposed will disappear from the treatment of our civil war. As the Southern archives were only partly saved, the discussion of Confederate numbers sometimes makes it necessary to argue backward from a subsequent report (an antecedent one being missing); while the regular series on the National side, being complete, saves the necessity of this. The data, however, are generally clear, and arithmetic is competent to deal with them conclusively.—Ed. Nation.]

CHARLES BRYANT IN ALASKA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter of Mr. John W. Bingham, in your paper of the 3d inst., criticising my article, "A Chapter of Alaska," in the January number of the *New England Magazine*, must either have been most carelessly written, or else shows a spirit unworthy of any true critic. I am quite willing, however, to answer its strictures.

(1.) No claim is made that Capt. Bryant ever did set foot on Alaskan soil prior to 1868, though it is true that he had done so at uninhabited points for wood and water, and sometimes when near the shore to let the men get a touch of the land. It was well known to all whalers that the Russians were opposed to having vessels other than their own come into their ports.

(2.) Mr. Bingham's assertion that Capt. Bryant made "only two or three cruises in the North Pacific" is incorrect. Capt. Bryant spent seventeen years in that region.

(3.) No claim is made in the article that Capt. Bryant ever did command a whale-ship as captain. He held the position of first mate, acting as captain only when required. The title of captain was frequently disclaimed by him; but, as often happens, it has become so fixed by popular usage that he is never called by any other name.

(4.) The article does not claim that Capt. Bryant was acquainted with the habits of the seals and the conditions of the islands previous to his residence there in 1869. Nor was *any one* so acquainted. Mr. Bingham says that "neither Bryant nor McIntyre knew anything about the seal-islands," and that "their reports were not the result of any study of the seal-life." The truth is, that in 1869 Capt. Bryant made a close and special study of the seals; up to that time even the best naturalists had been ignorant of the peculiar and distinctive habits of the *fur*-seals, so entirely different from any other of their species. As a result of Capt. Bryant's observations and special study in 1869, his reports were published the following year, giving *the first* account of seal-life in detail. This knowledge was obtained by observation of the seals in their nurseries and by the aid of the most intelligent natives. As it was necessary that a Russian clerk be employed as interpreter, Capt. Bryant asked that Mr. S. N. Buynitsky, one of the department clerks at Washington, be sent up to assist him in taking charge of one of the islands; and this man remained there during the winter of 1870, while Capt. Bryant was called to Washington in consultation. The Russian creole referred to by Mr. Bingham was employed as a translator by the commander of the revenue vessel sent up to protect our interests—a department of the service entirely outside Capt. Bryant's jurisdiction.

(5.) Mr. Bingham's assertion that Capt. Bryant was sent up to the seal-islands by Boutwell to watch the "bad men of the leasing company, and Dr. McIntyre in especial," is absurd. Dr. McIntyre left his position in Washington to act as assistant to our new collector of customs at Sitka, and he and Capt. Bryant coöperated in all necessary ways. He resumed his former position in Washington the following year, and afterwards resigned to serve as business manager in the employ of the A. C. Co., remaining with them during the whole twenty years of their lease, till 1890. Capt. Bryant and Dr. McIntyre have always had the highest esteem for each other, and are still warm friends.

(6.) In Mr. Bingham's statement that Capt. Bryant "stayed there just as long as he could stay—seven years—until Bristow removed him," there is an insinuation as discourteous as it is ungrounded. He stayed as long as he wished, which was nine years, from 1868 to 1877; and he was not removed by Bristow nor by any one. At the time of our purchase Mr. Boutwell did not favor the project; but in 1869, when it came under his jurisdiction as head of the Treasury Department, as his knowledge of the matter widened, he fully approved Capt. Bryant's measures in administering the affairs of the islands, assuring him that he had the entire confidence and support of the officials at Washington. Later, after political reasons entered into the public affairs of Alaska, Capt. Bryant resigned in due course, under Sherman's administration of the department, and retired to private life for private reasons. I should be very glad, as I am sure Capt. Bryant would be, to have anybody who cares about this matter refer either to Mr. Boutwell or Mr. Sherman as to the truth. Prof. Agassiz, Prof. Benjamin Peirce, and Mr. Blaine—all of whom were so familiar with Capt. Bryant's work—are dead, or they could add their emphatic testimony; but it is not necessary, for these things were not done in a corner.

(7.) The researches of Charles Sumner for material for his famous speech on the ratification of the treaty were thorough and far-reaching; for, as his biographer says, "no complete description of the territory existed, and his collection of facts treated of its fisheries, furs, timber, minerals, physical features, commerce, climate, history, and inhabitants, as also its possibilities in its new character as a possession of the United States." Among these sources of information was the testimony of Charles Bryant, which Mr. Sumner did seek, did acknowledge, did use, and did value. "Flimsy notes of whales and weather" (*vide* Mr. Bingham) were not sought nor needed. The emphasis which Mr. Bingham gives to this particular misstatement is sufficient to discredit all else which he has to say. Volume xi. of Sumner's Works contains the speech on "The Cession of Russian America," pp. 181-350. In this speech Mr. Sumner not only quotes verbatim from one of Capt. Bryant's letters, but makes this further reference: "His report goes beyond any chart of soundings I have seen, although the charts are coincident as far as they go." It may be said here that Mr. Sumner here speaks of Capt. Bryant as "Charles Bryant, Esq., a member of the Massachusetts Legislature," and also as "the retired shipmaster," thus courteously recognizing his standing. Capt. Bryant's journals and letters, containing a faithful record of his observations, were known to various scientific men, who recognized their high value, and Sumner was led by them to seek that information which he at any rate deemed sufficiently important to incorporate in his speech. At the date of Mr. Sumner's speech, the history of the seal-islands had not begun; to this end Charles Bryant was *selected* to go out as the honored agent of our Government, fully empowered and intrusted by the highest authorities in the United States to legislate for the good of all concerned. His success is a matter of history, and his records became a guide to those who have succeeded him.

(8.) Capt. Bryant's reports, sent to Washington yearly, are there on record, and are consulted by all in search of information in that line. They are not only valued as reliable, but have been spoken of as remarkable for their clearness and condensation. The 'History of the North American Pinnipeds,' No. xii., by Prof. J. A. Allen of Cambridge, published in Washington in 1880, by the Department of the Interior, contains a study of seal-life by Mr. Bryant, which should be seen in connection; and at the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy

at Cambridge are several specimens of fur-seals contributed by him.

If such work, the work of a man who was never self-seeking, but who gave his best efforts to improving the conditions of a simple people and to the faithful performance of a public trust, be the fruit of "illiteracy," then may the seed of such illiteracy be sown broadcast over the land. C. E. CABOT.

BOSTON, January 12, 1895.

P. S.—"J. A.," in your paper of the 10th inst., is writing of some other man. The Charles Bryant of the *New England* "Chapter" made his first voyage, a short one, in 1840-'41, on the Atlantic sperm-grounds, in the brig *Montezuma;* his second cruise was on the *Julian*, from 1841-'44, through the Pacific Ocean to the northwest coast, and in the region between British Columbia and the Peninsula of Alaska—a very successful voyage. His third cruise was as third mate of the *Nimrod*, in the North Pacific from 1845-'48, returning as second mate. His fourth cruise was from 1848-'51, in the Bering and Arctic Seas, returning as second mate. His fifth cruise was from 1851-'54, on the *Euphrates*, returning as first mate; and his sixth cruise, from October, 1854, to May, 1858, was as first mate on the *John Howland* of New Bedford, Capt. Alex. Taylor. These facts are on record, and go to prove "J. A.'s" criticism of no value.

I thank "H." for his fairly stated word of corroboration. But he makes one error in speaking of Capt. Bryant as *assistant agent*. Charles Bryant was *never* assistant agent; he was the chief, the head, the Special Agent of our Government on the seal-islands, the first one sent up there; and he held his position for nine successive years. C. E. C.

BOSTON, January 14, 1895.

[We can publish nothing more on this subject.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

PROF. THOMAS EGLESTON of the School of Mines, Columbia College, is preparing a revised and enlarged edition of his 'Life of John Paterson' of the Revolutionary Army, and desires information and documents of any kind bearing upon Gen. Paterson's career. He will bear the expense of transcripts of such papers. His publishers, G. P. Putnam's Sons, announce further: 'Personal Recollections of War Times, 1861-'65,' by Albert Gallatin Riddle; 'A Literary History of the English People,' by J. J. Jusserand; the third volume of Traill's 'Social England'; 'Voice, Speech, and Gesture,' by Hugh Campbell and others.

D. Appleton & Co. announce 'The Pygmies,' by A. de Quatrefages.

Ufer's 'Introduction to the Pedagogy of Herbart,' translated by J. C. Zinser, is nearly ready to be published by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Ginn & Co. will issue in March Defoe's 'Journal of the Plague Year,' edited by Byron S. Hurlbut of Harvard College.

'Dr. Judas' is the title of a work by an opium-eater, William Rosser Cobbe, relating to the habit, and to be published by S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago.

The Hartford Seminary Press will issue immediately a second (revised) edition of Davis's 'Vocabulary of New Testament Words.'

'Transplanted Manners,' by Elizabeth E. Evans, is about to be published by Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London (New York: Scribners). The scene of the novel is laid in "Pension Irgendwo," a boarding-house on a German lake, where persons from different countries come together and exhibit their individual and national traits of character.

The Scribners publish 'Venezia,' adapted by Mrs. Arthur Bell (N. D'Anvers) from the German of Henry Perl, and illustrated by 210 drawings by Venetian artists. The text is a mere vehicle for the illustrations, and is of the sketchy, not to say sloppy, order common to such publications. The illustrations are remarkably good, and succeed as well as possible in conveying some idea of that wonderful sea-city, which cannot be represented in black-and-white, and has never been adequately rendered even in color. We cannot commend what Mr. H. D. Traill, in his introduction, calls the "richly but chastely decorated covers."

We have received four additional volumes of the International Limited Edition of the Waverley Novels, namely, 'Redgauntlet,' two, and 'The Betrothed' and 'The Talisman,' one each (Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co). Mr. Lang expatiates with warm praise on 'Redgauntlet,' for its qualities Shaksperian and autobiographic, and this volume has also much the best etched illustrations—since they are nearly all scenic. Apart from a few character-studies, the figure designs are feeble almost without exception. Of the two Crusader novels Mr. Lang prefers 'The Betrothed,' which he had never read till called upon by his present editorial function so to do. It is not amiss to remark that we are now arrived at the thirty-eighth volume in this series, and that ten more remain to be issued in this country, whereas across the water the conclusion was reached by the end of August last! Is not this one more indictment against a copyright act which compels a protected book to be manufactured in this country?

The appearance of Prof. A. S. Cook's 'Glossary of the Old Northumbrian Gospels' (Halle: Niemeyer; New York: Westermann) will be hailed with satisfaction by philologists on both continents. Though complete in itself, the Glossary is the first instalment of the author's long-expected work on the Old Northumbrian dialect, and its publication gives promise of the early completion of that arduous and important undertaking. The inconsiderate are prone to regard glossarizing as mechanical toil. This judgment, wrong in any case, would be ludicrously wide of the mark in the present instance. The mass of material here scientifically arranged could not have been even collected—to say nothing of its codification—without a profound knowledge of the Anglo-Saxon dialects. In other words, the Glossary not only implies the systematic Grammar—not yet published, though nearly ready—but much else which we hope Prof. Cook will not allow to slumber in his note-books. The *Nation* is not the place for the minute examination of a work addressed solely to specialists. We must therefore rest content with expressing in general terms our appreciation of the author's fidelity, learning, and acumen. The Glossary is in the highest degree creditable to American scholarship, and will do much to establish the study of Anglo-Saxon dialectology on a firm basis.

Students of English owe much to Professor Wülker of Leipzig for his latest service to science—the publication of a photographic reproduction of the Vercelli MS. ('Codex Vercellensis: Die angelsächsische Handschrift zu Vercelli in getreuer Nachbildung.' Leipzig: Veit & Co.). The four chief collections of Anglo-Saxon verse are the Beowulf MS. in the British Museum, the Cædmon MS. in the Bodleian, the Exeter MS. in the Cathedral Library, and the Codex Vercellensis. The last-named is of course rather inaccessible, though more than one enthusiastic scholar has braved the dulness and the discomforts of an Italian provincial town for its sake. The present facsimile puts this precious document into the hands of anybody who cares to pay a very moderate sum to possess it. It reduces the size of the pages by one-half, but is singularly clear and legible. The only exception to its legibility is at folio 54*a*, where a great smear, the result of some one's use of a reagent, defaces the original. Only the poetical part of the codex, or about a quarter of the whole, is reproduced, the remaining three-fourths containing prose homilies of minor interest. In a brief introduction Professor Wülker discusses the question how the manuscript got to Vercelli.

M. Henry Bordeaux's 'Âmes Modernes' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.) is a series of studies of very modern writers, Ibsen, Loti, Hérédia, Lemaître, Rod, and Villiers de l'Isle Adam, preceded by a chapter on "Symbolic Characters." M. Bordeaux dares be true to his convictions, and his admiration of Ibsen, on grounds clearly established by him, is noteworthy in presence of the discredit cast upon that dramatist by Sarcey and Lemaître; but M. Bordeaux is a philosopher. The chapter on Villiers de l'Isle Adam is worth much more than the whole book on that remarkable writer which was recently noticed in these columns. M. Bordeaux may seem a trifle heavy at times, but it is weight of thought which is the cause of this defect of style.

After an interval of three years, Mr. James Clegg, Rochdale, England, has issued a fourth and enlarged edition of his very useful and trustworthy 'International Directory of Second-Hand Booksellers and Bibliophile's Manual,' including lists of the world's public libraries, publishers, book-collectors, learned societies and institutions, theological colleges, Burns clubs, etc. Stress is laid upon the fulness of the list of public libraries, but in the case of the United States it is obvious that the half has not been told, although there is no hint at any limitation based on size, and generally, perhaps, the number of volumes is not stated—a defect from the bookseller's point of view. But the buyer of this little book abundantly gets his money's worth.

A new contribution to the already voluminous Bismarck literature is Wilhelm von Bülow's 'Neue Bismarck-Erinnerungen' (Berlin: Steinitz). The reminiscences go back to Bismarck's first meeting with Prince Wilhelm (afterwards Wilhelm I.) at a court ball, not in 1844, as here stated, but in the winter of 1835-6, and consist chiefly of lively anecdotes, which are entertaining reading, but do not add anything of importance to our knowledge, or modify our appreciation, of the German diplomatist and statesman.

More systematic in arrangement and more satisfactory as a biography is Wilhelm Buchner's 'Feldmarschall Graf Helmut von Moltke' (Lahr: Schauenburg), which has been issued as a "Festgabe" for the celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the decisive battle of Sedan. The author's aim is, as he expresses it, to trace the growth of the inner man, and to disclose Moltke's *Gemüthsleben*, or the emotional side of his nature. In so doing he quotes largely from the letters of the distin-

guished field-marshal, which have been, for the most part, already printed. The frontispiece is a portrait of Moltke from a photograph taken in 1872.

The London *Bookman* is to have an American edition, under the direction of Prof. H. T. Peck of Columbia and James Macarthur, with a corps of American assistants. Dodd, Mead & Co. will give it their imprint.

Prof. H. B. Hulbert and Dr. H. G. Appenzeller of Seoul propose to reissue the *Korean Repository*, which flourished in 1892. This monthly magazine will be devoted to literary, scientific, linguistic, and archæological matters, while giving a monthly digest of news in the Land of Morning Calm.

Mr. A. W. Pollard takes the floor in the December *Portfolio* (Macmillan), and discourses with competence on "Italian Book Illustrations, chiefly of the Fifteenth Century." Venice and Florence furnish his longest chapters, and in the latter much attention is given to the illustrated Savonarola literature. He plausibly suggests a kinship between Francesco Buonaccorsi, who printed the earliest dated Savonarola tract, and the monk himself, a member of that family, whereby "Savonarola may have had some direct share in the introduction of artistic book-illustration in Florence." His sermons, at all events, show that "he was keenly alive to the service which art might render to the cause of religion." Mr. Pollard lays stress on the fact that it was the needs of the humbler and non-literary classes that induced book-illustration; the wealthy went without, or employed hand-work. He has a weighty and very just general remark that "the books which have been designed to please the eyes of a more cultivated class . . . have seldom been entirely successful. The soberness of printed books appears to resent attempts at too great magnificence, and few artists of note, when they have attempted book-illustration, have worked with any due sense of the limitations imposed on them by the necessities of the press." This monograph is very abundantly illustrated from early examples; most curious, perhaps, being the "Triumph of Love" of the 1499 Florence edition of Petrarch's "Trionfi," but derived from another source than the unique copy in the Victor Emanuel library at Rome, which was facsimiled a year or two ago. Pacini, the publisher, reproduced it on the title-page of another work in 1508.

The January number of the *Portfolio* is a monograph on "The Early Work of Raphael," by Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady). Under this title is included everything the artist did during his Umbrian and Florentine periods and up to the time of his departure for Rome in 1508. Mrs. Ady closely follows Morelli, and her text may be taken as giving the current conclusions with regard to Raphael's work during this period; and the illustrations, as usual in this publication, are excellent. The frontispiece is an admirable photogravure of the charming "Madonna del Granduca."

A most attractive field for the archæologist and explorer is described by Mr. G. R. Lees in the *Geographical Journal* for January, in his account of a recent journey across southern Bashan. The character of this little-known region on the east of the Jordan is rapidly changing with the advent of the Circassians, who have been planted here in considerable numbers by the Turkish Government. The deserted sites of ancient cities, as Amman, the former Rabbath-Ammon, or Philadelphia, for instance, are becoming towns full of life and activity. But this returning population means the destruction of many priceless monuments of the times of the Roman occupation, and possibly of earlier races, which are scattered over these plains. At one place "masons were at work splitting the large stones" of ruined temples and churches "for the erection and completion of houses." The Bedawin, according to Mr. Lees, are gradually being dispossessed of their country by the newcomers, who are "a people not only more industrious, but more religious, and more inclined to pay the taxes." Several ruined cities, hitherto unknown, were discovered, and some inscriptions obtained, but the hostility of the natives made a thorough exploration impossible. Other articles are upon Mashonaland and the Westland Alps of New Zealand, whose glaciers show an astonishing rapidity of movement, the maximum observation being 207 inches per day. Prof. Coleman of Toronto describes a journey to Mount Brown at the source of the Athabasca, which he found to be about 9,000 feet high, instead of nearly 16,000 feet, the altitude usually given to it by geographers.

"The Economic Development of Canada" is the subject of a suggestive article by Sir Charles Tupper in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January. From a large array of statistics we take the most important facts. The railway system has increased since 1867 from 2,000 miles to over 15,000. A tonnage of more than a million tons places the Dominion "fifth in the list of ship-owning countries," between Germany and France. The aggregate trade has almost doubled since confederation, amounting to nearly $250,000,000 in 1893, while the interprovincial trade has grown from four to one hundred millions of dollars. In industries, Canadian cheese "is rapidly supplanting American cheese in the British market." In 1873 and 1893 the exports of this article were respectively 24,000,000 lbs. and 134,000,000 lbs., in round numbers. The exports of the United States for 1881 and 1893 were 147,000,000 lbs. and 81,000,000 lbs.; this latter figure being 10,000,000 lbs. below the return for 1873. The efforts of the Government to promote the dairy industry "by sending travelling dairies, with competent instructors and lecturers, throughout the different provinces, for the practical demonstration of the best methods of manufacture, packing, and marketing," it is hoped will produce a corresponding development of this industry. The McKinley tariff has proved a blessing in disguise by stimulating Canadians to find new markets for their products. Illustrating the paper is a valuable series of maps and diagrams showing the routes to Canada, its political divisions, orography, geology, rainfall, temperature, aggregate trade, trade exchanges, exports, imports, and bank deposits.

It is to be regretted that the strange variations in the character of seasons from year to year have been subjected to so little really careful investigation. From the so-called "blackberry winter" of Arkansas and Kentucky, when an abnormal lowering of temperature during May, while blackberries are in blossom, is said to insure an abundant supply of fruit, to the sudden Florida "norther" which ruins the orange crop, the industries of half the country at large are affected more or less seriously by vagaries of climate. Some of the causes of these irregularities are investigated, in the *American Meteorological Journal* for January, by H. Gawthrop, who ventures the conclusion that variations in the character of the seasons must be traced through all effects of diurnal and seasonal insolation, and of cyclonic storms in the lower air, to the immense, ever-flowing westerly current above. This great atmospheric flow is likened to a vast river, with a swift current in the middle, but which oscillates north and south with the sun, varying also with the character of the continents and oceans over which it passes. Other influences are cited, the wide-reaching and high cyclones of the tropics among them; and the writer's final result seems to be that accurate forecasts of our seasons can be made only when this great unnamed river of the atmosphere, gaining its first impulse from the rotation of the earth, shall have become thoroughly known from highest-altitude observations.

The "invitation" of ladies to the ordinary meetings of the Royal Astronomical Society of London is dealt with in recent printed announcements directing the attention of fellows to the fact that ladies are admitted to such evening meetings of the society only "by special invitation of the president, sanctioned by the Council," the invitations being issued at the commencement of each session. It is to be hoped that the penalty to any fellow assisting any lady in running this blockade of formality is a gentle one, and to the lady gentler still.

Two portions of the succinct report of Newnham College, Cambridge, for 1893-94 possess general interest, viz., that which contains an account of the presentation of the Clough memorial gates (November 3, 1894), and a tabular statement of the present occupations of former students. The wish of the Newnham students who had been privileged to reside there during the rule of the noble woman whose quiet firmness and womanly tact did so much to advance the higher education of women in England, was to contribute a memorial which should, by some outward and visible sign, "associate together the name of Miss Clough and the college so long as the college should exist." Beautiful and costly bronze gates, fashioned mainly by handwork, in the roadway between the old and the new halls, were the selection of the committee in charge. A balance of £80 becomes the nucleus of a fund placed in the Principal's hands, "open for a term of years, to all who may desire to contribute to it," and to be used, in small grants, for the assistance of students. Of the 720 students who left Newnham from October, 1871, to June, 1893, sixteen deaths and thirty-seven foreigners gone home give a remainder of 667 to be accounted for in active life. Of these, 374 (or about 56 per cent.) have taken teaching for a profession; 245 of these are head or assistant mistresses in public, endowed, or private schools, 23 are private governesses, 27 are teaching in the United States or the colonies; the rest are lecturers, visiting teachers, etc. Of those students not professionally engaged in teaching, about 230 are living at home, 108 being married; five are engaged in medical work, two are missionaries, one has taken up market-gardening, one is a bookbinder, several are doing charity-organization work, and the small residue "are mainly engaged in secretarial work." It is doubtful whether this collegiate record of professional usefulness can be proportionally matched by any graduate list from colleges for either sex, either in Great Britain or in the United States.

At a recent meeting of the society organized less than a year ago for the purpose of founding a Mädchen-Gymnasium in Munich, Bavaria, it was resolved to proceed at once to the establishment of such an institution with eight classes, in connection with the public schools. This resolution indicates a laudable energy on

the part of the society in accomplishing the object for which it was formed.

We have the following from a distant reader: "In the *Nation's* last issue of 1894, the correspondent who shows that Yale College was founded on books and not on brawn, brings to mind the fact that Harvard also had a similar foundation. In 1638, before one tree had been felled for building the proposed college, the will of John Harvard bequeathed to that institution, together with one-half of his estate valued at £779 17s. 2d., his whole library of 320 volumes. A list of all these books is preserved in the University archives, though all the volumes themselves save one were burned in 1764. But they had been for more than a century and a quarter placed where they would do the most good. The catalogue ought to be published *in extenso*. It had Bacon's name—but not Shakspere's. Greek was represented there by Homer, Isocrates, Plutarch, and Lucan; Latin by Pliny, Sallust, Terence, Juvenal, and Horace."

—The *Psychological Review* (Macmillan) for January opens with a somewhat detailed "appreciation" of the late Prof. Helmholtz, by his colleague, Prof. Stumpf of Berlin, whose qualifications no one will doubt who is familiar with Stumpf's work on the theory of sound-sensation and music, in his 'Tonpsychologie.' The title of the article, "Hermann von Helmholtz and the New Psychology," will indicate to our readers the scope of Prof. Stumpf's admirably discriminating and sensible article. We are especially struck with the remarks on the theories of "unconscious judgment" and "specific energies," the two points of view, one in physiology and the other in psychology, which gave Helmholtz and his friends most embarrassment, and on the matter of which—as Stumpf notes explicitly in what he says of specific energies—the world is not yet much wiser than Helmholtz was. His passing suggestion of a comparison of Helmholtz with Darwin certainly strikes one as a "putting together of incommensurables"; and yet if we draw the circumscribing horizon of discourse wide enough, the comparison is instructive Americans will note with sadness, especially those who met Helmholtz in Chicago and elsewhere, that it was during his absence from home, on account of our Columbian Exposition, that he met the beginning of his end. In the same article Prof. Stumpf intimates that the new edition of Helmholtz's 'Physiologische Optik,' which has been so long in execution, will be finished with only bibliographical alterations of the old edition. In the same *Review*, medical readers will be interested in Dr. Starr's contribution to the problem of the "Location of the Muscular Sense in the Brain Cortex."

—Although as a rule we do not notice grammars, we mention 'A Text-Book of Modern Spanish,' by M. M. Ramsey, B.S. (New York: Henry Holt & Co.), because of the very great advance it shows over all existing Spanish grammars in English. This applies to almost every detail of the work. To begin with, the present use of the graphic accent in Spanish is, for the first time in an English book, clearly and accurately described as well as rigidly applied. This, it need hardly be said, will prove an immense relief to teachers who have had to struggle with the confusions and inconsistencies in this matter which abound in previous text-books. Passing to things of a more fundamental kind, we are struck by the fulness, clearness, and precision of statement everywhere shown; and, what is still more gratifying, we find this best exhibited where the difficulties of the subject most require it, *e. g.*, in the treatment of the uses and correspondence of tenses, of the passive voice, of the subjunctive mood, of the rules of agreement. If we were to make a criticism here, it would be to express a regret that the author has not more resolutely employed the grammatical categories which the grammarians of Greek and Latin have found so useful. By so doing he would, in our opinion, have made still clearer his excellent treatment of conditions, wishes, clauses of purpose, result, time, etc. On the other hand, we must congratulate Prof. Ramsey on the appositeness as well as on the fresh and idiomatic character of his numerous examples. His exercises, also, are much above the run of those in ordinary grammars, both for variety and for interest.

—The very thoroughness with which the author has done his work, however, suggests a question of considerable importance for future writers, not only of Spanish, but also of all modern-language grammars, namely, whether the time has not come for separating grammar proper from its usual accompaniments of vocabulary and practice-work, leaving the latter to be treated in special introductory manuals. The Greek and Latin grammarians long since adopted this plan, and with excellent results. Why should the grammarians of modern tongues persist in a clumsy, unscientific method, that meets the needs neither of the beginner nor of the advanced student? Is it wise, for example, for Prof. Ramsey to inflict upon the former a treatise of over six hundred and fifty pages, in which are combined a grammar, a rhetoric, a manual of conversation, and a language drill-book? It seems to us not. For, to say nothing of the unwieldy bulk of the book, the effect of the plan on the whole manner of treatment is often very unfortunate. The necessities of the practice-book constantly compel division and confusion in the discussion of grammatical principles; while, on the other hand, the full exposition of the latter frequently overbalances the real necessities of drill. We hope the time is not far distant when all the chief modern languages will be treated for beginners in practical elementary text-books, similar to the numerous excellent lesson-books in Latin and Greek; while the advanced student will be provided with systematic grammatical treatises like the best classical grammars. In the meantime, no serious student of Spanish can afford to be without Prof. Ramsey's work; and it may be that the skilful teacher will find a way to employ it successfully even in elementary instruction.

—After three years' experiment of an independent theatre as a personal venture, Mr. J. T. Grein announces its incorporation as "The Independent Theatre, Limited," with a modest capital of £4,500, represented by 3,500 ordinary shares of £1 each, and 1,000 founders' shares of the same value. The company proposes to continue and extend "the great service" which it is claimed the Independent Theatre has already rendered to the London stage, by the production for a limited series of performances of plays of artistic merit and literary interest, but of which the commercial value is uncertain. The main object will be, as hitherto, "not competition with other theatres, . . . but to assist them by discovering new authors of merit as well as new actors and actresses of talent." Experience having proved that it is impossible to cover the expenses by a single performance, each play in future will be given several times, probably a week in each case. Shareholders and "critics" will enjoy the exclusive privilege of first performances; the rest are intended to enlighten the general public. One source of income to the new company is a fixed percentage on the profits arising from any subsequent performances of these plays, Mr. Grein having also made over to the company all rights held by him in works already produced under his management. In addition to free seats, the glittering promise of a dividend is held out to shareholders, and every subscriber of 10 ordinary shares is entitled to 1 founders' share—the balance of these latter being allotted to Mr. Grein, "as his sole remuneration." The new season is now opening with "Thyrza Fleming," an original play by Miss Dorothy Leighton, who is associated with Mr. Grein as one of the two "permanent directors" of the corporation. Later a second performance will include Mr. William Heinemann's play, "The First Step," and during the year it is proposed to give advocates of the modern drama an opportunity to criticise native plays by Mr. George Bernard Shaw, Mr. Hubert Crackanthorpe, Mrs. Oscar Beringer, etc., besides translations of works by Ibsen, Edward Brandes, and Gerhart Hauptmann. It remains to be seen whether London playgoers are to place "on a sound footing an Independent Theatre, where good original works . . . may be sure of a sympathetic hearing."

—In No. 1 of vol. ii. of the Studies published by the University of Nebraska, Mr. E. H. Barbour presents "Additional Notes on the new Fossil, Daimonelix," with twelve process plates. Since the previous publications on the subject, continued search has discovered "some of the best specimens that can ever be found." "The author still counts them anomalous and entirely unique." They occur, below a foot or two of flint, at all depths in the upper two hundred feet of a bed of sand rock more than six hundred feet in thickness, between the Niobrara and the White Rivers of Northwestern Nebraska and Southwestern Dakota, near Pine Ridge. Each fossil is a long, cylindrical body, of several inches in diameter, that descends with an incline varying in different cases from twenty to forty degrees, from a particular level to a depth of five to eight feet, and thence ascends vertically in a closely wound spiral, rising ten inches or more in each circuit, to the level from which it started. "Devil's corkscrews," "twisters," etc., are local names alluding to the spiral portion. The outer portion of each is filled with cellular tissue which in more limited amount extends into the interior. Mr. Barbour says, "The fossil, strange as it may seem, stands undetermined. It has been visited and examined by some of the best botanists, geologists, and palæontologists, and yet none can pass judgment upon it." Various interpretations are discussed, without reaching definite conclusions. If the fossils were burrows, he says, he does not believe they were made on the slopes of hills, or around the edges of a retreating sea, or that they were made under water; he is not certain whether they were burrows or plants, whether the burrower lined his burrow with plants, or whether the plants grew there; he does believe, however, that the fossils were either made or grew where they are found as the sediment was deposited. Our author has indulged in too much mystification. A reasonable interpretation of his data is that the fossils are casts of burrows made in front of an advancing sea at the surface of sands laid down

by the winds (or, possibly, laid down and left bare for a time by the waters), the cellular structure being that of vegetation which found a favoring lodgment in the accretions of the walls of the burrows as the waters filled them, driving the burrowers to higher levels; the upbuilding continuing until finally the sea rose above the entire area, stopped the burrowing, and covered the sand rock with the flint. A small skeleton found in one specimen may have belonged to an owner of the burrow. Comparative studies of recent burrows would have thrown light on the fossil, and given the contribution a much greater scientific value.

—The fine green color of the much-prized oysters of Marennes was long supposed to be due to the ingestion of salts of copper. This view was succeeded by another which accounted for the greenness by supposing that it was derived from the chlorophyll of certain diminutive marine algæ. This view, in turn, seems to be overthrown by some researches of M. Berthelot, who has been studying the question, and has come to believe that the green of the oyster has no connection with the chlorophyll of plants (on this point the question, he says, is closed); that the oysters contain iron; and that the shells owe their dark color to sulphuret of iron contained in them. The first of these conclusions destroys the chlorophyll theory; the other two are being developed by investigation. M. Chatin has examined the oysters, and the soil of the oyster-beds before and after the treatment (called "pavage") to which these oyster "parks" are submitted. He finds in the oyster that the branchiæ, the seat of the coloration, are twice as rich in iron as the rest of its body, and that the depth of the color is in direct proportion to the quantity of iron present. The soil of the beds before the pavage is black with compounds of iron and sulphur and ammonia. Afterwards, in consequence of oxidations, the soil is of an ochre red, and contains only ferric sesquioxide and nitrates and nitrites. The *huître de Marennes*, then, is simply an oyster rich in iron. Perhaps, if it should be exhibited freely and continuously, it might prove a specific in cases of Décadence and other anæmic conditions of literature and art.

"MODERN CONNOISSEURSHIP."

Lorenzo Lotto: An Essay in Constructive Art Criticism. By Bernhard Berenson, author of 'The Venetian Painters of the Renaissance.' G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895.

THE present work affords an excellent opportunity for the study of that latest form of modern criticism of art which was instituted by Morelli. While differing from Morelli occasionally in his conclusions, Mr. Berenson is a faithful and admiring disciple of that critic's methods, and those methods are pushed by him as far as they can well go. The occasion for examining the methods is all the better in that we have no quarrel with Mr. Berenson's conclusions, and no opposing theory to maintain—are even inclined to admit that he has made out a fairly good case for his contentions, and established the probability, at least, of his views—and can therefore devote ourselves to a dispassionate inquiry into the soundness of his premises and the validity of his reasoning.

The modern form of criticism of which Morelli was the founder bears a close resemblance to that form of literary criticism which is marked by the application of the "metrical test" to the works of Shakspere. The theory of the metrical critics is, that what most of us recognize vaguely as "style" is capable of analysis and exact measurement, so that the difference we feel between the verse of Shakspere and the verse, say, of Fletcher, is a difference which can be scientifically demonstrated. It follows that from the careful study of undoubted works we can arrive at formulæ which will enable us to determine definitely, and almost without possibility of error, the authorship of doubtful works or passages. So Mr. Fleay, for instance, applies the scales and the yard-stick to "Henry VIII.," counts "light endings" and "weak endings," and parcels out that play among some half-dozen collaborators, sharply marking off the scenes and passages supplied by each, and settling to a line where one left off and the other began.

This kind of criticism has always been possible in literature if any one had thought of it, but there are physical reasons why it has only recently become possible in its application to works of art. Books are essentially reproductions, and the scholar could always compare the works of the poets one with another in his own library; works of art, on the contrary, are scattered over the civilized world, and connoisseurship was confined to such vague and limited characteristics of a master as could be carried in the memory from Madrid to St. Petersburg. It was only when the modern perfection of photography made the reproduction of pictures almost as common and as complete as that of books that the "modern connoisseurship" became practicable, and that Morelli was able to state that the first master of Raphael was Timoteo Viti, and that Giorgione painted the "Venus" in the Dresden gallery which had always been called a Titian, and did not paint the "Concert" of the Pitti, which was considered his most celebrated and representative work. Modern photography and modern criticism have upset the catalogues of all the galleries of Europe, changed and changed again the attribution of many famous masterpieces, ignored tradition and denied the authority of Vasari. The crook of a little finger has settled not only the authorship but the date of a picture, until something else has unsettled it again or resettled it another way. Much that has been done is well done, but the ordinary mind is sometimes staggered by the size of the superstructure and the exiguity of the foundation; and the artist, who judges by feeling, is sometimes inclined to dissent from the conclusions of the connoisseur, who judges by some small detail.

By these modern methods Mr. Berenson has attempted to reconstruct the life and career of Lorenzo Lotto, to determine who was his master and what were the paramount influences in forming his style or styles, what pictures he painted, and at what dates, and to read his character and define his personality. Though an interesting painter, Lotto was not a very great one, and the points in dispute about his life and artistic pedigree are not of vast importance one way or the other, so that we may fix our attention on the manner of demonstration rather than on what is sought to be demonstrated. Just what is the apparatus of "modern connoisseurship"? and do those who employ it succeed in proving all that they set out to prove?

No clearer statement of the method itself could be asked for than that which Mr. Berenson gives in his "Introduction," and that statement we shall give as fairly as the necessary condensation will allow. "Given a few documentary notices," he says, "and a number of pictures," how shall we "reconstruct the history of an artist's education and the early years of his career"? "In one way only, and that is by discovering what habits have become so rooted in the artist as to be unconscious, and under what influences he formed them." Direct painting from nature was much less common in the period of the Renaissance than it has since become, and habits of drawing certain details in certain ways were more readily acquired from the master and less easily eradicated in the pupil. "Habits tend to become fixed as they meet with least resistance. . . . It is in the less expressive features . . . that habits of attention are weakest and habits of execution, consequently, strongest." Those features are less expressive "which are less capable of a sudden change of look." These are the ears first, then the hands. Even less expressive are such things as the hair, the drapery, etc. So that the points at which the modern critic looks to form his judgment are therefore "the ears, the hands, the hair, the folds, certain idiosyncrasies of pose, and certain settings and backgrounds, as pronest to being executed in a stereotyped fashion." It is to these details, then, and almost exclusively to these details, that the modern connoisseur looks to tell him the history of an artist, to proclaim who was his master, or to establish the authenticity of this or that work attributed to him. This is the apparatus; let us see how it is employed.

Vasari states that Lorenzo Lotto was a pupil of Giovanni Bellini, and this statement has been accepted and repeated by all modern writers, even by Morelli. Berenson believes him to have been a pupil of Alvise Vivarini, and to establish this thesis is one of the main objects of his book. We do not think it unfair to state his conclusion before giving his course of reasoning, for the use of such phrases as "if we can persuade ourselves" would seem to show that this was, at least occasionally, the order in the mind of the writer himself. Of course the first necessity is to get rid of Vasari's testimony and that of those who have followed him. He first shows that all later writers have merely copied Vasari, and then denies that Vasari knew what he was talking about. "We need give no weight to Vasari's statement, except so far as it is borne out by facts." What are the facts? Titian and Palma, pupils of Bellini, were profoundly influenced by their fellow-pupil Giorgione. Lotto was a little younger than they and a very impressionable artist (Crowe and Cavalcaselle call him "a mush of concession"), and it is not conceivable that he should have resisted the influence to which they succumbed. As he shows this influence very little, he was *not* a pupil of Bellini.

Merely remarking, in passing, that in Mr. Berenson's own 'Venetian Painters of the Renaissance,' issued within the year, Lotto is put down as "pupil of Alvise Vivarini, influenced by Giovanni Bellini *and Giorgione*," let us admit that the destructive part of the argument is at least plausible, and go on to consider the constructive part. The earlier works of Lotto are taken up seriatim, and every coincidence in the pose of a hand or the drawing of a mouth, the curl of an ear or the fold of a drapery, with the work of other masters is noted. We then have a list of possible artistic ancestors, and at first sight it is a queer one. It is: Alvise Vivarini, Jacopo di Barbari, Cima, Montagna, Giovanni Bellini, Basaiti, Bonsignori, Bartolommeo and Antonio Vivarini. This is indeed an "apparent jumble of names."

Barbari is "supposed to have been a pupil of Giovanni Bellini and rarely in Venice; Montagna . . . has thus far scarcely been connected at all with the Venetian school; . . . Bonsignori . . . having been . . . the pure product of the Veronese School"; Cima is also generally reckoned a pupil of Bellini, and even, by Morelli, the foreman of his shop, while Antonio Vivarini died before Lotto was born, and the resemblance to Bartolommeo's work is to a picture which "it may safely be assumed Lotto had not seen." Bellini is already disposed of, in spite of a striking resemblance in one picture and many general resemblances, and the Vivarini are not difficult to dispose of. What is to be done with the others? It is evident that they must also have been pupils of Alvise.

We will take one instance in some detail and let it stand for the rest. The earliest works of Barbari of ascertainable date were done when he was probably about forty and had come under the influence of Antonello da Messina, yet they show strong resemblances to the work of the Vivarini. It is true that "certain points . . . noted as distinctly Vivarinesque are found in Antonello also, and that Antonello might therefore account for all that [is] explained by the Vivarini" in this and other cases; but that is explained by assuming that Antonello also was strongly influenced by the Vivarini. In other works Barbari reminds us of Cima, but we are shortly to prove that Cima was a pupil of the Vivarini also. The same holds true of Bonsignori. Finally, there is a drawing in the Uffizi, attributed to Garafalo, which we now assign, on internal evidence, to Barbari, and which is so like Alvise that in it "we have one of those precious links that connect master and master all the better for the difficulty of deciding precisely to which it belongs." When Barbari must have begun his apprenticeship, the Bellini were probably not in Venice, and he must naturally have studied with the Vivarini. The Vivarini must have been the great painters of Venice, because Dürer, on his first visit to Venice, admired certain painters who were not the Bellini and may have been the Vivarini. Dürer also admired Barbari, and Barbari "might have introduced him to the Vivarini." Having thus "established the relation of Barbari to the Vivarini, his relations to the young Lotto become at once easy of explanation."

This is necessarily a very bald statement of the argument, but we have tried to make it a rigidly fair one. Mr. Berenson himself seems aware that his logic may sometimes appear "circular." Having made out that Alvise was the head of a great school and the master of so many pupils, it becomes necessary to show what an important artist he himself was, for "the meagre and mangled Alvise who has come down to us" is "every way" inferior even to Cima. Therefore, on the same sort of evidence—the peak of a hood over the Madonna's brow or the shape of a hand and the pose of a foot—this picture and that portrait hitherto attributed to Bellini or Antonello or another are restored to Alvise, and his artistic personality is reconstructed as a preface to that of Lotto. Certainly this seems like proving a great deal. Let us examine a moment some of the specific mannerisms that are made to prove so much. Two habits of the school that are frequently referred to are the practice of drawing the "second phalanx of the thumb larger than the first," and "the great toe shorter than the others." A scoffer might be pardoned for suggesting that any one who had ever drawn a human thumb from life might naturally fall into the first of these habits, and that any one who had ever seen an antique statue might be tempted to adopt the second. Other mannerisms are less ill suited than these to the crucial rôle assigned them. Certain poses of the feet and certain arrangements of drapery may have been peculiar to the school of the Vivarini, but is it fair to take the "Madonna of the Redentore" from Bellini and assign it to Alvise on account of such peculiarities, and then to use these same peculiarities as proof that Lotto was a pupil of Alvise and not of Bellini?

It is only when we come to the portraits which Mr. Berenson attributes to Alvise, however, that we see the full beauty of his style of reasoning. In the first place, he admits that there is only one "perfectly authenticated portrait" by Alvise in existence, and that one "is so repainted that . . . . it does not do [him] all the credit it would otherwise." Nevertheless, he proceeds to attribute to him seven other portraits and two portrait drawings, almost all of which have been attributed to other artists, and some of them to more than one other artist. And here we must quote our author at some length. He is discussing a portrait usually attributed to Antonello, and, after some remarks about the drawing of the eyes which have a certain cogency, goes on:

"As in Alvise, but not as in Antonello, the nose is slightly hooked and the nostril inflated. The mouth, as very frequently in Alvise, but never in Antonello, is distinctly turned down at the L. corner (L. from the spectator), and rather turned up at the R., and has altogether more movement and sensitiveness than in Antonello. The cheeks are, for the type of face, fuller in this Layard portrait than in Antonello, and the modelling smoother."

Another portrait, *also attributed to Antonello*, has the same mouth "with one corner turned down and the other tending to curve up," and it also is given to Alvise. Leaving aside the question-begging nature of the argument which takes from Antonello every portrait with a certain kind of mouth, and assigns as a reason for doing so that he never drew mouths so, one is a little astonished to find such reasoning applied to *portraits*. The same thing is done again with regard to one of the drawings where Mr. Berenson "calls particular attention" "to the furrow coming from under the cheek-bone, and in part of its course almost parallel with the furrow coming from the nostril and curling around the mouth," which strongly resembles a furrow on the face of Alvise's "St. Clare." Does Mr. Berenson allow nothing for the direct observation of the model, even in a portrait? Does he mean us to suppose that the twisted mouth and the deep furrow on the cheek were not present in the sitters but invented by the artist; or that, though present, no other artist but Alvise would have reproduced them in his work? One or other of these absurdities he must mean if his reasoning proves anything whatever.

One more instance, and we shall have done. Two portraits are attributed to Savoldo, and these attributions "are indirect proofs of my thesis," says Mr. Berenson, for Savoldo, "if he did not actually begin his career under Alvise, ... began it under Alvise's pupil Bonsignori." Noting that "this theory of Savoldo's descent" he "cannot stop to prove," and that no one before himself has ever made Bonsignori a pupil of Vivarini, let us see how plain-sailing everything becomes.

"In color-scheme the Windsor bust is bituminous, and, having darkened, its effect is remarkably Savoldesque. It is interesting not only because of its great qualities, but also as revealing a phase of Alvise's color which makes us understand whence Savoldo derived his; it being a not over-rare occurrence that a pupil was all his life determined by the one phase, even if momentary, in which he happened to find his master."

Thus, having guessed that the portrait is *not* by Savoldo, its *likeness to his work* is a proof that it *is* by Alvise, and also that Savoldo was Alvise's pupil. Verily, one can prove anything by this method.

Of course we have chosen the weakest points of the argument for our comment, as our purpose is to show how weak such an argument may be. After all deductions, there remain a series of coincidences between the group of painters discussed which lend an air of plausibility to Mr. Berenson's theory, and, as we have said, "establish, at least, its probability." All our instances, also, are taken from the first part of the book. The bulk of the volume, which treats of Lotto's own career, we find little fault with. An occasional temerity in fixing by internal evidence the date of a picture, in spite of the confessed fact that many of Lotto's dated works would, in the absence of the date, have been assigned to an entirely different period of his life—an oversubtlety in finding meanings and interpreting character—these are all one need object to The profound study, the great industry, the wide range and minute accuracy of knowledge which the book displays are worthy of all praise. The author's special acquaintance with his subject is so infinitely greater than our own that we should not presume to dispute his conclusions. The method on which he works is, however, open to examination, and we must conclude that the results of the application of "modern connoisseurship" to the history of art can be accepted only with great caution.

The book is admirably printed, provided with every needful aid to the student, and beautifully illustrated with some thirty plates made from the latest and best photographs, many of them taken from the originals expressly for this work.

AUTHENTIC HISTORY.

History of the United States. By E. Benjamin Andrews, President of Brown University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894. 2 vols, 8vo, pp. xxiii, 390; xiv, 341. 5 colored maps.

SELDOM is the task of the reviewer made so easy as in the case of this remarkable work. The hand of the learned author has in the preface analyzed with convenient particularity, under seven numbered rubrics, the merits which characterize this new history of the United States. All that is left for the reviewer is to cull from the pages some passages and extracts which the author's modesty has forbidden him to append as proof-texts; and the work speaks for itself. In the following compilation we have ventured simply to change the order of the seven propositions.

(1.) "The Fore history," we are assured, calls "due attention to what is too commonly missed, the truly epochal character of the adoption of our present Constitution, in 1789.' Since this explanation makes it unnecessary to treat of the foundation and meaning of the immortal instrument, we might fairly chide the author for devoting to an account of the period from 1781 to 1789 eighteen pages of his valuable space—almost a fiftieth of his whole matter, and quite as much as he gives to the Colonial Indian wars.

(2.) "Effort has been made . . . . to render the table of contents a truthful and instructive epitome of our national past." From this in-

teresting category we especially commend to our readers: "Fate of the Mound-builders," "Marco Polo's Travels," "Pocahontas," "Nipmucks Take Part," "Wigs," "The 'Evangeline' History," "Battle of Oriskany," "Redcoats Depart," "Forts Built," "'Tip' 'Levy,' 'Pistareen,'" "The Land of the Free," "Moon Hoax," "Battle of Wilson's Creek," "Hardee Evacuates," "Marble," "Great American Desert," "Horticultural Hall."

(3.) "The following narrative will be found continuous as well as of moderate compass." In no part of the work is this principle better illustrated than in the account of the two civil wars. It appears that after the battle of Bull Run there was a war in the West, beginning with Fort Henry and ending with Johnston's surrender to Sherman in 1865. Thereupon a second war began on the Peninsula in 1862 and lasted through two chapters to Appomattox. So striking an instance of the vitality of two great contestants is uncommon in history.

(4.) "The work strives to observe scrupulous proportion in treating the different parts and phases of our national career." Hence the 78 pages on the military events of the civil-war period are balanced by 82 pages on the United States from 1789 to 1815. Though 12 pages are squandered on Reconstruction, we have 15 on the fisheries dispute. Perhaps the accurate proportions may be better illustrated by two quotations:

"Already President Lincoln was meditating universal emancipation. September 22d the friends of liberty were made glad by a preliminary proclamation, announcing the President's intention to free the slaves on January 1, 1863, should rebellion then continue to exist. It is said that Mr Lincoln would have given this notice earlier but for the gloomy state of military affairs. The day comes. The proclamation goes forth that all persons held as slaves in the rebellious sections 'are and henceforth shall be free.' The blot which had so long stained our national banner was wiped away The Constitution of course does not expressly authorize such an act by the President, but Mr. Lincoln defended it as a 'necessary war measure,' 'warranted by the Constitution upon military necessity.'"

"But as a Titan, towering above all these and all others, stood the great Corliss engine, built by George H. Corliss, of Providence, R. I., one of the most remarkable mechanicians and inventors of the century. A modern Samson, dumb as well as blind, its massive limbs of shining steel moved with voiceless grace and utmost apparent ease, driving the miles of shafting and the thousands of connected machines. The cylinders were forty inches in diameter, the piston-stroke, ten feet. The great walking-beams, nine feet wide in the centre, weighed eleven tons each. The massive fly-wheel, thirty feet in diameter, and weighing fifty-six tons, made thirty-six revolutions a minute. The whole engine, with the strength of fourteen hundred horses, weighed seven hundred tons."

(5.) "I have sought to make more prominent . . . the political evolution of our country . . . and the social culture . . . of the people." How well President Andrews has succeeded is evident from the following quotations: "The political unit of the South [in colonial times] was the parish." "Education was universal [in early Connecticut]." "Legislatures [in the first State Constitutions] were composed of two houses, both elective." This last statement corrects the widespread delusion that Pennsylvania, Georgia, and Vermont had only one house.

(6.) "The volume . . . is believed to utilize, more than any of its predecessors, the many valuable researches of recent years into the rich archives of this and other nations." The result is, of course, the correction of the errors of earlier writers, such as Hildreth, Von Holst, and Rhodes. We have noted some scores of passages which will especially reward the investigator. The singular magnanimity of the Americans in leaving the British flag flying over New York in 1776 had been unnoticed till President Andrews discovered that, in 1783, "the imperial standard of Great Britain fell at the fort over which it had floated for a hundred and thirty years." Singular advantages in the use of French archives not seen by Henry Adams must account for the statements that, "in 1802, . . . had we still been in France's friendship, the two republics might have compelled England's abandonment of that course which evolved the war of 1812"; and that "Napoleon in fact, though not avowedly, more and more receded from his position" on neutral trade. The "twenty-one votes" for Jay in 1800 are not mentioned by any other historian; and Mr. J. F. Merriam's elaborate study into the removals by Jefferson, which he believed to be 99, is superseded by President Andrews's research, which makes the number 39. In correcting the long-standing errors that the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was made on February 2, 1848, and that gold was discovered on January 24, 1848, the author might well have mentioned the "same day and almost at the same hour" when the two events occurred.

Perhaps the most important result of the use of new sources is President Andrews's discovery of a politician named Douglas who was an important figure in 1854. This is evidently not the well-known Stephen A. Douglas who "didn't care whether slavery was voted up or voted down," and whom not even Lincoln could entrap into a point-blank admission that the people of a Territory could prohibit slavery. This man's namesake was of entirely different stripe, inasmuch as "we may believe that Douglas himself cherished the hope and conviction that freedom was its [Kansas-Nebraska's] destiny"; and "according to . . . Douglas . . . a majority of the inhabitants in a Territory could elect to exclude slavery as well as to establish it." We could wish that President Andrews had told us more about this Douglas.

(7.) "No pains has been spared to secure perfect accuracy in all references to dates, persons, and places, so that the volume may be used with confidence as a work of reference." A very few extracts will satisfy the reader on this important point. "Lief Ericson" is the subject of a saga. "Henry VII. [of England] was a Catholic. He therefore submitted to the Pope's bull which gave America to Spain." "A majority of the Virginia shareholders proved Liberals [about 1619]." "The Colonies further south they [the French in 1689] shut in almost as straitly, French bullets whistling about any Englishman's ears the instant he appeared beyond the mountains." [After Pontiac's war,] "At the call of the rich and now free Northwest, caravans of English immigrants thronged thither." "Next came three alien acts [in 1798]." "[Jefferson] overdid simplicity in going to the Capitol on horseback, tying his magnificent horse, Wildair, to a tree with his own hands." "The Russian campaign practically finished Napoleon's career." "The dominant wing of the Democratic party . . . forcing a demand for this [annexation of Texas] into their national platform in 1840." "In 1879 both houses of Congress were Democratic by small majorities, for the first time since 1856." "The negro vote, now that it had become a fixed fact, was little by little courted by the jarring factions, and hence protected." "Previously to 1870 the [negro] race had been constantly decreasing in fecundity." "The most stupendous work yet accomplished by man, the great bridge spanning East River." Such interesting quotations might be multiplied; but they would not add to the reader's conviction as to the unexampled carefulness of the work.

Although the author does not include the charm of his style as one of the seven cardinal virtues, it would be ungracious not to let him speak for himself in a few quotations. "Charles II. was a much meaner man than his father, and James II. was more detestable still." "All prisons were frightful holes which we would as lief die as enter." "A weaker commander would now have given up, but Wolfe had red hair and the grit usually accompanying it." "In 1855 this party assumed national proportions and worried seasoned politicians not a little: but, having crystallized around no living issue, like that which nerved Republicanism, it fell like a rocket-stick, its sparks going over to make redder still Republican fires."

The maps also are briefly mentioned by the author, although they deserve all the commendation that we have given to his book. We can hardly suggest a more fruitful exercise in historical geography than the correction of the previous studies of this kind in the light of President Andrews's maps. We question whether the boundaries of many of the States will not have to be resurveyed to correspond with these new discoveries, which are nowhere else recorded. In short, American history has taken on a new aspect since this novel work has appeared.

GREEK AND LATIN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

The Theory of Conditional Sentences in Greek and Latin. For the use of students. By Richard Horton-Smith, M.A., Q.C. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

Mr. Horton-Smith's bulky book transports us to the year 1859 and invites a retrospect. It was in 1860 that Prof. Goodwin put forth his memorable treatise on the 'Greek Moods and Tenses,' which, in a comparatively short time, gained an authoritative position in the domain of Greek scholarship. To English classical scholars it was little short of a revelation. Based in large measure on Krüger and Madvig, it brought the best results of the thought and observation of two of the soundest Continental grammarians within the reach of Britons, who have always been slower than Americans to appreciate and apply foreign work. And then, Krüger and Madvig were interpreted by a congenial spirit. Clear, acute, and sensible, free from over-refinement and over-subtilty, Prof. Goodwin's work is calculated to commend itself to the Anglo-Saxon type of mind.

Outside of Krüger and Madvig, Prof. Goodwin owed little to other scholars. Even so important a work as Bäumlein's, published in 1846, was unknown to the author of the 'Moods and Tenses' in 1860, so that Goodwin's own contributions to the subject, especially his well-known analysis of the conditional sentence, may be regarded as his personal achievement, in spite of anticipations, total and partial. In the revised edition of 1890 there is evidence of wider reading in grammatical literature, and a certain concession to the new points of view that have been introduced into syntactical research since 1860. The syntax of to-day demands a finer psychological analysis and a

more exact observation of historical evolution than the syntax of forty years ago, and Prof. Goodwin's thorough revision of his book, which would have retained much of its value without revision, has made it indispensable to every classical scholar—how much more to every grammatical investigator.

Now Mr. Horton-Smith's attitude towards Goodwin, not the Goodwin of 1890, but the Goodwin of 1860, is one of the most astonishing instances of British insularity and doggedness that can well be imagined. In 1859, it seems, Mr. Horton-Smith, then Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, and Classical Lecturer of King's College, London, put forth 'An Outline of the Theory of Conditional Sentences in Greek and Latin for the Use of Students.' Soon after this publication Mr. Horton-Smith fixed his mind on law's grave study, and what he has done in the last thirty-five years has simply been by way of amusing his leisure hours. "Published," he says, "as the professor's book was, after the present writer's former publication and after the cessation of his official connection with the teaching of classics, an acquaintance with the results of the American scholar's labors was unnecessary." And yet he clings to the old title, "For the use of students." To be sure, there is much that students can use, if sufficiently advanced to profit by the mass of material, but as a manuduction into the theory of the conditional sentence the work is strangely behind the times. The plan, presumably the same as that of the original outline, consists in framing a number of conditional sentences which the author considers theoretically possible, and then finding examples to fit. Of course, the more categories filled the merrier, and a prejudice is established in favor of all manner of "sports" that are due to inferior MSS. and to indulgent grammarians. Out of the ranges of Greek that he has traversed, Mr. Horton-Smith has managed to fish up a number of monsters, especially out of the turbid waters of the Hippocratean *corpus*, and these he has steadily refused to have cleansed, lest perchance the removal of the slime should reveal a commonplace mullet or an every-day flounder.

Each example is accompanied by a translation, and these translations are not the least interesting part of the book, pathologically and otherwise. Happy equivalents of Greek and Latin turns of expression are not lacking; but when we come to the rendering of the Greek and Latin conditions, Mr. Horton-Smith's scheme makes itself felt, and we have to encounter every form of lumbering and unidiomatic periphrasis, and find ourselves in the limbo of those ungrammatical souls who think that translation is an end of controversy. "If haply" and "if truly" for εἰ with subjunctive and ἐάν with subjunctive are not convincing formulæ. The day is past when Gottfried Hermann could make the world believe in his plan of rendering imaginary distinctions in Greek into Latin that was itself imaginary. The syntactician of to-day has his own weaknesses, but they lie in a different direction. To him a translation is an illustration merely, not a proof.

One pleasant and not uninstructive peculiarity of Mr. Horton-Smith's is his loyalty to the great scholars of his youth; and his familiarity with the writings and the personal teachings of such men as Key and Malden and Shilleto, to whose "dear memories" the book is dedicated, has enabled him to emphasize the points in which those independent thinkers have anticipated recent research. And, after all, it is well that the *epigoni* should not be allowed to think too highly of themselves, and that they should have it borne in upon them that the results of painful investigation have been foreseen by scholars of an earlier type, whose vision was keen and whose common sense was strong, however deplorable their methods. But we have got beyond the stage of "guesses at truth" and penetrating divination. Nothing will serve nowadays except exhaustive induction, and each sphere is sharply separated from every other. The modern syntactician has to count with history, has to count with psychology. He has to study dialect and period, has to watch the bounds of conventionality in the orators, and to make allowance for fun and freakishness in the comic poets. There is no one Greek or Latin syntax; there is a syntax for every period, for every province of literature, for every individual in that province. What is perfectly conceivable for Homer is inconceivable for Aristophanes. A solecism that is comprehensible in the New Testament would be incomprehensible in an Attic orator. A hyperepic construction in a tragic poet is one thing; in a normal prose-writer a hyperepic construction would be an impossibility. Of course, Mr. Horton Smith has to admit that some of his theoretical combinations are very rare in standard Greek, and finds himself forced to plead for chance survival. But the survival that he pleads for is often nothing more than the oversight or the blunder of the scribe.

But it will be clear to every one who has any right to a voice in matters grammatical that Mr. Horton-Smith belongs to another syntactical world than ours. In fact, to him the light of modern grammatical study, as it has reached him through notes in the various editions he has read and through such a very dubious medium as the syntactical essays in the *Classical Review*, is simply an impertinence. Delbrück does not seem to be known to him, nor Lange, except by a second-hand quotation. There has been no systematic effort on his part to master the processes of the grammatical thought of the last forty years, and we must be satisfied with what he has chosen to give us out of his fifty years' collections. Much of this will be welcome to the explorer. His copious English, French, and Italian parallels and illustrations show a wide range of reading, and an appreciation of the importance of selecting readable specimens; and he who has leisure to turn over Mr. Horton-Smith's commonplace-book will have glimpses that will make him less forlorn, which is more than can be said of most grammatical treatises. For our veteran is as tangential as that other veteran, J. E. B. Mayor; and when one is in despair about ἄν with the future indicative and the passiveness of the future middle, and ἦν with the present indicative and the untenableness of Dawes's canon, and all the other well-worn themes, one is refreshed by the remark that "lines of three words are common in Dante," is aroused by the query whether a certain passage in Fielding might not have been suggested by the close of Sir Thomas Browne's "Urn-Burial," and is diverted by a collection of passages from various literatures in support of the unquestionable thesis that what has been done cannot be undone. The book, despite what the narrow student of to-day would call its lack of scientific character, is steeped in the charm of studious leisure, and there are many *obiter dicta* of native good sense, to which some rampant theorists might even now give heed; so that, beginning with astonishment, the reviewer ends with a certain pious regard, and would sooner wish his review undone than the book itself. But both, as we have learned from Mr. Horton-Smith, are alike impossibilities.

A Sporting Pilgrimage. By Caspar W. Whitney. Harper & Bros. 1895.

In this handsome and well-illustrated volume Mr. Whitney gives the results of a careful investigation of various forms of sport carried on to-day in England. Either by personal participation or in the capacity of a skilled onlooker, he has acquired an accurate idea of English methods as applied to cross-country riding, rowing, football, track athletics, cycling, cricket, and golf; and while some of his views on these subjects may seem open to question, the picture he draws is, on the whole, a very fair one, and is full of interest to American readers.

Mr. Whitney holds very strongly to the opinion that sport of all kinds deteriorates when the professional element controls, and this result is generally brought about by too much attention to gate-money, and by laxity in the rules which define the amateur's position. Regarded from this point of view, the sports to which Mr. Whitney devoted his time in England fall into two classes. In the first are rowing, cricket, and golf, which are, comparatively speaking, in good odor; and in the second, football, track athletics, and cycling, which are full of scandals. Mr. Whitney goes so far as to say that, outside of the universities and a very few clubs, there is no honesty in track athletics in all England. Football, especially the Association game, is mainly played by professional teams, while bicycle-racing is in as bad repute in England as it is here, and for the same reason, namely, lack of courage on the part of officials in dealing with the amateur question.

It is not, however, in discussing these semi-professional sports that Mr. Whitney's views merit attention so much as in the comparisons he institutes between university sports in England and America. He maintains, with much show of reason, that in these matters we have a good deal to learn from our English cousins. He shows, for instance, that in the English universities there is not the all-absorbing interest in the result of contests that we are accustomed to here. The English undergraduate enjoys the delights of victory, or bears the bitterness of defeat, in a much calmer and more philosophical manner, and with a clearer perception of the relative importance of such events, than the American. Then, again, there is in England an entire absence of the hard commercial atmosphere which envelops our big football games, and which introduces a very undesirable element into undergraduate life. Another obvious difference is in the absurd and childish mystery which surrounds the daily practice of our leading 'varsity crews. We read with a feeling akin to shame of the tricks which are played every year at New London by the rival crews in the endeavor to conceal their own and discover their opponents' doings. How much better is the English method of letting all the world know the time made in practice, and anything else that is of general interest. Again, the English system of training is much more sensible than ours. Our college men devote altogether too much time to training, with the result that our teams and crews are generally overtrained, as was the case with the Yale team that succumbed to Oxford last summer. In some respects, however, Mr. Whitney considers the American collegians superior. He found the Rugby game of foot-

ball as played in England very inferior in the skill and science displayed to the game played by our leading colleges, and the form of their 'varsity track athletes, except in distance running, does not average as good as ours. Apropos of football, he discovered in an old English history of the game that, among other reasons given for the belief that the world was coming to an end in 1583, was the fact that "football-playing and other devilishe pastimes" were occupying too much of the people's attention. Verily, there is nothing new under the sun.

Mr. Whitney's account of cricket in England is perfunctory and uninteresting. That the game has been free from scandals, although largely played by professionals, he believes to be due to the fact that there has been no sailing under false colors, and that the line of demarcation between the amateur and the professional is clearly marked. We rather incline to the theory that the slow movement of the game—a feature which places it at the end of the sporting scale furthest removed from racing—makes it a poor medium for betting; and where betting enters, scandal is quite sure to follow. That there is something elevating in the nature of the game is an idea that is pleasing to cricketers, but we have known rascals who played good cricket, as we have also known gentlemen who played good football. The truth, of course, is that it is possible to play any game in a sportsmanlike or an unsportsmanlike manner.

Mr. Whitney's language is occasionally careless and obscure. He uses *smithy* for *smith*, and describes an event which happened *somewhere along* 1820, and he rechristens one of the English shires *North Hamptonshire;* but in spite of such blemishes he has produced a pleasant and readable book.

Musicians and Music-Lovers, and Other Essays. By W. F. Apthorp. Scribners.

THE number of books on musical topics annually issued by American publishers is becoming almost as great as the number issued in Germany, and if their average of scholarship is perhaps less high, the American books are as a rule better written and more entertaining. The question has recently been much discussed whether the ideal musical critic should be a musician who can write, or a writer who understands music. It cannot be denied that the most valuable criticisms on music were written by composers—Berlioz, Schumann, Wagner, Liszt; nor, on the other hand, can it be denied that, as a rule, professional musicians are too prejudiced and too deficient in general culture to make good writers on their art, except on technical points. After all, it seems sensible to assume that a critic whose duty it is not to compose but to write for newspapers and book-readers, should be first of all a journalist and author. He need not be able to compose a symphony or even a waltz, but he should know everything about the anatomy of compositions and—keep that knowledge carefully to himself; for nothing is more futile, useless, and tiresome to a general reader of musical notices and books than the habitual elaborate analyses, with examples in musical type, which are to musical criticism what parsing is to literary criticism. The greatest musical critics are not addicted to the habit of parsing, unless they have a private class-room, where it is quite in place.

It is gratifying to find that Mr. Apthorp does not indulge in any parsing in this volume of musical essays, though he might easily have done so, as he has a thorough knowledge of musical technique; gratifying, also, to find that he does not resort to the hair-splitting which is the one conspicuous fault of his newspaper criticisms. He has collected here nine essays which form a real addition to our musical literature. They cover a wide range of topics, as is shown by the titles—"Musicians and Music-Lovers," "J. S. Bach," "Additional Accompaniments to Bach's and Handel's Scores," "Meyerbeer," "Offenbach," "Two Modern Classicists," "J. S. Dwight," "Some Thoughts on Musical Criticism," "Music and Science."

Perhaps nowhere else, certainly not in the English language, could there be found such a clear and cogent exposition of the question of additional accompaniments as Mr. Apthorp has made. The question is really one of genius versus pedantry, of artistic taste versus dry archæologism. A mere enumeration of the names would prove this—Mozart, Rheinberger, Liszt, Franz, on one side, Spitta, Chrysander, Joachim, and Brahms on the other. All admit that there are works of Bach and Handel which require additional accompaniments, such as those masters themselves used to supply at the organ or harpsichord; the question is what those accompaniments should be—Franz and his party claiming that they should be polyphonic, like the works which those masters completely wrote out, while the pedantic group insist on the use of mere plain harmony, which is entirely foreign to the mode of composition in that day. On this point Mr. Apthorp's argumentation is absolutely incontrovertible, and he still further drives in the nail by mentioning the significant fact that the archæologico-historical party carefully omitted from their discussions the attitude assumed by Mozart. They could resort to the tactics of denying that Liszt and Franz were men of genius, since they were still living and therefore (*more Germanico*) underrated; but they could not pursue those tactics toward Mozart, knowing as well as Otto Dresel that "Mozart's opinion of what is right to do for Handel is worth that of a hundred thousand professors of musical history." Admirers of Brahms, Joachim & Co. may profitably study page 127 of Mr. Apthorp's book, and peruse, on page 234, the letter to him by Franz, in which the historic party's bad musical grammar is mercilessly exposed.

Several private letters from Franz to Mr. Apthorp are published in the article on "Two Modern Classicists," and are welcome contributions to the scant biographic material relating to that great song writer, whose wonderful genius was so little understood by the Germans, even at his death, that only a few papers published adequate obituary notices of him. The first Franz apostle in America was Otto Dresel, who also wrote a small volume of good songs, entirely in the Franz vein. Mr. Apthorp gives an entertaining character-sketch of this unique Boston musician, regarding whose relations to Franz he says:

"They were stanch and life-long friends; their agreement on musical subjects was as complete as their friendship; they both worked together towards the same end, though they lived long apart; neither of the two gave anything to the world without its passing through the ordeal of the other's criticism; they died within two years of each other."

Throughout these papers Mr. Apthorp speaks of Bach and Handel as if they were composers of equal worth and rank; but in the special paper on Bach he shows that therein he merely follows the force of habit, and that in his heart he knows how much the greater genius Bach is. He compares him to Dante, and applies to him Lowell's dictum that "his readers turn students, his students zealots; and what was a taste becomes a religion." Mr. Apthorp's own confession of faith is that of many music-lovers:

"The love of Bach is the most enduring of musical passions; I know that I can hardly open a volume of Bach without a certain feeling of superstitious terror; I feel as if the perusal of each page would be but a nail in the coffin of all my other loves. No matter what your enthusiasm for other composers may be, there comes a time when long communion with any one of them breeds satiety, and you cry for change; but you can return to Bach every day, and each time you find him greater, more wonderful, more all-powerful than before."

A passage like this shows that Mr. Apthorp understands the highest function of criticism, which is to arouse enthusiasm for what is best in art. He himself says: "What the critic *knows* is valuable to himself mainly; it is what he *thinks* and *feels* that is valuable to others." He might have added that while a critic may not be able to arouse the same emotion in the reader's mind as the work discussed, he can, if he is a good writer, arouse such enthusiasm that the reader will feel eager at once to hear and study the work praised. If music were really a popular art, the highest function of criticism would be to establish cool and impartial judgments; but since the best in art is usually born to blush unseen for a long time, the best thing by far that the critic can do is to discover this best and arouse enthusiasm for it. This Mr. Apthorp does in his admirably written volume, and that constitutes its chief value. It will incline its readers to study and love Bach and Franz, and to despise Meyerbeer and Offenbach, who, by a strange freak of fate, were destined to set the fashion in opera and operetta for France during a whole generation. They were mere froth on the ocean of which Bach and Franz are the permanent waters, whose treasures only deep-sea dredging can reveal.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annesley, Charles. The Standard-Operaglass: Detailed Plots of One Hundred and Fifteen Operas. 9th ed., revised. London: Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Westermann.

Bradley, Prof. C. B. Orations and Arguments by English and American Statesmen. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Cotes, Mrs. Everard. Vernon's Aunt. Being the Original Experiences of Miss Lavinia Moffat. Appletons.

Dippold, Prof. G. T. A Scientific German Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.

Ellis, E. S. Among the Esquimaux. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co.

Fontaine, C. Les Historiens Français du XIXe Siècle. W. R. Jenkins. $1.25.

Goldsmith, Oliver. The Deserted Village, etc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.

Half-Hours with an Old Golfer. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.

In the Heart of the Bitter-Root Mountains. The Story of "The Carlin Hunting Party." Putnams. $1.50.

Jackson, Rev. S. M. The Book of Job. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 25 cents.

Ladd, Prof. G. T. Philosophy of Mind: An Essay in the Metaphysics of Psychology. Scribners. $3.

Moore, Dr. E. Tutte le Opere di Dante Alighieri. Nuovamente rivedute nel testo. Oxford: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.

Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Deceit—Deject. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.

Nevinson, H. W. Slum Stories of London. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.

Otis, James. Chasing a Yacht. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co.

Palmer, F. L. The Wealth of Labor. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.

Pinero, A. W. The Second Mrs. Tanqueray. Boston: W. H. Baker & Co. 50 cents.

Raymond, Prof. G. L. Rhythm and Harmony in Poetry and Music. Putnams. $1.75.

Strachey, Mrs. Richard. Poets on Poets. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Scribners. $2.

Swan, Annie S. Airlie's Mission. Hunt & Eaton. 50 cents.

Tirebuck, William. Sweetheart Gwen. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.

Trask, Katrina. Sonnets and Lyrics. Randolph.

Tyler, Prof. W. S. A History of Amherst College from 1821 to 1891. Frederick H. Hitchcock. $1.50.

Wagner, Capt. A. L. Organization and Tactics. B. Westermann & Co.

Warner, Prof. A. G. American Charities: A Study in Philanthropy and Economics. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 31, 1895.

The Week.

THE special message which President Cleveland sent to Congress on Monday has exactly the right tone. There may be differences of opinion as to details here and there, but the main proposition is so sound that it constitutes a rallying-point for all the defenders of the public credit and for all the believers in an honest dollar. This proposition is that the dollar is 25 8-10 grains of gold of standard fineness, that the Government's paper of all kinds must be redeemed in it, and the Government's debts of all kinds must be paid in it or its equivalent. This proposition, we say, is now the rallying-point for all the friends of sound money. Moreover, it is something that they cannot avoid or shirk, because business considerations will overtop politics in spite of all the partisans and the harlequins (of whom the *Tribune* is a type) who are dancing around the bonfire of the public credit. The first thing to be done is to sell gold bonds. We want gold; therefore, we ought to promise gold.

The speech of Chairman Wilson on Saturday gives some reason for believing that the revenues of the Government will soon be, if they are not now, in excess of the expenditures. His prediction, however, depends on the productivity of the income tax, no part of which need be actually paid before the 30th of June. As each person will desire to avail himself of any decision of the courts which may be made against the constitutionality of the tax, the payment will, as a general rule, be put off till the last day. There is enough time intervening to exhaust the gold reserve of the Treasury twice over, especially since the element of distrust forms so large a part of the existing trouble. How large a share this is may be seen by the fact that $30,000,000 of the gold withdrawals has been for other purposes than exportation. A drain of this kind is even more perilous than a drain for exportation, because the latter has its limits, while distrust has no limits. A failure to meet the demand for gold, whether it proceeds from one cause or another, is bankruptcy. This must be guarded against at all hazards. It is a sad comment on the situation, that even now, while the Government cannot meet its own debts promptly, and is straining every nerve to maintain specie payments, the Senate should pass a bill to lend the Government's credit to the amount of $70,000,000 to a canal in a foreign country, at a time when that credit is so greatly impaired.

Mr. Wilson's suggestion that if some means could be devised for requiring a portion of the customs dues to be paid in gold without withdrawing it from the Treasury, the present trouble would be cured, compels us to say that no such means can be found. The problem confronting the Treasury is the maintenance of gold payments. This means that the legal-tender notes shall be paid in gold on demand. Consequently, any law requiring the payment of customs duties in gold, in whole or in part, would merely put the importers to the trouble of drawing gold from the sub-treasury before paying it to the collector of customs. Moreover, is it supposed that Congress will pass a law degrading the silver dollar by not allowing it to be received for customs duties? No. In the first place, the silver-men would never consent to this. In the next place, the Government ought not to, because it has received the value of a gold dollar for every silver dollar outstanding. To turn around and repudiate its own dollars would be an act of turpitude quite inconceivable.

We have felt all along that it was a mistake not to call in McKinley to show us the way out of our troubles. It is all very well for Secretary Carlisle and Senator Sherman and the Baltimore bankers to bring forward their plans, but there is an appearance of effort about their work. What we long for is the easy mastery of genius and the creative imagination, and this McKinley always gives us. He gives it to us, we are happy to say, in the address which he made last week before a manufacturers' convention at Cincinnati. After all the strain and fretting of the financiers and Congressmen, how refreshing it is to have a perfectly clear solution of the vexed problem given us in two limpid sentences. McKinley says that all we need is "our own markets for our manufactures and agricultural products," and then, in addition, "a foreign market for our surplus products, which will not surrender our markets and which will not degrade our labor to hold our markets." This is one of those great principles which only a genius can discover, but which everybody must see to be true the moment they are enunciated. A man with a shovel in a ditch would be forced to assent to McKinley's idea as soon as it was stated to him, and would have just as clear a notion as the Ohio statesman has of the way to go to work to carry it out.

The Nicaragua Canal bill, after using up all the available time of the Senate since December 1, has passed that body at last. Doubtless its promoters themselves do not expect to see it pass the House this session. Speaker Crisp has intimated that the committee on rules will not make a special order for it, and, in default of that, there is no hope for it. What Senator Morgan and the other backers of the enterprise have been making their nine-day speeches for is mainly to give the bill prestige for the next Congress. On the other hand, its opponents in the Senate and in the press have not been as earnest and incessant in attacking it as they would have been if its enactment into law had seemed imminent. Thus there has been but languid interest in the debate so far. For our part we should regret to believe that this or any other Congress would commit our Government to the backing up of a purely business undertaking to the extent of $70,000,000.

The patriots in the Senate gave the British a brief respite on Saturday, while they turned to rend the *Evening Post* for having published a Washington despatch in which reference was made to an Hawaiian bond syndicate in the background. We printed that rumor for what it was worth, and alluded to it only as furnishing what the scientists call a good working hypothesis. The necessity of some explanation for the corybantic rage of Lodge and Frye about Hawaii is clear to every man. A slight acquaintance with great principles, such as *omne vivum ex ovo*, is enough to convince everybody of that, and we welcomed the bond story in a purely scientific spirit, thinking that it gave a better idea of the meat in the egg than any other theory we had seen. But now Lodge has robbed us of this working hypothesis, and where shall we turn? He himself admits that the phenomenon is a puzzling one. He vowed that his own motive was simply that spirit of shining patriotism and sublime self-forgetfulness in which he approaches all public questions, but confessed that he did not expect people to believe that. A wicked world, he knew, was too fond of thinking evil of our best and noblest to allow him to escape. He was willing to suffer and be strong.

Another Hawaiian mystery hard to be accounted for is the fatuity of the Republicans in solidifying Democratic sentiment against their annexation schemes. All they have accomplished for the present is to get a resolution passed in the Senate declaring for "absolute non-interference," and praising President Cleveland for following that policy in foreign affairs. All the Democratic Senators voted for that resolution, and one Republican with them. This is a triumph for the Cuckoos—who somehow always turn out to be in a majority, in spite of their being such a wretched handful day after day in

the *Tribune* and the *Sun*—and is really a desperate blow to the annexationists. How are they going to muster, on this showing, the two-thirds vote in the next Senate, or the one after the next, requisite to pass a treaty of annexation? The real reason why Harrison's scandalous treaty of annexation failed was because it could not pass the Senate. The Republicans are now doing their best to prevent any such treaty from passing a future Senate. In trying to make exclusive party capital out of Hawaii, they are overdoing the business and making it practically certain that, even with the next President, they cannot annex the islands. As this fact sinks into the minds of the patriots, they will have no resource except to shout again, "What ho! a Briton to the rescue!"

North Carolina has now a Republican as one of her Senators at Washington for the first time in nearly twenty-two years. John Pool, the last representative of the party during the reconstruction era, retired on the 4th of March, 1873, and both seats have since then been filled by Democrats until Mr. Pritchard, a Republican, was sworn in on Thursday as the successor of the late Senator Vance, whose term ran until 1897. On the 4th of March next Mr. Pritchard will be joined by another Republican from a Southern State, Steve Elkins of West Virginia, the first member of the party from that State since Boreman's term expired twenty years ago. A quarter of a century ago the South was almost solidly Republican. Leaving the old "border States," Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, out of the account, every one of the remaining twenty-four Senators from States in which slavery had existed was a Republican, except one each from Virginia, Georgia, and Tennessee. In ten years all of these twenty-one seats were occupied by Democrats except one from Louisiana; and when Kellogg's term ended in 1883, the South became solidly Democratic in the Senate—except for the two Virginia "Readjusters"—so to remain for a dozen years.

The reappearance of a Republican from North Carolina is not a cause for unmixed rejoicing by the party. The Republicans in the Legislature of that State number only 64 of its 220 members, and Mr. Pritchard's election for the short term was part of a bargain by which the 100 Populists agreed to support him for that place if the Republicans would help choose a Populist for the long term, to succeed Mr. Ransom in March. The fusion between the two parties appears to be complete, and arrangements have already been made by the managers for a union of their forces in the Presidential election next year, the electoral ticket to be divided between them. Such an alliance must necessarily embarrass the Republicans in Congress. The Democrats have suffered terribly from their fusions with Populism in 1892, by which they helped to elect Lewelling Governor in Kansas and Waite in Colorado. The Republicans will find the gain of one Senator from the South very dear if it costs them such loss of confidence as befell the Democrats for their similar coalitions with the third party in the West.

It is quite plain that Gov. Morton is not resting comfortably under the assumption which Platt makes in his Lexow police bill that the Governor is a better Platt man than Strong is. He caused it to be made known on Wednesday week that he is not in favor of the Lexow proposal to take away from Mayor Strong and bestow upon himself the power of appointing a commission to reorganize the police force of this city. That proposal is the most impudent of Platt's recent acts, and there is no explanation for it except that the mayor is too much of a reformer to be trusted by the boss. In preferring the Governor publicly as the appointing power, Platt did not stop to ask himself how the Governor might like to be held up before the people of the State as "Platt's man." He has found out now that the Governor does not like it at all and will not tolerate it—an outcome which might have been foreseen, and which is of incalculable value to the Governor's fame.

About Judge Gaynor's mandamus declaring the holders of a public franchise bound to exercise it under all circumstances, all there is to be said is that it may be good law, but it is not common sense. No railroad franchise was ever granted or accepted under the condition that the road is to be worked come what will. Even ships' charters provide for stoppage or loss by the act of God or the public enemy. This is understood in every land carrier's contract also. Inundations would exempt him in the minds of rational men. So would unreasonable strikes. Unreasonable strikes by large bodies of men—"sympathetic strikes," say, to help other strikes in some distant place, like those of last summer—are now as much one of the risks and impediments of transportation enterprises as floods or fires or highway robbery. Any judge who lays down the law about the duties of the holders of a railroad franchise ought to put in a word for the "horse" or business sense of the community. Judge Gaynor must know very well that it would be impossible to carry on any railroad in America if it were the law that it must forfeit its charter if, even for a day, it failed to run its trains, for then the employees would have it at their mercy. How unscrupulous they can be under such circumstances is shown by the recent strike of the linemen in Brooklyn in spite of a formal written contract. Judge Gaynor's assumption that the Brooklyn roads must have all the protection they need to run their cars on schedule time because they have 7,000 soldiers, and that, therefore, their failure to run them is "unlawful" and "by its bad example tends to public disquiet if not to some disorder," seems to have been taken from the work of some humorist. If meant seriously, the attention of strategists ought to be called to it, because it shows that if you send 10,000 men after an enemy who has only 7,000, you may consider him beaten and call home your own troops. Judge Gaynor evidently considers that when mandamuses come into collision with facts, facts go to the wall.

The letter in which ex-Gov. Pattison of Pennsylvania accepts the Democratic nomination for mayor of Philadelphia is an excellent statement of the principles that should control the administration of municipal affairs. He declares his conviction that, "in order to secure an honest, intelligent, business-like management of our city government, there must be an absolute separation of municipal affairs from State and national politics," and promises that, if he is elected, "merit, and merit alone, shall be considered in making appointments, and no removals shall be made except for cause." He shows how the city has suffered from the participation of its officials and employees in local politics, and engages to "absolutely prohibit and prevent it." He points out the startling growth of extravagance, the expenditures of the city government having increased from $17,638,304 in 1887 to $32,190,000 in 1894, and promises to "promote and enforce economy in the departments." Nor are these mere words which sound well but carry no weight. Ex-Gov. Pattison has been long in public life. Always a Democrat, he has twice been elected a city official in Republican Philadelphia, and has twice served a four years' term as Governor in a Republican State. In each of these four elections he owed his success to the votes of Republicans who had confidence in the man, and he has always justified their confidence. He has the ability and the courage to make such a mayor as the city urgently needs to check the growing demoralization of its government, and it is to be hoped that there will be independence enough among the voters to give him the opportunity.

Commissioner Roosevelt has an article in the February *Atlantic* on the present status of civil-service reform, in which he puts together some of the facts showing "definite, tangible progress." With the extensions of the law made in the past two years by President Cleveland, the number of federal officials now under the protection of the law is about 50,000. The phrase under protection of law is the right one to use. Formerly the men who were supposed to be servants of the public were in reality the servants of the politicians who put them in office, and had no shield against their im-

perious demands for personal service and pecuniary contributions. What the civil-service law has done for these officials is simply to put them in the same category with other citizens, relieving them from forced labor for bosses and levies on their salaries. For the public service, on the other hand, the law has secured the whole time and industry of the men who before had to serve two masters, the Government and the boss. Mr. Roosevelt instances the present high efficiency of the railway mail service, as the best of all possible object-lessons in regard to the successful working of the merit system. In short, civil-service reform has now become simply a business proposition, and all we need to secure its application to all branches of the public service is a widespread demand by the business men of the country that common sense shall rule in Government as well as private affairs.

The first question that one involuntarily asks on reading Pope Leo's encyclical on American affairs is: Why must a Pope be so platitudinous? Is it worth while to write out in Latin, and pay customs dues for the privilege of laying before the people of this country, such sentiments as, "Divorce scatters the seed of discord among families"; "It is important that citizens should be virtuous and upright"; "America seems destined for greater things"? The encyclical as a whole is filled with truths of that kind, which it never entered into the heart of man to question. There are some paragraphs rapping Catholic journalists over the knuckles for daring to say anything about their bishops, and addressing apostolic rebukes to those prelates who "pry into the counsels and conduct of another"; but the great body of the letter is filled with platitudes which nobody but a Pope would think of uttering with such solemn emphasis. This is one of the disadvantages of being infallible; you must say only what everybody agrees to be true. Dean Stanley had an interview with Pope Pius IX., and came away saying that the infallible man had made more blunders in a twenty-minutes' conversation than any person he had ever met. It was because Pius attempted to display an intimate knowledge of English affairs. He spoke, for example, of Wilberforce as a professor at Oxford, which saying, when reported to the Bishop of Oxford, brought from him the exclamation, "What astounding ignorance!" So that Leo has, after all, been wise to confine himself to safe generalities in treating of things American. We may doubt the necessity of earnestly telling us what we all knew before, but nothing in the encyclical will throw the least doubt on the doctrine of papal infallibility.

Mexican Jingoes—of whom there is a goodly crop—would doubless like to have a glorious war with Guatemala, but the chances appear to be that they will have to take the glory without the war. The comparative weakness of Guatemala would lead that country to do anything in reason to avert actual hostilities; and against doing anything outrageous in this boundary controversy, Mexico appears to be in honor bound by the treaty of 1882 referring to it. In case of irreconcilable disagreements between the two countries as to their dividing line, explicit covenants were entered into to refer the dispute to arbitration, the President of the United States being the chosen arbitrator. Secretary Gresham, doubtless acting under this agreement, and having, it is said, first made sure of a favorable reception of his proposal, has proffered the good offices of this country to bring about a peaceful solution of the difficulty. It is, therefore, reasonable to suppose that the war flurry will soon subside.

M. Bourgeois (ominous name!) has had to give up trying to form a cabinet; and no wonder. Men of any ability or political ambition must have got tired, by this time, of being put up as targets for a chaotic Chamber to shoot at, with the certainty of being brought down sooner or later. That Deputy who, in the assembly lately convened to elect a new President, proposed that first the French Constitution be amended so as to make it worth any man's while to be elected President, deserved a more patient hearing than he got. The present system is getting unworkable. Yet it is doubtful if any other system would help matters much. Better men could make the present bad system work, and the present men would soon break down a better system. The plague of France is the fearful decay in the character of her chosen representatives. That is the plague, also, it must be confessed, of all existing democracies. John Stuart Mill said that he entered Parliament with what he thought to be the lowest possible opinion of the average member, but quitted it with a lower opinion still. The House of Commons has grievously fallen off since his day. On the spectacles at Albany, at Trenton, at Washington, what American can look with complacency? Neither for us nor for the French or English is salvation to come through any system or lack of it. Until intelligence and honesty come to be applied to legislative business, it will continue to suffer as much as any other business would if put into the hands of ignorance and greed.

The Italians seem to be having a hard time of it in their colony of Eritrea, where they are at war with both Christians and Mohammedans, the Mahdists and the Abyssinians. On the one hand we hear of a threatened Mahdist invasion whose object is to recover Kassala by a supreme effort; on the other, we read of battles with Ras Mangascià, the chief of Tigré and son of John, the late Negus. The two fields of action can hardly be less than two hundred miles apart in a straight line, and the country between them is mountainous. No wonder that Gen. Baratieri is "in urgent need of reinforcements." Of course there is no doubt of the ultimate triumph of the Italians. They will gain glory, and very possibly, for military or other reasons, will deem it necessary to extend further the limits of their territory. Unfortunately, reinforcements, glory, and extension of territory are expensive. The money for them will have to come from a nearly bankrupt government, out of the pockets of terribly overburdened taxpayers. Eritrea is in some ways a valuable and promising possession, but it has already cost many millions, and is not likely, with the strictest economy, to pay its way for a long time to come. This may be but a drop in or rather out of the bucket of Italian finances, but before that time arrives who can say what will have happened to them and to Italy?

The Melbourne correspondent of the London *Economist* gives some interesting particulars of the new taxation which the colonies of Australia are now proposing. Victoria, for example, proposes to put a tax of 1d. for every pound sterling of the "unimproved value of land." If this land is mortgaged, then the owner and the mortgagee thereof shall be liable for the tax in proportion to their interests. In case the owner of land has been an absentee from Australasia for three years or more, the rate of taxation shall be increased 20 per cent. The income tax is divided into two portions: income from personal exertion and income the produce of property. In the first instance there is a tax of 3d. for every pound sterling for incomes over £200, the tax increasing up to 6d. for incomes over £2,200. On incomes derived from property the rate is 6d. for every pound sterling on incomes over £200, increasing up to 1s. for incomes over £2,200. It is expected that $3,000,000 additional revenue will be raised by these new taxes, and the Australian colonies must have money. The effect, however, upon the banks and mortgage companies and mortgagees in possession of land upon foreclosure, will be severe. The Australian banks, it will be remembered, under the recent plans of reorganization promised to pay their English depositors 4½ per cent on the deposits due, but not now collectible. "The tax is the last thing required," says the *Economist*, "to deprive some of the mortgage institutions of hope, for its capitalization will largely reduce the market value of land, already disastrously low." The outlook, therefore, for the financial institutions in Australia is dark, and the pessimistic prophecies of English financial papers seem about to be fulfilled; but the doctrinaires, the labor members, and the socialists seem resolved upon the new taxation as a charge upon wealth.

PLATT'S CHALLENGE.

THERE are two explanations, diametrically opposed to each other, which are given in regard to Platt's impudent manifesto to the people of this city, issued on Saturday. One is, that he feels so sure of his absolute ownership of the Legislature that he thinks he can safely snap his fingers at reformers and all other enemies of boss politics. The other is, that the manifesto is the "bluff" of a boss who fears that his power is weakening, and who hopes to strengthen and maintain it by showing the politicians that he despises his critics. We have little doubt that the second explanation is the true one. If he felt sure of his power, he would not boast of it in public, and would not appeal, as he does, to party prejudice to help him in maintaining it. His desire is to impress Republican politicians, including members of the Legislature, with the belief that Gov. Morton and Mayor Strong are with him, and that he is fighting with them for party supremacy and the offices.

Twice in his manifesto he appeals for harmony to save the party from disaster in 1896. He declares that his opponents "consist, on the one hand, of Mugwumps and Democrats who wish to embroil the Republican party in such fraternal war as will render its success in 1896 impossible, and, on the other hand, of Republican factionists who seek to control the Republican organization and who are willing to break it down if they cannot have their way." Then again, in speaking of his plan for continuing the bi-partisan police system, he says of the Republicans who oppose it: "I want to warn these Republicans that they do not betray their party into the hands of the enemy to be slaughtered in 1896. The scheme to make the Police Board a single-headed commission, in its final fruition, is a scheme to cheat and oppress Republican voters." Now a boss confident of his power would not resort to such weak misrepresentation as this. We are not settling the election of 1896 at present, and nobody knows that better than Platt. There is no election of consequence to be held next November, and a better opportunity could not be desired for ridding the party of a boss than is presented now. Furthermore, if the Police Department be made single-headed, its head will be appointed by Mayor Strong, whose term runs till January, 1898, or more than a year after the election of 1896. How is the Police Department to be used "to cheat and oppress Republican voters" in the next Presidential election under these conditions?

The plea to spare a boss and his corrupt and debasing methods because to attack him will endanger the party in the next Presidential election, is a very old "dodge," which has been raised by every boss in distress for the last ten years or more. It is a plea, moreover, which has been the cause of all our woes as a city. It has been made the excuse for selling out the city to save the country on the tariff or some other national issue over and over again. So long as it is listened to, just so long will hope of municipal reform be deferred. To raise it now, as Platt does, is peculiarly impudent, for the city was rescued from Tammany only by putting in practice the principle that national politics had nothing whatever to do with city affairs. Platt sneers at Mugwumps and Democrats as unworthy of notice in matters of municipal legislation, yet his party owes its present power to those two forces. They, and not Platt, put Mayor Strong in office, and they put him there because he said that he would conduct municipal affairs without reference to national issues and politics in 1896 or any other year. The mayor will keep his promise—on that point we have not a particle of doubt; and in keeping it he will go a long way towards nullifying the efforts of Platt to sell out the city once more on the old basis.

What the Republican party, or the decent portion of it, which Platt treats with such boisterous contempt, ought to see is that it is bound to stand by the mayor in carrying out the pledges which were made in the last campaign. We are at the threshold of the most momentous experiment that has ever been made in this city. If we succeed in showing that the city can be governed without regard to national party issues, simply on business principles, there will be every reason to hope that we shall not lapse again to the old disgraceful methods. But if we fail—that is, yield to Platt—there will be no hope for us again for a quarter of a century. If the Republicans allow themselves to be deluded by the plea for 1896, we may as well abandon all hope of municipal reform during the present generation.

We do not believe that they will be so blind and foolish as to do this, but they must make up their minds to do something more than disagree with Platt; they must come out into the open and fight him. He has challenged them with sufficient insolence and contempt to provoke them to do so. He says as plainly as words can say it that he is the boss, and that he will give this city only such reform measures as he likes. He is hoping to convince the members of the Legislature that he is a greater power than the decent elements of the city population who combined on Mayor Strong and elected him. He is "holding up" in the Legislature all the reform bills now before it. His dummies are holding back the power-of-removal bill, the bill for the reform of the police bench, and the bill for the reform of the department of education, and they will continue to hold them back until they are frightened into advancing them. There should be no delusions entertained on this point. The Legislature, especially the Senate, is doing Platt's bidding on all these measures, and not one of them will be allowed to become law without a fight. The struggle will begin at the mass-meeting next Monday, and we are confident that it will end finally in the overthrow of Platt; for, aside from being the most odious and offensive specimen of his kind we have ever had, he is also the silliest.

"SYMPATHY" IN BROOKLYN.

IT is charged that the Brooklyn trolley companies have largely watered their stock, and are trying to earn 10 per cent. on an unduly large capital; that they work their motormen unduly long hours, and compel them to make dangerously quick time, as measures of economy, thus making the nervous wear and tear very serious; that they have refused to put fenders on their cars, in spite of the fact that they have already killed about 100 people. These grievances are partly public and partly private. The motormen are, however, those immediately affected by them. In a civilized and orderly community they ought to be met by agitation—public meetings, petitions to the mayor and the Legislature, and publication in the newspapers, and appeal to the directors of the roads. If this were the mode in which such disputes between employers and employed were ordinarily settled, sympathy would go out as freely to the men, under such conditions as prevail in Brooklyn, as it goes out to all who are "desolate and oppressed"; and it would certainly be effective.

But every wise man, under all circumstances, keeps his sympathy to himself until he finds out what use is to be made of it. You do not give your sympathy to the most miserable of human beings if you have reason to believe that it will help him to commit burglary; and we may say with confidence that sympathy with railroad employees on strike stimulates rioting, destruction of property, and in many cases murder, and ought to be withheld until order is restored. Thus far, in the history of railroads—steam, horse, and electric—we believe there has been no exception to the rule that a strike leads almost immediately to violence, that it is based on the monstrous doctrine that, once in the service of a corporation or individual, you have a right to stay there as long as you please on your own terms, and to intimidate and, if need be, maim or kill any one who tries to take your place. This has been true of every strike of which we have any knowledge. Consequently, when there is a strike of railroad employees, we all know with all but certainty what is going to happen, and if we contribute to the strike by our sympathy, we are jointly responsible for the results.

We are responsible, too, for the general idea which has permeated the labor mind, that anarchy is the proper remedy for corporate misdemeanors. If men are overworked and underpaid—anarchy; if the cars run too fast—anarchy; if many people are killed through high speed—anarchy;

if the stock has been watered—anarchy. Why anarchy should be the proper remedy for the wrongs of motormen or switchmen is never explained. If a domestic servant, discharged by a brutal master, were to station himself on the stairway with a shot-gun, and threaten the life of anybody who came to take his place, we should witness his arrest as a dangerous ruffian without the smallest pity; but when a body of strikers fill a great city with tumult and disorder and danger to life and property, and take thousands of men away from their business to act as soldiers, we still keep "sympathizing." Our legislators may be too imbecile or corrupt to deal with this matter on its merits, but we cannot allow society to be broken up until the Legislature lays in a stock of wisdom or courage. We must have peace and order, no matter who quarrels with his boss. We cannot be continually burning down our house in order to roast a pig. We cannot allow any company and its employees to settle their disputes at the expense of the whole community. Everybody, from the mayor down, who, when this trouble in Brooklyn began, fell to "sympathizing" and temporizing, is responsible for the week of disgraceful disorder which has followed. He knew, or ought to have known, the course the thing would run unless the companies surrendered.

And why did not the companies give way? The answer to this question brings up another phase of the labor question. They did not surrender because they knew by experience that if they did, the control of their roads would pass from their hands into those of the trades unions. It has consequently become a cardinal maxim of railroad managers never to surrender to a strike, because if they do there is sure to be an end to discipline. The Reading was once foolish enough to do so, and things promptly reached such a pass that the engineers used to stop the trains in mid-route to converse on labor matters. Therefore railroad corporations endeavor to fight it out, as well as murder, arson, and public sympathy with the rioters will let them, in cases where private employers would turn the key in the door and let the strikers stew in their own grease.

The remedies proposed, such as "compulsory arbitration"—that droll phrase which is really a contradiction in terms—ignore the difficulty of getting large bodies of men to abide by the decision of the arbitrators. Indeed, this is so plain that its promoters evidently expect the arbitrators always to decide in favor of the men. In other words, the Board of Arbitration would simply be a means of coercing the corporations. Suppose in Brooklyn the board should decide that the men ought to go back to work, would they go back? Hardly. If they did not, there would be no means of compelling them. Six thousand men could not be punished by fine or imprisonment; and if they were coerced into working on terms they disliked, how would their condition differ from that of slaves? Supposing they refused to continue in the service of the companies on the terms offered them by the arbitrators, would they go off and let other men take their places? Probably not. They would, judging from experience, remain in Brooklyn, cutting wires, tearing up rails, and assaulting anybody who tried to take their places. Their quitting their places without notice might be provided against by holding back part of their wages, and making it liable to forfeiture, but they would leave just the same, and rely on getting their pay back through riot and obstruction of highways.

There are two effective remedies open to us for these troubles of railroad employees. One is the purchase of the railroads by the State or city, and working them on public account through the Platts, McLaughlins, Crokers, and Grants, and all the Mikes, Jakes, and Barneys who carry on our city and State governments. Under these gentlemen there would certainly be no strikes, but there would be plenty of "rotation." The other is the stern, implacable, unfaltering instruction of railroad labor in that first lesson of civilization, that what cannot be cured must be endured; that murder, arson, and rioting are not among the remedies allowed in America to business men who are dissatisfied with the state of their affairs. If clergymen, lecturers, philanthropists, Utopists, and ethical economists do not give up the practice of treating the employees of the great corporations as children who do not understand their own affairs, and who must be humored and cajoled, and apologized for when they get into a passion and kill people and burn houses, the trouble we have had already with this class of persons is nothing to what awaits us in future. A democratic republic like ours can succeed only on the hypothesis that we are all equals, all adults, all masters of our own lives and capable of conducting our own affairs and righting our wrongs through peaceable and orderly methods. A yearly increasing body of voting protégés, secured by coddling against the consequences of their own mistakes, follies, or imprudence, would sooner or later ruin any state based, like ours, on universal suffrage.

POLITICS AS A PROFESSION.

A PROFESSOR at one of the English universities, eminent as a writer upon politics, not long since asked a correspondent in this country a somewhat perplexing question. How is it, he said, that *normally* a professional politician lives when his party is out of power? "It is understood that he makes a trade of politics; but, assuming that he is, on the average, out of office at least half his time, I do not see how he makes it a *remunerative* trade. It always seems to me that the calculations of mere selfishness ought to make a man, if clever enough to succeed as a politician, prefer any other trade to one that, after all, offers such intermittent stipends."

It cannot be denied, we fear, that the legitimate attractions of political life are no longer felt as they formerly were. Abstractly considered, there is certainly no loftier or more honorable ambition than to guide the policy of a great nation, to frame the laws under which the complicated transactions of millions of human beings shall be conducted with order and justice, or even to administer with efficiency the affairs of a small municipality. There was a time when such ambitions were commonly entertained by generous young men in this country, and when the expressed intention to seek a public career drew forth commendation and certainly excited no surprise. Perhaps these conditions still prevail in some parts of our land; but they no longer exist in the great centres of population. The graduate of one of our older universities who should announce that he proposed to take up politics as a profession, would, if he were of high character and promise, fill the hearts of his friends with dismay; while only in case he were of inferior reputation would the general opinion be that he had chosen well.

We need not pause to inquire why this change has taken place; but its consequences are obvious. If those who should by their position and education be best qualified to govern are from any cause excluded, the government will necessarily fall into the hands of men of inferior qualifications. Many such men are undoubtedly honest and well meaning. They constitute our most substantial bulwark against intolerable misgovernment. But they are frequently warped by party spirit, and they are not able to prosecute their work in the light of experience. Her ample page has never been to them unrolled, and while they may prevent corruption, they can do little to promote progress. Such men, moreover, are generally interested in private business of an engrossing character, which prevents their giving much time to political machinations; they seldom continue long in office; and they are greatly outnumbered in our most populous and wealthy States by the "professional politicians."

Many considerations operate to make this class adopt a trade that offers only "intermittent stipends." Foremost among these we incline to place the "gaudium certaminis." In these piping times of peace there is little opportunity to gratify the military instinct, but it would be a mistake to suppose that this instinct has been extirpated. Thousands of men yield to it constantly, striking work at the risk of starvation for themselves and their families just for the pleasure of a contest. The struggles of parties, the rivalry of processions and mass-meetings, the excitement of incessantly recurring elections are a substitute for the pomp and circumstance of war. They appeal to the class from which armies are recruited, and they ap-

peal to the motives which animate recruits. As Adam Smith pointed out, every one overvalues his prospect of success, and the raw recruit or the incipient politician attains at a stride, in his imagination, glory and rank and power.

Nor does this complete the analogy. Did the condottieri of the Middle Ages find it difficult to obtain troopers because campaigns were intermittent? Every soldier of fortune expected occasional reverses, and was used to alternations of poverty and plenty. When his pockets were full,he shared their contents with less fortunate comrades, and when misfortune befell him, he expected assistance in his turn. So with our politicians. They are generally—to do them justice—of the "hail-fellow" type, going the rounds with "the boys," affable and on good terms with every one. They are lavish with their money, which comes either from their leaders or from the spoils of office, and which they look upon much as soldiers regard their pay and their plunder. As is the case with soldiers when not actually fighting, the attractions of a common profession are greater than the repulsions of conflicting causes, and it is needless to remind our readers of the significance of "non-partisan" commissions. Our professional politicians fully understand the wisdom of making friends of the mammon of unrighteousness, and when they fall, they are not altogether cast down. Some of the leaders are sure to retain office or to have laid hold of some good thing, whereby they are enabled to take care of their followers until the return of popular favor. They are greatly assisted in this by our peculiar form of government; for if a politician lose office by the defeat of his party in a national election, he may be compensated through its victory in his State or municipality. More than one Congressman, repudiated by his own constituency, has restored his fortunes by taking up his residence in the city of New York.

Moreover, the pursuit of politics does not necessarily require the abandonment of other occupations. As we have said, the politician need have no education or social position. He may be the proprietor of a liquor-saloon and at the same time a member of the Legislature. He may keep a gambling-house and be a police-justice, or be a receiver of stolen goods as well as an alderman. His private occupation may suffer from his devotion to the public service, but such injuries are not irretrievable, and if he loses office, he can make some shift for himself. Probably he will not prosper so well in the long run as if he had devoted himself with sobriety and industry to some useful trade; but such devotion is not to his taste. *Falstaff* was a man of excellent parts, but he had no fancy for making a living by honest labor. Had he lived in our day and country, he would have infallibly taken to politics and have had great success therein.

To this must be added that the stipends of the politician, although intermittent, average well. From the floor-scrubbers and scavengers up to the police justices, if not higher, the pay is easily double what the work is worth. This constitutes a steady temptation to those who are not likely to succeed in the competition of private life, where sobriety and industry are the prime qualifications. This temptation is felt even by those who have the ability to attain distinction. Choate speaks of Webster as, shortly after his admission to the bar, "resisting the sharp temptation of a clerkship at fifteen hundred dollars a year," and it admits of no doubt that many young men seek political office because an assured support, even for a brief period, is, or seems, a matter of life and death for them. They may presently lose their offices, but in the meantime they have the salaries, and something may turn up which will give them a chance to retire. Doubtless not a few young men waste their talents in this way, and find that, having started in politics, they have lost their chance of success elsewhere. But, considering all the ups and downs of life, it is doubtful if men of the stamp of our professional politicians could do better for themselves than get support, even if intermittent, at the public expense. They would not, without changing their natures, make very desirable employees in private business, nor would they be likely to succeed in business by themselves. In fact, political positions, as government is now carried on, seem to be just the places for them, and it is hard to tell what would become of them if governments were to be reformed. Still, nations do not continue at war because their disbanded soldiers have to look out for themselves when peace is declared; and if we can reform our governments, we need not worry over the fate of the professional politicians.

THE SOUTH AND THE BLACK MAN.

Of the four new chapters added by Mr. Bryce to the third edition of his 'American Commonwealth,' none will attract more attention than those on the South since the War, and the Present and Future of the Negro. They form virtually one chapter, in which, as usual, the author skilfully combines history with exposition and forecast. Mr. Bryce's account of Reconstruction is neat and all but adequate; and if he does not directly answer the question whether the bestowal of suffrage on the freedmen was a political mistake, he leaves it to be inferred that he agrees with the eminent Southern witnesses whom he adduces, in regarding the possession of the suffrage as indispensable to the protection and independence of the blacks. This opinion, we believe, will stand. At the close of the war the Southern whites were incapable of choosing for themselves between three possible conditions for their late slaves, viz., as a portion of the community purposely "left defenceless and neglected, unimproved and unimproving," or as brought under the equal protection of the laws but disfranchised, or finally as full-fledged citizens sharing in the common government. The first condition would have been little better than slavery, while the experience of thirty years has demonstrated that equality before the law without suffrage would have been a chimera, seeing that it does not exist to-day even with the suffrage.

In a purely incidental way, Mr. Bryce brings against the system of slavery one of the most terrible indictments ever framed. The freedmen were, he says, "scarcely more fit to fend for themselves and guide their course as free citizens than when they, or their fathers, had been landed from the slave ship." In other words, slavery was in no sense a discipline in civilization, nor ever looked to any change in the brutish condition of the bondman. It could not brook any attempt to foster his intelligence, because discontent with his lot was sure to attend his enlightenment and make him at heart either a fugitive or an insurgent. What Mr. Bryce does not remark (and this is why we think his picture of Reconstruction inadequate), is the inherited dread of the elevation of the blacks which kept the whites from either undertaking it themselves or welcoming missionary assistance from the North. This dread is to-day the core of the so-called Negro Problem. It is shown not only in separate schools for the two colors, but in the steady social ostracism of white teachers of the blacks, particularly if Northerners. It is shown above all in the statutes making intermarriage a penal offence.

On the latter subject Mr. Bryce throws the weight of his humane authority into the white scale. Not in words. He expresses a wish "that lynching should be sternly repressed," and "that the State statutes or local regulations enforcing separation of blacks from whites in travelling or in places of public resort should be repealed." But he pointedly omits to recommend abolition of the laws forbidding intermarriage. The reason of this is, that he is convinced that the negro "will stay socially distinct, as an alien element, unabsorbed and unabsorbable"; and herein he finds the peculiar menace of the problem he is discussing. His prediction would, of course, be endangered by the removal of artificial barriers to "absorbability," such as Massachusetts, by the way, maintained on her statute-books into the forties. Bleaching went on under slavery at a rate and with an openness which proved that nature offered no invincible barrier to the union and mixture of the dominant and the subject race. It was no obstacle to the election of a Vice-President of the United States by a pro-slavery Senate that he had given two of his mulatto daughters in marriage to white men—the second in 1832, at which

time the moral feelings of the people of Scott County, Ky., were reported shocked and outraged by so indecent an example for their sons. There was nothing shocking in the having mulatto daughters, much less in deeding to them not only land but slaves. Had he sold them—that is, had he doomed them as slaves to utter unchastity—there would have been no ruffled feelings in Scott County. It was the natural affection of a parent which appeared so lamentable.

It might be conceded that the laws against intermarriage add but little to the repulsion between the two races brought about by emancipation, though on this point evidence is not easy to obtain. That white lust still satisfies itself where virtue is easiest—and want of chastity is one of the charges justly laid at the door of the black woman of the South—we, for our part, cannot doubt. That the denial of genuine marriage among the lower orders is a premium on illicit intercourse universally we can as little doubt. But the weight of the statutory prohibition lies in its perpetuating the doctrine of slavery, that the colored man is, when all is said and done, less than a human being. This doctrine has not been eradicated from the white mind in the generation since the war, and it coexists with a logical toleration not only of exceptional punishments for crimes perpetrated by the blacks, but for atrocious cruelty reserved solely for them—the lynchings deplored by Mr. Bryce, in which the faggot is ever ready to be applied to the dark skin.

If the South were fully conscious of itself, it would inquire on what theory of human government and society it can be indifferent, let alone being hostile, to the elevation of that vast population which, in Mr. Bryce's words, remained, up to the eve of emancipation, "in their notions and habits much what their ancestors were in the forests of the Niger or the Congo," their masters being "three or four thousand years in advance of them in mental capacity and moral force." A like condemnation is now being visited on foreign immigrants in comparison with native Americans; and how absurd it would be, if this element could not be excluded from the country—as the black Americans cannot be extruded from it—to wish to cut them off from our schools and to keep them in the condition of pariahs. Such action would be as sagacious as to remove them from the control of the health board because their numbers would be kept down by excessive mortality—as if there were no contagion for the rest of the community. The efforts to prevent "absorption" at the South have in them the seeds of moral contagion.

The Negro Problem in the mass may be one for publicists and philosophers; in the individual it is one of Christian dealing with a fellow-man. In this way votes may be won more surely than by juggling with ballot-boxes and poll-lists, as crime may be diminished without those bloody instructions which return to plague the inventor. A philanthropic spirit must arise in the South to coöperate thankfully with that which has for seventy years been extended to it from the North. In Mr. Bryce's words, "the real change to which the friends of the South and of the negro look forward is a change in the feelings of the white people, and especially of the ruder and less educated part of them." We will add that this change will also have a beneficial effect at the North, where the strength and endurance of color prejudice (apart from intermarriage) is, in view of Republican professions and the clamor of Labor, fairly to be called disheartening.

A MINISTER *MALGRÉ LUI.*

NEW YORK, January 26, 1895.

BEFORE me are five unpublished documents, just found in Paris, which possess historical interest in connection with the strife between the United States and France near the close of the last century. They are, in chronological order, (1) an unsigned proposal, dated September 13, 1793, for a closer alliance between the two republics; (2) some "Observations" submitted by Thomas Paine to the French Government (1795); (3) a letter of Paine to the French Minister of Foreign Affairs (1797); (4) a letter of Paine to Talleyrand (1797); (5) a letter of Talleyrand to Paine (1797).

On the earlier two of these I will touch briefly. The first, though professedly a French proposal, was evidently concocted among the Americans in Paris, who had come to regard Paine as their minister, and thus brought on him the wrath of the regular minister (Morris). Besides political adventurers from America, there were in Paris, in 1793, ninety captains whose vessels lay at Bordeaux, forbidden to reload and go to sea, lest their cargoes should be captured by the British. Having vainly pleaded with Minister Morris to interfere in their behalf, the captains appealed to Paine, who introduced them to the Convention, which made them concessions. This was near the close of August, 1793. Immediately after that, Paine's clients apparently felt that he was in danger. They tell the French Government, under their French *alias*, that Americans are prepared to supply them with grain, and corsairs for their war with England, and suggest the sending of two commissioners to treat with Congress. The proposal made by Washington and Jefferson to Otto (as cited in my recent paper in the *Nation*), "reciprocal naturalization of the citizens of the two countries," free commerce between them, guarantee of Canada and Louisiana to the Americans if they desire them, and cancelling of all debts of America to France, are proposed. They suggest that "Payne," though he has too many enemies to be one of the commissioners to the United States, shall accompany them and set forth their aims in the press.

(This document probably hastened the imprisonment of Paine, which his friends wished to avert by getting him out of the country. It was no doubt in Paine's mind when he wrote to Monroe that Morris and the Committee of Public Safety were both interested in his imprisonment. "The former wished to prevent my return to America, that I should not expose his misconduct; and the latter, lest I should publish to the world the history of its wickedness.")

The second of my new documents ("Observations") was written after the negotiations of Jay were ended, but before the treaty was published, either in America, England, or France. Paine, knowing that the real purpose of Washington in the negotiation was to get England out of our frontier posts, proposes that France shall strengthen her friends in America by announcing that she will exact, as a condition of peace with England, the evacuation of those posts, and also that a condition of her peace with Spain shall be free navigation of the Mississippi. This paper was written in the house of the American minister (Monroe), and no doubt in consultation with him.

The anger of France at the ratification of the British treaty was somewhat subsiding under the influence of Monroe when he was recalled. This recall awakened extreme resentment in France, and the retiring minister was notified that the Directory would not recognize any successor. In Monroe's pamphlet, after his return to America, he said that a minister to France "should possess the confidence of this [French] government," and on this Washington commented: "If he does not mean himself here, it is not difficult to guess who the other character is marked out by this description." This "other character" was probably Paine; and in fact this ex-prisoner became, after Monroe's recall, the only American minister recognized in France for the rest of the century. There is ample evidence of his being consulted by the Directory, by ministers of foreign relations, and by Napoleon. Nor was Paine's compulsory ministry without formidable responsibility. This was especially the case on the approach of C. C. Pinckney, as successor to Monroe. Not only did the Directory resolve not to receive him, but in the strained relations between the two countries, there was danger even of personal insult, if not indeed violence, to Pinckney, which might involve the two countries in war. Under these circumstances Paine made an effort to save time for farther negotiations with America, and addressed the following note to the Minister of Foreign Relations, De la Croix, (father of the artist Delacroix). I have not the original, but its translation into French by "Derché," and this, my third new document, I give entire:

"I understand that Mr. Pinckney has reached Bordeaux, and is on his way to Paris.

"The Federal Constitution of America declares that the President shall nominate ambassadors with consent of the Senate. President Washington has nominated Mr. Pinckney during the recess of the Senate, consequently without having obtained the consent of the Senate; but he is persuaded that it will confirm the nomination when it shall assemble. The nomination is, then, not complete until the Senate confirms it. Such being the case, the French Government will itself judge whether Mr. Pinckney can be received in his character of Minister until his nomination be fully confirmed; for it is not impossible that the Senate may refuse the confirmation, and it is certain the nomination will encounter opposition in the Senate.

"Another dubious thing in the nomination is, that it was made by Mr. Washington at the moment of his retirement from the Presidency, and that he may perhaps be no longer in office when Mr. Pinckney's letters of credence are delivered. This circumstance, in connection with a nomination that has not received the Senate's approbation, throws doubt on Mr. Pinckney's letters of credence, and renders them problematic; and the French Government will judge if it can receive Mr. Pinckney otherwise than as an individual awaiting from his Government his powers to deploy the character of Minister.

"This, I incline to think, is the best way of treating this affair, because it will render Mr. Washington's crafty policy ridiculous and derisive, without

the least affront to the American People or to Congress. If there were need to nominate a Minister in the place of Mr. Monroe (which is not certainly the case), Mr. Washington should have left this task to the President who shall succeed him; but he has astutely profited by the few days remaining to him to put an affront on the French Government, and especially on Mr. Monroe. Mr. Washington cannot but know that Mr. Jefferson, should he be chosen President, would not displace Mr. Monroe. Mr. Washington has adroitly profited by his opportunity to make the appointment himself, during the closing days of his Presidency. The state of suspension in which I consider Mr. Pinckney is not of such a nature as to prevent consultations (*pourparlers*) between the French Minister and Mr Pinckney. They could discuss all sorts of subjects, and perhaps with the more freedom because their interviews would not be directly official.

"So long as Mr Pinckney's nomination shall be in suspense in America, until it receives the Senate's confirmation, so long should it remain in suspense in France."

This note is without date, but an endorsement shows it was sent to Citizen Caille, "to verify whether Mr. Pinckney's nomination is unconstitutional, and promptly return me this Note." An entry shows that the Directory decided that it would not be "dignified" to receive Pinckney in the way proposed by Paine, and the new minister was promptly expelled from French territory. Unless Paine's constitutional point was merely meant to cause delay and prevent the angry action which occurred, he was as hazy as Washington himself was about his right to make the appointment. It is also notable that in his message of December 7, 1796, Washington does not mention the change of ministers in France, Congress being informed of it January 19, but little over six weeks before the inauguration of Adams.

The last of my new documents are letters exchanged between Paine and Talleyrand, who became Minister of Foreign Relations in the summer of 1797. It will be borne in mind that the Directory had taken up the position that, during its war with England, it would deal with American ships and cargoes precisely as America *permitted* England to deal with the same. If England was permitted to capture American ships, provisions, and seamen to be used against France, France would capture and utilize them against England. The treaty of 1778, which forbade France such captures, had been rendered injurious to her by the British treaty, which allowed United States provisions to be seized at sea, on their way to France, on stipulation of compensation. Paine did not comprehend that, under this stipulation, the seizure of American provisions at sea by England was regarded with equanimity by American shippers. On September 30, 1797, he wrote (in English) to Talleyrand:

"Citizen Minister: I promised you some observations on the state of things between France and America. I divide the case into two parts; first, with respect to some method that shall effectually put an end to *all* interruptions of the American Commerce; secondly, with respect to the captures that have been made on that Commerce.

"As to the first case (the interruption of the American Commerce by France), it has its foundation in the British Treaty, and it is the continuance of that Treaty that renders the remedy difficult. Besides, the American administration has blundered so much in the business of treaty-making that it is probable it will blunder again in making another with France. There is, however, one method left, and there is but one, that I can see, that will be effectual It is a *non-importation Convention,—That America agrees not to import from any Nation in Europe who shall interrupt her Commerce or seize any goods, wares, or merchandise whatever, and that all her ports shall be shut against the Nation that gives the offence.*

"But it would be far better if this non-importation convention were to be a general Convention of Nations acting as a Whole. It would give a better protection to Neutral Commerce than the armed neutrality could do. I would rather be a Neutral Nation under the protection of such a Convention, which costs nothing to make it, than be under the protection of a navy equal to that of Britain. France should be the patron of such a Convention and sign it It would be giving both her consent and her protection to the Rights of Neutral Nations. If England refuse to sign it she will nevertheless be obliged to respect it, or lose all her Commerce. I enclose you a plan I drew up about four months ago, when there was an expectation that Mr. Madison would come to France. It has lain by me ever since.

"The second part, that of settlement for the Captures, I will make the subject of a future correspondence. *Salut et respect.*"

The enclosure is a "Maritime Compact," of nine articles, by which the nations agree to close their ports against the ships and commerce of every country that interrupts neutral commerce, and unite to punish the offending country. The flag of this international association is to be the imitation of a Rainbow.

Talleyrand's answer (in French) is dated October 6:

"I have the honor to return you, Citizen, with very sincere thanks, your Letter to General Washington, which you have had the goodness to show me.

"I have received the letter you have taken the trouble to write me, the 9th of this month [Vendémiaire]. I need not assure you of the appreciation with which I shall receive the further suggestions you promise on the means of terminating in a durable manner the differences which naturally excite your interest as a patriot and as a Republican. Animated by such a principle, your ideas cannot fail to cast valuable light on the discussion which has been raised, and which should have for its end a reunion of the two Republics, in whose alienation the enemies of Liberty triumph."

Paine's "Maritime Compact," translated by Bonneville, was distributed among all the ministers of Europe (1800), and embodied in one of the author's "Letters to the American People" (1803). The original manuscript of this American letter is in the possession of Mr. W. F. Havemeyer.

Moncure D. Conway.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY'S OLD MASTERS.

London, January 5, 1895.

The Royal Academy has never made such rich amends for its summer show as in this year's winter exhibition. The twenty-sixth collection of Old Masters brought together in Burlington House proves one of the finest hung for many winters—so fine, indeed, that the Venetian pictures at the New Gallery suffer sadly by comparison. Moreover, the Academy has made what, for it, must be counted quite a new departure. The exhibition before now has often included masterpieces, though perhaps these have never been as many, nor selected with as much discrimination and intelligence. But the Academy has so seldom, throughout the century of its career, offered anything in the shape of novelty, that it is the new departure which first claims attention. It is of genuine importance because of the influence revealed and the promise given.

The new feature, then, is the "collection illustrating the sculptor-goldsmith's art, chiefly of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries." The custom at the winter show has long been to fill the water-color rooms with a special series, complete in itself, representing the work of a single artist whom it was thought well—for one reason or another—to honor. Thus, last year Stothard was chosen for the purpose, and the year before, Alfred Stevens. It was late in the day to pay this tribute to Stevens, who was never recognized by the Academy during his life. The choice pointed to the influence of sculptors, like Mr. Gilbert and Mr. Onslow Ford, who are in close sympathy with Stevens, and, like him, have at times devoted themselves to those minor branches of sculpture here classified as the sculptor-goldsmith's art; but more particularly Mr. Gilbert. Since then, Mr. Frampton, who may also, for the sake of definition, be called decorator as well as sculptor, has been elected an Associate, and the influence has been strengthened. Certainly in no other way is it easy to explain how the Academy has come to depart so far from its traditions as to exhibit work suggestive rather of the Arts and Crafts Society, or an exhibition of decorative art. There are cases filled with examples of the jewelry designed by Italians and Spaniards, Flemings and Germans, in days when every jeweller was an artist, not a manufacturer; and most notable, in this section, is Sir J. C. Robinson's collection of rings, which includes very beautiful intaglios, cameos, and scarabs. There are old chalices and cups of gold, exquisite silver repoussé work, bronze medallions and plaques, ivories, snuff-boxes, *bonbonnières*, and, in a word, all the dainty odds and ends designed by the artist craftsmen for people who delighted in such extravagant trifles. To add to the interest, many original designs for this work have been hung in the same room, among them one or two uncommonly good pen-drawings by Dürer, and elaborate sketches by Holbein.

Now, one of the grave charges against the Academy is its indifference to all art save the painter's and the sculptor's. The treatment it accords to water-color and black-and-white is little less than a scandal. But the decorative artist (the term has been made useful by custom despite the contradiction it implies) has again and again maintained his grievance to be still more scandalous. He is not even accorded the little obscure corner granted to illustrator and etcher in the summer exhibition, nor has he ever been represented in the list of Associates and Academicians, though at least one steel (or reproductive) engraver has hitherto been supposed to satisfy the claims of all black-and-white men. Therefore, the Academy's first recognition of the applied arts seems to hold out promise of a broader and more enlightened policy for the future. The chances are it will lead to nothing; and, when all is said, the applied arts now acknowledged officially are limited to the few that appeal more directly to the sculptor. But if the Academy continues to extend its patronage to gold and silversmith and gem-engraver, can it, in reason, deny the rightful demands of the designer of wall-paper and tapestry, of stained glass and pottery? This is the question involved, and it is really of far more immediate importance than the actual objects shown. One's faith in academies, literary or artistic, may not be very great; but still, so long as there is an Academy of Arts in England, it would be as well for artists if it were to become something more than a close corporation for a small group of painters and a few sculptors and architects.

It must be confessed that, but for the question at issue, the sculptor-goldsmith's creations prove less delightful than the paintings. As usual, the Old Masters are Dutch and Flemish, Italian and Spanish, French and German, while the "deceased masters of the Bri-

tish school," as the Catalogue always calls them, bring the collection, in point of time, down almost to our own generation. But in general arrangement and scope accustomed rules are observed more than accustomed judgment has been shown, not only in selecting, but in leaving out. The result is, that walls do not offend by the rubbish that is the chief drawback to all collections of Old Masters —is just now, as I have pointed out, to the New Gallery's show of Venetian art. This s most apparent in the British pictures. We have been spared the regulation Landseer and the irritating assortment of Mulready's and Maclises and the like. There is hardly a canvas which is not really good in itself and characteristic of its painter. Thus, among the many Sir Joshuas are the Crewe portraits, lent by Lord Houghton, several bearing melancholy witness to the bad colors that prevailed on the artist's palette, and one or two of children suggesting how the way was prepared for the sentimental "Bubbles" and "Cherry Ripes" of to-day. The Gainsboroughs give several very lovely examples of his masterly use of blue, in defiance of all Sir Joshua's protest against that "cold color"; the "Miss Willoughby" and "Lady Eardley" being the most distinguished. And the Romneys present all the enchanting variations of Lady Hamilton's enchanting face which his name in a catalogue leads one to expect. Even the Raeburns and Lawrences are exceptionally good; and a far earlier master, but too little known, William Dobson, the pupil of Vandyck, can be studied in a portrait of a young man in armor which has much of the dignity and serenity of a fine Rembrandt.

The landscapes are not less famous. There has been hung, for instance, "The Cottage Door" of Gainsborough, the property of the Duke of Westminster, one of the most talked-about of all the landscapes which during his lifetime littered up his hall and studio, waiting for the purchasers who rarely came, even in the years when he could scarce paint portraits fast enough to meet his commissions. Constable's "Dedham Vale" and "Scene on the River Stour" are both here; and three or four excellent Turners, none more masterly than the Mortlake, showing one of the great curves the Thames makes between its low banks, and giving marvellous effects of light and atmosphere, not always to be had in this painter's more eccentric impressions.

To pass on to the foreign schools is to wonder anew at the wealth of England's royal and private galleries. More than one canvas may be of doubtful authenticity; this is inevitable so long as old pictures are prized for their age rather than their merit. Here the name of Titian may be dishonored by a portrait that the most casual observer, one would think, must swear he never painted; here Terburg may fare no better; and both can claim Velasquez as a fellow-sufferer. But there is good work enough to atone amply for all the insults offered. A really good Velasquez is included, a replica of that little Don Carlos in hunting costume, with dogs at his feet, which is one of the glories of the Prado; by comparison even Sir Joshua's children seeming but so much idle paint. A very stately portrait of Ariosto is far from bringing discredit upon poor Titian, who, at the New Gallery, is held responsible for so many an indifferent painter's indiscretions. The Primitives are kept within reasonable bounds, so that an occasional Mabuse, or follower of Holbein, is not lost in an appalling succession of "cock-eyed Madonnas." There are Janets to make one pause. And a fair array is offered of Cuyps and Jan Steens and Gabriel Metsus, with one good Terburg and a little Franz Hals to force a contrast.

But here interest centres about the Rembrandts. Not many national galleries, outside of Holland, can boast of so strong a collection—small as it is—as this one, loaned for the occasion by the Duke of Westminster from his own private gallery. Portraits of Nicholas Bergheim and his wife, and of Rembrandt himself, as a youth decked out in the studio properties he loved, have their no light value; a landscape (with figures, according to the Catalogue, put in by Teniers) is not without importance, since the landscapes he painted are known so much less well than those he etched; but the wonder of these canvases fades before the "Gentleman with a Hawk," and the "Lady with a Fan," in whom one cannot but recognize the Saskia of so many pictures. In both portraits all Rembrandt's finest qualities are disclosed: his vigorous drawing in the figures, his subtle modelling in the faces, his dignity of composition in the absolutely simple pose, and the rare charm of color, the rich, warm glow with which he filled his finest pictures, and which not even Titian has surpassed. These two portraits alone would suffice to make the show noteworthy. N. N.

PARIS OF THE REVOLUTION.

PARIS, January 17, 1895.

M. G. LENOTRE seems peculiarly drawn towards the most painful details and incidents of the Terror of 1793. He had already published a book on 'The Guillotine and the Executors of Criminal Judgments in Paris and in the Departments, during the Revolution, from Documents in the State Archives'—a curious and interesting volume, but of a decidedly painful and almost abhorrent nature. He gives us now another volume, which is more readable, 'Paris Révolutionnaire.' There is a very large *Literatur* on Paris, to use a German expression. Some collectors feel a sort of passion for all that concerns Paris, its monuments, its streets, its development. The engraved pictures and plans of old Paris always fetch a good price at the public sales. All amateurs of engraving know how dearly they must pay for the etchings of Méryon, who bequeathed a sort of religion for the *Cité*, the Seine, its bridges, its quays, their many-storied and narrow houses, its boats. Drumont, who has become so famous as the writer of 'France Juive' and editor of the *Libre Parole*, wrote, when he was young and unknown and had not won popularity, a very agreeable and sometimes almost poetical book on 'Vieux Paris.'

I could not help being drawn towards 'Paris Révolutionnaire,' as I must confess having myself an old affection for the "Grande Ville," and especially for the oldest parts of it, in which every stone has its history. M. Lenotre was led to write this new work by M. Sardou, who knows Paris better than anybody, and who is a passionate collector of whatever concerns its history. It might almost be said that Sardou writes his dramas for the pleasure of reconstituting some part of the past. "Thermidor" has for its background the Paris of the Revolution; and "Madame Sans-Gêne," the Paris of the Empire.

"Chronology," writes M. Lenotre, "and geography are the two eyes of history; if this be so, the history of our Revolution is one-eyed, for its topography remains to be made. Not only the merely curious are all but ignorant where were the Jacobins, the Feuillants, the Force, the Manége, the Revolutionary tribunal; but even the erudite (and I do not except those who have made a special study of the Revolution) could not tell us exactly what were in 1793 the Tuileries, the Abbaye, the Conciergerie, the Hôtel de Ville. . . . How often, in reading the pages of Michelet and Lamartine, inspired by the dark days of the Terror, have I tried mentally to reconstruct the room in which the Convention sat, the prisons, the Committees."

M. Lenotre begins with Robespierre: "À tout seigneur, tout honneur." We see first the dark and narrow street of Arras which Robespierre left to take the diligence that was to bring him to Paris, after he had been elected a member of the States-General. He borrowed ten louis to make the journey, and had nothing but a trunk. (M. Lenotre gives us a list of the clothes which were in it, but does not tell where he procured it.) This Deputy of the Tiers had a coat of black cloth, and he bought another, of black embossed velvet, at the Temple in Paris. As a Deputy he received eighteen livres a day; he kept a third for himself, sent a third to his sister Charlotte at Arras, and the remaining third to a person who idolized him, if we may believe Pierre Villiers, who afterwards became his secretary and who wrote the 'Souvenirs d'un Déporté.' Robespierre long remained obscure; he began to be known only after he had left the little hôtel in the Rue de Saintonge, and taken rooms in the house of a man called Duplay, who offered him his hospitality. Duplay was an upholsterer who lived in the Rue St.-Honoré; he had known Robespierre at the club of the Jacobins; he admired him, he was proud to have a Deputy in his house and to receive his friends there. Duplay's house still exists, but several stories were added to it in 1816, without, however, altering the principal dispositions of the apartments of Duplay and of Robespierre.

Robespierre lived there for three years, with Duplay, his wife and his family, which consisted of four girls and a boy. Éléonore, one of the girls, entertained for Robespierre a sentiment in which admiration was perhaps mingled with love. Some said, when he died, that she was engaged to him; others, that she had been his mistress. Her young friends, at Regnault's atelier, where she took lessons in drawing, called her, in derision, Madame Robespierre. Her dream was not of long duration. Elizabeth, a sister of Éléonore, was married to Philippe Lebas, a Terrorist Deputy, aged twenty-eight, on the 26th of August, 1793. The room in which the sisters slept is the least altered of all. The doors, the Louis-XVI. mirrors, the panels, even the floor, remain intact. We can imagine, with M. Lenotre, the conversations which took place in the drawing-room of the admiring Duplays, between Robespierre, Camille Desmoulins, Saint-Just, Lebas, Collot-d'Herbois. We can see, on the morning of the famous festival of the Supreme Being, Mme. Duplay preparing the neat clothes of the Dictator—his blue coat, his nankin breeches, the tricolor silk sash, the little hat with the tricolor cockade.

What became of the Duplays after the execution of Robespierre? Mme. Duplay disappeared; she either was murdered, or committed suicide in the prison of Sainte-Pélagie. Lebas's widow changed her name, and for a while worked as a washwoman in the boats of the Seine. Lamartine saw her in her old age, and has described her in his 'Histoire des Girondins.' Éléonore survived the Revolution forty years, living in great seclusion; she considered herself a widow, and wore mourning all her life. Curiously enough, she received a pension from the Thermidorians; this pension,

which was 6,000 francs at first, and was afterwards reduced to 1,500, was paid by all the successive governments till 1834. Duplay himself was compromised in the conspiracy of Babeuf, but he was released and remained quiet till his death, which took place in 1820.

M. Lenotre has had the curiosity to look for the Hôtel de la Providence, the little inn where Charlotte Corday took a room when she arrived from Caen with the intention of killing the monster Marat. This house is still in existence, in one of the dingiest streets in the neighborhood of the Place des Victoires. It is no longer an inn, but the adjoining house has become one under the name of Hôtel de Francfort. The legend has followed the business, and there is now in this Hôtel de Francfort a room which is shown as one occupied by Charlotte Corday. Charlotte left the Caen diligence at twelve o'clock and hired a porter who brought her trunk to the Hôtel de la Providence. She was tired from her long journey and remained in her room; the next day she tried in vain to see Marat at the Convention. She knew nothing of his habits, but she soon found out that her only chance to see him was to go to his house. The next day she bought a common kitchen knife, took a cab, and had herself conducted to the house where Marat lived—a sort of bourgeois hôtel, with a portecochère, a little inner court, an open staircase. The plan given by M. Lenotre shows very clearly the disposition of Marat's apartment. He lived there with his mistress, Simonne Evrard, her sister Catherine Evrard, and his own sister, Albertine Marat. Marat, as is well known, received Charlotte Corday in his bath. While they were talking, Simonne entered a moment, with a potion which she was preparing for him. She took two dishes, in which was prepared the meat for the evening repast, and left the room. She was hardly out when she heard a great scream; she reëntered—everything was already covered with blood. Charlotte, very pale, was standing; she had placed her knife on some newspapers.

M. Lenotre does not exactly know what to say about Charlotte Corday; he cannot understand how a well-born young woman, educated in religious ideas, could execute her crime so coldly, without hesitation. He finds her almost too sublime. To a question of Fouquier de Tinville's she answered: "Oh, the monster! he takes me for an assassin." When he asked her, "Who could have inspired in you so much hatred?" she replied: "I had no need of the hatred of others. I had enough of my own." She was serene in her prison and serene on the scaffold. She was a descendant of the heroic Corneille. The only authentic portrait of her is that made during the trial by Hauer, which is now in the museum of Versailles. Her hair was blonde, her eyes blue, her skin very white. She is represented in this portrait with a white cap, and a white fichu folded on her breast; a lock of hair falls on one side over her shoulder. The features of the face are very noble and striking. A friend of mine has a portrait of her unfinished, made by our great Baudry; from what sources? I could not tell. It is difficult to imagine anything more striking. It is certainly singular that France, in her great trials, should find women representatives of her deepest and most legitimate instincts. Jeanne d'Arc is the poetical figure which will always represent the uprising of popular France against invasion, against foreign domination. Charlotte Corday will always represent the reaction of innocence and virtue against the cruel tyrants who sent every day virtuous and innocent victims to the guillotine.

There is a great variety of horrors in this volume of 'Paris Révolutionnaire.' A chapter is given to the Abbaye, where took place the massacre of the prisoners on the 2d of September, 1792. The prison, which was a part of the ancient abbey of Saint-Germain des Prés, was on that day full of soldiers who had escaped from the massacre of the Tuileries on the 10th of August, of relations of émigrés, journalists, priests, aristocrats of all ranks. One of the priests who were in the Abbaye, the Abbé de Salamon, who escaped miraculously, has left an account of what he saw on that day; his manuscript has only recently been found in Rome. He was an internuncio of the Pope; he had previously been a counsellor of the Parlement of Paris. M. Lenotre enters into minute details as to the places where the massacres occurred in the courts of the Abbaye, and he shows conclusively that the number of the victims was 270. Maillard, who, during that bloody night of September, constituted himself a judge and went through the mockery of justice, was a young man twenty-nine years old; he had played his part on all the great days of the Revolution; he became the leader of the mob at the Abbaye, and for three days multiplied his functions, judged the prisoners, ordered the summary execution of all the priests, presently (at the Carmelite prison) examined more prisoners, had many executed, and saved a few—which allowed him afterwards, in a pamphlet which he wrote for his defence, to say: "I am not a man of blood." He was familiarly called *Tape dur*. We find him in 1793 in the police, at the head of sixty men who were hunting the suspects, keeping for himself all their assignats, imprisoned for his robberies at the Force, released, and finally dying of consumption on the 15th of April, 1794, at the age of thirty-one.

The salon of Mme. Roland has furnished a chapter to M. Lenotre. He shows us first the house where she was born on the Quai de l'Horloge, afterwards the Hôtel de Calonne et de Lionne, which was the Ministry of the Interior in 1792, when Roland was minister; the great drawing-room of the ministry, reconstituted with its admirable panels, after inedited drawings in the Cabinet des Estampes. These numerous engravings give great value and charm to the exact and minute studies of M. Lenotre; and all lovers of old Paris, all who are interested in our Revolutionary period, will find something to enjoy or to learn in a book which takes us from the old Tuileries to Danton's home in Arcis and in Paris, from the Club of the Jacobins to the Club of the Cordeliers, and which brings us in the end to the prison of Marie Antoinette and the Conciergerie. *Sunt lacrymæ rerum*, said the Latin poet; these stones of the Conciergerie have their terrible eloquence, and so have all the houses and dwellings with which M. Lenotre has made himself and makes us familiar.

Correspondence.

THE A. P. A. IN MONTANA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Every sober citizen, loyal to the fundamental principles of American institutions, will find food for reflection in the following incident:

The Republicans of the Montana Legislature, having nominated in caucus Mr. Thomas H. Carter for one of the United States Senators to be elected at this session, the American Protective Association of Montana sent a lengthy protest to be read in the House of Representatives, warning all members against voting for a Romanist of any character, reciting as a threat some recent State history to show the strength of the A. P. A., and rehearsing some evidences of Papal ascendancy in this country. Among other things, it claimed a vote of over 8,000 in Montana out of a total vote of about 50,000.

But note the reception given to this surprising communication. Scarcely had the clerk read aloud the title of the document and its opening sentence, when a member jumped to his feet and vehemently moved that it be laid on the table. A dozen men rose to second the motion, which passed unanimously. Not content with this, a member then moved that it be sent back immediately as having been unread. This, too, received a dozen seconds and went through without a dissenting vote.

The Butte contingent of the A. P. A. seems to have been fired with indignation at this summary disposal of their solemn warning. A train was chartered, and at an early hour on Tuesday morning—the day set for a formal vote in both houses for United States Senators—a deputation of 100 members of the A. P. A. arrived in Helena. They immediately proceeded to "interview" with considerable emphasis certain refractory legislators, but were dumfounded at meeting with an absolute refusal to entertain their propositions. Their astonishment increased almost to stupefaction when certain hard-pressed legislators resigned their membership in the A. P. A. in order to regain independence for their votes. When the vote was taken at about eleven A. M. of that day, it was found that not a single vote had been influenced even by the personal presence and angry threats of the Butte delegation.

A Staunch Protestant.

Boulder, Montana, January 18, 1895.

HOME MARKET NOT ENOUGH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Last week in Cincinnati a convention was held at which a National Association of the Manufacturers of the United States was organized. Over 400 delegates, representing all parts of the country, were present. The ceremonies were opened by a speech from Gov. McKinley, and the politics of a large majority of those present was intensely Republican. The spirit, however, which pervaded the entire proceedings of the convention is most significant, for it is remarkable that a large group of manufacturers should meet at a time of depressed business, especially after a reduction of the tariff, and not in any way attempt to draft a resolution asking for a restoration of duties. On the contrary, these men here inaugurated a new policy—that of extended foreign trade. At last they find America is not big enough for Americans!

The basis of this movement was a fact presented by Mr. M. E. Ingalls in his speech on Wednesday last. He stated that since 1860 our population had increased about 170 per cent., while our manufacturing interest had developed 800 per cent. The proceedings of the convention were all termed "protective"; but is not this word beginning to have a new significance? The strongest expression of a high-tariff character passed by the convention is the following sort of platform embodied in its constitution:

"To the largest possible extent our home

market should be retained and supplied by our own producers, and our foreign trade relations should be extended in every direction and manner not inconsistent therewith."

Very truly yours,

JAMES B. STANWOOD.

CINCINNATI, January 27, 1895.

INFLUENCE OF COLLEGE-BRED MEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The paragraphs in the *Nation* of December 20, 1894 (p. 465), making the fifty-three "immortals" whose names are inscribed on the drum of the dome of the new House of Representatives in Boston a text for emphasizing the influence of college-bred men, are wholesome reading, and seem to have been much commented on in college journals. They have called to my mind an investigation made some years ago to ascertain what proportion of the signers of the Declaration of Independence and of the framers of the Constitution were college-bred men. So far as I could ascertain from 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of Biography,' of the fifty-six "signers" twenty-six were college graduates, while ten more received classical training, though they did not attend college. Of the twenty-six college-bred "signers," Harvard furnished eight—Samuel Adams, John Adams, John Hancock, William Ellery, Elbridge Gerry, R. T. Paine, William Hooper, and William Williams; Yale four—Oliver Wolcott, Philip Livingston, Lewis Morris, and Lyman Hall; Princeton two—Richard Stockton and Benjamin Rush; William and Mary three—Thomas Jefferson, C. Braxton, and George Wythe; College of Philadelphia three—William Paca, Matthew Hopkinson, and James Smith; Cambridge (Eng.) three—Arthur Middleton, Thomas Lynch, and Thomas Nelson; Edinburgh—John Witherspoon. James Wilson studied at Edinburgh, St. Andrews, and Glasgow, and Charles Carroll of Carrollton at several foreign Jesuit colleges, as well as law at the Temple.

Of the sixty-one men commissioned to attend the Constitutional Convention thirty-one were college-bred, and five of the remainder had what might be called a liberal education, though they did not attend college. Of these Harvard furnished six—Rufus King, Elbridge Gerry, Francis Dana, Caleb Strong, John Pickering, and Benjamin West; Yale four—Abr. Baldwin, Jared Ingersoll, W. S. Johnson, and Wm. Livingston; Princeton nine—James Madison, Gunning Bedford, Jonathan Dayton, Oliver Ellsworth, Luther Martin, Alexander Martin, Wm. Patterson, W. C. Houston, and W. R. Davie; William and Mary five—John Blair, Edmund Randolph, George Wythe, James McClurg, and J. F. Mercer; Columbia (King's) two—Alexander Hamilton and Gouverneur Morris; College of Philadelphia two—Thomas Mifflin and Hugh Williamson; Oxford (Eng.)—Charles Cotesworth Pinckney; Glasgow—R. D. Spaight; Edinburgh, St. Andrews and Glasgow—James Wilson.

Of the thirty-nine whose names were appended to the document, seventeen were college-bred men.—Very respectfully,

CHARLES FORSTER SMITH.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS will issue at once Dr. Parkhurst's work, 'Our Fight with Tammany,' and 'A Creedless Gospel and the Gospel Creed,' by Dr. Herbert Y. Satterlee.

Prof. Skeat is engaged upon a volume supplementary to the six of his Oxford edition of Chaucer, just completed. It will contain the prose "Testament of Love," and the chief poems attributed to Chaucer and published with his genuine works in old editions. Macmillan & Co. will publish it.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have in press 'The United States Internal Revenue Tax System,' with text of all laws now in force, including the income-tax law, by Chas. Wesley Eldridge; 'Half a Century with Judges and Lawyers,' by Joseph A. Willard; 'The Fast and Thanksgiving Days of New England,' an historical study by the Rev. Wm. De Loss Love, jr.; 'Louisiana Folk-Tales,' in French and in English, by Prof. Alcée Fortier; and 'Stories of the Foot-Hills,' by Mrs. Margaret C. Graham.

Since we noticed, something more than three years ago, Seyffert's 'Dictionary of Classical Antiquities' (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan), the work has passed to a second and now comes to us in a third edition. It is still worthy of the praise we gave it, and the much-needed index has been supplied. We wish we could flatter ourselves that our other strictures (not profound, to be sure) had been heeded, but they have not. As Aristotle's 'Constitution of Athens' was caught up for the second edition, so Monro on the Modes of Greek Music and Dörpfeld's latest views on the theatre have been availed of for the present issue. The book remains a very handsome one, with more than 450 illustrations.

Just three years ago the Rev. John Wright, D.D., of St. Paul, Minn., issued a volume of one hundred and seventy duodecimo pages, entitled 'Early Bibles of America.' In the third edition, now at hand (T. Whittaker), the work has grown to almost five hundred octavo pages. In the interval many additional facts have come to the author's knowledge, and more editions have been studied. The result is a volume largely rewritten and much augmented, containing the completest account, within single covers, of the subject in hand. The treatment is historical, biographical, and bibliographical, embracing the history of the editions, accounts of editors and printers, the distribution and present location of copies of rare editions so far as ascertainable. Thirty-three facsimiles of title-pages are given, and in the appendices are many valuable facts. For instance, the author indicates where are to be found one hundred and twenty-five copies of Eliot's Indian Bible in its various editions, and he adds a table showing the prices which some of them have fetched at auction. One hundred and thirty-one copies of the Saur Bible are located, and thirty-two Aitken Bibles. More than twenty-two pages are devoted to a list of American editions, previous to 1860, not mentioned by O'Callaghan, and more than fifty pages to a priced list of all editions arranged by years. The whole is closed with an index which seems to be very exhaustive. It scarcely need be said that the new edition of Dr. Wright's work is what the first was not, a valuable addition to a branch of bibliographical literature that is exceptionally rich in editions and in perplexing problems. Special chapters have been prepared on Mexican and Canadian Bibles, and the author has endeavored to make his work the more reliable by visiting most of the collections where noted Bibles are preserved. The work is well printed and bound.

The late Austin Phelps marked the close of his long and successful career as professor of sacred rhetoric at Andover Theological Seminary by publishing the substance of the doctrines which he had for many years been inculcating in his lectures. Of the volumes issued under these circumstances, 'English Style in Public Discourse' (1883), which we then commended to its especial public, has recently been edited as a text-book for schools and colleges by Prof. H. A. Frink, under the title of 'Rhetoric: Its Theory and Practice' (Scribners). In spite, however, of the dignified grace of Prof. Phelps's style, and the interest and value which his teachings had for young orthodox clergymen of a generation ago, it is hard to see how in its old or its new form the treatise can now be used with advantage as a general text-book. Prof. Phelps's ideas in regard to rhetoric were those common when he was at his prime, and do not differ greatly from those developed in most of the older treatises. But the rapid increase in our knowledge of English usage has changed radically many of the dogmas of thirty years ago. Teachers and students now rightly demand a simpler system of classification, a more scientific method of instruction, fewer absolute rules of prohibition, more guides for positive action. To reproduce an example—however excellent at its time and in its place—of the older, dogmatically negative rhetorical system, is scarcely to render modern education a service.

Alexandre Dumas's 'Napoleon,' translated from the French by John B. Larner (Putnams), owes its publication in English dress to the unreasoning literary fashion of the hour. The original sketch has for a long time been known in schools as a reading-text of easy French. At first written in dramatic form, it still bears much of the fire and force of description with which Dumas originally endowed it, and of which Mr. Larner's translation does not by any means wholly deprive it.

Capt. Arthur L. Wagner, instructor in the art of war at the United States Infantry and Cavalry School, already favorably known as an author of military works, has published a handsome volume on 'Organization and Tactics' (B. Westermann & Co.). An historical consideration of the several arms and of their relations to each other in actual service, as well as a careful study of the departments of supply and of medicine and surgery, gives to the work a great breadth of scope. The task has been ably performed, and, like other books by the younger generation of American soldiers, has the noteworthy merit of copious illustration from the records of our civil war as well as from the histories of recent European wars. The full treatment of American examples will make the work indispensable to the American student, and will not diminish its interest in the eyes of European readers, who will find here a mine of new and valuable matter bearing upon the practical handling of armies in the field.

Another useful piece of work has been done by Surgeon (Lt.-Col.) Alfred A. Woodhull, U. S. A., in a detailed report on the medical department of the British army, studied in comparison with our own. The Secretary of War has authorized the publication (by Buxton & Skinner Co., St. Louis), and it will thus be brought to the attention of the general public as well as of the officers of the army. It deals in an instructive and interesting way with the qualifications and organization of the medical staff and with its work. The last includes examination of recruits, sanitary care of soldiers, of their barracks and huts, and

their treatment in all medical cases from trivial to grave. The organization of hospitals and the hospital service, the supply of drugs, of surgical instruments, the control of the dietary of the sick, the treatment of convalescents—in short, all the multifarious administration of the medical department, is lucidly discussed.

'In the Heart of the Bitter-Root Mountains,' by "Heclawa" (A. L. A. Himmelwright), which bears the imprint of the Putnams, is noteworthy as containing probably the best map ever published of the huge nest of mountains in central Idaho, west of the main ridge which forms the divide between that State and Montana, though the scale is too small to show much detail. This region was first traversed by Lewis and Clark in 1805, and again in 1806, and we hardly heard anything more about it till 1854, when Mullan followed the Lo Lo or Northern Nez Percé trail, and made a sketchy route-map which was published in I. I. Stevens's volume of the Pacific Railroad Reports. It became somewhat better known during the Nez Percé war, when Howard and Gibbon chased Chief Joseph through Idaho. The best map we have between Lewis and Clark's (published in 1814) and this one of Mr. Himmelwright's, is a scarcely known sheet, twenty-five miles to the inch, by George Benson Nicholson, 1866, published with a pamphlet of the Northwestern University of Illinois, May 1, 1887, by Prof. Oliver Marcy, entitled "The Lou Lou Trail." None of the various other maps we have examined—both civil and military—are of the slightest value; for it is a fact that an area in Idaho larger than some of our States is less known geographically than some equal areas in Central Africa and within the arctic circle. Mr. Himmelwright's book is the story of the Carlin hunting-party in that region, which acquired such sensational notoriety a year or so ago from the distressing incident of the abandonment of a cook, moribund with uræmia, to save the lives of the rest. This seems to have been justified by the extremity to which the party were reduced, and should not have made a scandal; the real criticism to be passed is, that those young fellows had no business to be in such a place at that season of the year.

'In Cairo and Jerusalem' (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.), by Mary T. Carpenter, consists of sketches of scenes in and about these two cities. The author has some ability for graphic description, but her work is marred by carelessness and occasional flippancy. The chapters descriptive of the sheikh's house, the Copts, and the Jewish colony near Jerusalem are the most interesting. A striking proof of the change coming over Palestine is the fact that while thirty years ago there was not a house outside of the walls of Jerusalem, "now a solid flank of hospitals, convents, and dwellings reaches out almost as far as the eye can see." The price of land has risen in some instances twenty-four-fold. The largest proprietors are apparently the Russian monks, who "have acquired almost one-fourth of the city."

The Japan Society in London gives evidence of an active life in having on December 31, 1894, 634 members. The president is the Japanese Minister, the Viscount S. Aoki, and the honorary secretaries have their office at 20 Hanover Square, London, W. In volume second of Transactions and Proceedings in 1892-3 there are two valuable papers. Consul-General N. Okoshi writes upon Japanese proverbs, in which, besides giving a list of several score of these coins of speech, he shows how Japanese children learn them from the alphabet "proverb cards," on each of which is one of these products of "the wisdom of many and the wit of one." The large number of figurative expressions is also interesting, but these reveal the almost total lack of personification characteristic of the Japanese and other languages of Chinese Asia. Mrs. C. M. Salwey, the daughter of Dr. Birch of the British Museum, writes on Japanese fans. By her analyses and descriptions she shows how astonishingly large a place the fan holds in Japanese etiquette and economy, as well as in history and æsthetics. The folding fan is a pure Japanese invention, and, according to the testimony of Chinese historians, was introduced into China from Japan in the fifteenth century, while the flat fan is an evolution from the palmetto-leaf. With annotations by the learned secretaries and a description of the loan exhibition of fans, the paper is richly reinforced. It is not probable, however, that, in the present war with China, the iron-boned fan so much in vogue with the mediæval Japanese commanders is any longer used as a weapon either of offence, defence, or indication.

The Filson Club of Louisville, as number 10 of its publications relating to the history of Kentucky, has issued a sumptuous volume, by Richard Ellsworth Call, on the Life and Writings of Rafinesque. Constantine Samuel Rafinesque, the son of a Frenchman by a German wife, born in Turkey, educated in France and Italy, later a merchant in Sicily, a naturalist, professor of languages, and quack doctor in America, was one of the most eccentric characters in our early scientific annals. His relation to Kentucky arose from his appointment in 1819 to a professorship in the Transylvania University at Lexington. The college was then honored by the presidency of Dr. Horace Holley (whose name is systematically misspelled throughout the volume), and had a distinguished reputation as a centre of learning. Rafinesque was its first professor of natural science and modern languages, and spent seven years in Lexington. He possessed much ill-digested learning, extraordinary enthusiasm for travel, collecting and naming plants and animals; colossal vanity, unusual credulity, and yet a singularly fertile mind. In the earlier part of his life he was an acute and prolific writer, especially on botany and ichthyology. Under the pressure of misfortune his mind gradually gave way, and his later writings are mere literary curiosities. Not without genius, his work is generally wanting in common sense. The chief result for American science left by his labors is a flood of contested, largely unidentifiable, names, over which authors have quarrelled from year to year. Prof. Call's memoir is sympathetic and interesting, and is supplemented by a useful bibliography of Rafinesque's publications, most of which are now very rare.

The first (January) number of the *Astrophysical Journal*, "an international review of spectroscopy and astronomical physics," can scarcely disappoint any of its friends and subscribers, unless there was expectation of elementary and popular papers. Nine articles fill the body of this issue, and their authors' names—Michelson, Barnard, Rowland, Riccò, Pickering, and others—are sufficient guarantee of the worth of the magazine, were any needed. Of course these papers are too technical for notice here, but we may record that Prof. Pickering writes on the discovery of variable stars from their photographic spectra, Mr. Ellery (her Majesty's astronomer at Melbourne) presents several drawings of Mars with the great 4-foot reflector last May and June, Prof. Riccò relates attempts at photographing the solar corona from the summit of Mount Ætna; and every one delighting in fine pictorial presentation will rejoice at seeing the excellent reproductions of Mr. Barnard's splendid photographs of the Milky Way. The departments of minor contributions, notes, and reviews are ample. The young and gifted editor of this new journal, by the way, Prof. George E. Hale of the University of Chicago, has just been awarded the Janssen prize of the French Academy for his original and successful researches in detailed photography of the sun's surface and surroundings.

To the January number of the *Nineteenth Century* Mr. G. A. Aitkin, well known for his interesting discoveries in eighteenth-century literature, contributes an astonishing "find" in regard to Defoe's 'True Relation of the Apparition of one Mrs. Veal,' hitherto supposed to be one of the most veracious lies in literature. In collating the text of the 'True Relation' he found in the British Museum copy of the fourth edition of the pamphlet a manuscript Latin note indicating that the writer had questioned Mrs. Burgrave, whom Defoe represents as seeing the apparition, as to the accuracy of the statements contained in the pamphlet, and had corrected his copy in the few details necessary to bring it into complete accordance with her experience. Further investigation has enabled Mr. Aitkin to verify several of Mrs. Veal's references to individuals, and to draw the moral that Prof. Minto was scarcely justified in calling Defoe "perhaps the greatest liar that ever lived."

A biography of D'Entrecasteaux, the famous French navigator who commanded the expedition in search of La Pérouse and explored the coasts of New Caledonia and Tasmania, by Baron Hulot, occupies nearly the whole of the last *Bulletin de la Société de Géographie*. It is illustrated by several portraits and charts. There are also accounts of a French expedition in 1860 in the western Sudan, and of a more recent exploration of the region lying in the French Congo between Stanley Pool and Loango on the Atlantic coast. The map, which is full of minute details, shows the care and diligence with which the possessions of France in West Africa are being exploited.

A brief review of the work done by the United States Coast Survey in Alaska during the year 1893 is contributed to *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for December, 1894, by Mr. A. Lindenkohl. The other articles are upon the orography of the Spanish Peninsula, the geology of eastern Central Asia, and the dynamics of the atmosphere. This number also contains the usual classified index of the geographical publications of the year. Though far from complete, it is significant as showing, not only by the absolute decline of this literature, but by its change of character and location, that the work of the explorer is nearly finished. The whole number of publications noticed is 762, against 851 for 1893, and 1,170 and 2,092 for the two previous years. Africa has dropped from 542 to 102, and occupies the last place among the continents; Europe heading the list with 192, America following with 138, and Asia 134. As compared with last year, Europe and Africa have lost, America has gained slightly, and Asia considerably. In a supplemental number Dr. Carl Sapper describes the physical geography of Guatemala. The accompanying maps show both the geological features and the distribution of the flora of the country.

The western section of the Siberian Railway is finished to Omsk, and passenger trains have been running between St. Petersburg and this place, a distance of 2,128 miles, since September, 1894. The time occupied is four and a half days. According to the report of our Consul-General Jonas, "the mountain section, 200 miles in length, has been constructed without tunnels, at a cost of only 87,000 rubles (about $43,500) per mile—that is, about 15,000 rubles less than the original estimate." This railway opens up an area of land suitable for agriculture, and especially wheat, as large in extent as the States of Illinois, Iowa, and Wisconsin combined. A tide of immigration is already turned thither from European Russia, 18,000 settlers having arrived last summer.

The Geological Survey of Missouri has recently published two colored maps—the Bevier and the Iron Mountain sheets—with pamphlets of explanatory text, the first being prepared chiefly by Mr. C. H. Gordon, the second by Messrs. Winslow, Haworth, and Nason. The maps are on a scale of a mile to an inch from original surveys, and in their published form are very handsome products of cartographic art. The text for the Iron Mountain sheet contains some interesting illustrations, one showing a group of large granite boulders produced by local disintegration; another presenting a general view of the St. François Mountains, a name here advocated for the peaks of the Iron Mountain district, composed of ancient rocks which gained their mountain structure and form even in pre-Silurian time, and which are thus to be distinguished from the surrounding upland of the Ozark plateau of horizontal Silurian and later rocks. The texts dwell especially on the economic products of the two districts, iron ores and coal.

In the January number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* one remarks as important a contribution of deeds of the Mather family of West Leigh, Lancashire, 1609 to 1632, from Mr. J. P. Rylands of Birkenhead. Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England" continue with much fulness the wills of the Saltonstall connection, to which are added a Willoughby assortment, and many others. Edward Palmer of London (died 1624) would fain have set up an Academia Virginiensis et Oxoniensis in Virginia. "The scholars of the said University, for avoiding of idleness at their hours of recreation, shall have two painters, the one for oil-colors and the other for water-colors, which shall be admitted Fellows in the same College. And further my will and mind is that two grinders, the one for oil-colors and the other for water-colors, and also colors, oil and gum waters shall be provided from time to time at the costs and charges of the said College, beseeching God to add a blessing to these my intents."

A notable change has come over the *Photographic Times* (New York: 423 Broome Street), which now calls itself "an illustrated monthly magazine devoted to the interests of artistic and scientific photography." For a long time illustrated, it now makes pictures a leading feature, but the quality of its articles seems at the same time to be undergoing an improvement, and the magazine is much enlarged.

The Providence Public Library has begun publication of a Monthly Bulletin, which, as may be inferred from Mr. Foster's previous ventures, deserves a place on the reading-table of every public library. Here, for instance, in No. 1, are reference lists on Dr. Holmes, on the Korean war, and on Buddhism (apropos of Prof. Rhys Davids's lectures). The library has, we learn, an "invaluable bibliography of municipal government, comprising about 1,000 slips, and as yet unpublished," the work of a woman.

—The revision for the second time, but more thoroughly, of his 'American Commonwealth,' by Mr. Bryce (Macmillan), has been a labor little less arduous than that of the original composition. Besides the ordinary distractions of the political arena, Mr. Bryce has had heavy duties and responsibilities as president of the Board of Trade. He has, let us not weary in repeating, been further handicapped by the necessity of manufacturing his book in two countries separated from each other by a week's time and three thousand miles of space. The enumeration would still be incomplete which did not mention the difficulties inherent in the shifting nature of our own political development. One may see traces of this in the footnotes touching Dr. Parkhurst and the Lexow Committee, and in the footnote *not* written recording the recent extraordinary Republican successes in the South. Even so cool and intelligent an observer as Mr. Bryce must be at a loss how to interpret our latter-day manifestations. Happily the first half of his work looks after itself, with need of slight revision, since it sets forth the framework and practical working of our form of government, State and national. To the second part he has contributed four chapters from his own hand. In one he returns to Tammany, and does Mr. Oakey Hall the justice to say that no share in the Tweed Ring's booty was ever traced to him, while not omitting to notice that Mr. Wingate's "elaborate and unsparing portraits of these four gentlemen" in the *North American Review* "evoked from them no contradictions, and certainly gave rise to no legal proceedings," such as Mr. Hall thought it prudent to launch against Mr. Bryce in England. The chapter on the Home of the Nation is a consideration of physical conformation and climate with reference to the chances of a future division of the bulky republic, and of possible new types of man to be evolved. Mr. Bryce foresees an undivided union and hardly any singularity of type unless on the Pacific coast. His chapters on the South and the negro we discuss in another column. The former contains some striking expressions, as that "It [the South] has suffered, and been regenerated, by a terrible war"; that leadership, after the war, fell "chiefly to those white adventurers whose scanty stock of portable property won for them the name of 'carpetbaggers'"; and the reference to "those amiable traits in the national character which often survive the sterner virtues."

—The last half of Mr. Conway's second volume of the Writings of Thomas Paine (Putnams) is occupied by the 'Rights of Man.' In the first half we meet with that adverse discussion of Virginia's claims to the Western territory which Jefferson had to contend against when he subsequently bespoke Virginia's bounty for Paine. In the controversial letter to the Abbé Raynal occur some interesting Revolutionary annals by an eye-witness. There is also a new document recovered through the French of Condorcet, being Paine's answer to four questions on the legislative and executive powers. Incidentally in this volume many timely observations are to be found. "We seek not," says our author, in his letters on "Peace and the Newfoundland Fisheries," "a fleet to insult the world or range in foreign regions for conquest." And in "Prospects on the Rubicon": "It is an error very frequently committed in the world to mistake disposition for condition. France, with a much better permanent condition for war than England, is in a less disposition to enter into one; and this want of disposition in her is mistaken in England for want of condition." A like mistake was committed by France in the case of Prussia in 1870. Paine, again, was an apostle of copyright, alleging that "in all countries where literature is protected (and it never can flourish where it is not) the works of an author are his legal property." He took the view, which now seems statesmanlike, that it would be wise to admit new States to the Union as soon as formed, but to exclude their representatives from a vote in Congress till after the expiration of seven years. In selecting this period, as in predicting accurately the end of our Revolution, he was perhaps unconsciously influenced by what he called the superstition as to "seven" of his British countrymen.

—Among the many items apropos of Du Maurier's masterpiece, not the least interesting is the closeness with which he has stuck to the facts. One's first impression upon reading how Svengali taught Trilby to sing—how he hypnotized her and commanded her to imitate the sounds he made on his flexible flageolet—was, no doubt, that this, at least, was a flight of poetic license. It seems, however, to be well within the possibilities. A case which in all essentials covers it was reported as long ago as 1850 by James Braid, the first of the successors of Mesmer to approach the hypnotic sleep from the side of science rather than of charlatanism. After speaking of the heightened sense of hearing under mesmerism and of the increase of muscular precision, they make, he says, "feats of phonic imitation" possible which are truly astounding:

> "Many patients will thus repeat accurately what is spoken in *any* language; and they may be also able to sing correctly and simultaneously both words and music of songs in any language, which they had never heard before—*i. e.*, they catch the words as well as music so instantaneously as to accompany the other singer as if both had been previously equally familiar with both words and music. In this manner a patient of mine who, when awake, knew not the grammar of even her own language, and who had very little knowledge of music, was enabled to follow Mlle. Jenny Lind correctly in songs in different languages, giving both words and music *so correctly and so simultaneously with Jenny Lind* that two parties in the room could not for some time imagine that there were two voices, so perfectly did they accord, both in musical tone and vocal pronunciation of Swiss, German, and Italian songs. She was equally successful in accompanying Mlle. Lind in one of her extemporaneous effusions, which was a long and extremely difficult, elaborate chromatic exercise, which the celebrated cantatrice tried by way of taxing the powers of the somnambulist to the utmost. When awake the girl durst not even *attempt* to do anything of the sort; and after all, wonderful as it was, it was *only phonic imitation*, for she did not understand the meaning of a single word of the foreign language which she had uttered so correctly."

This is exactly Trilby's case (only more so), except that there is nothing to indicate in the report that "the patient" remembered Jenny Lind's songs and could reproduce them afterwards; but the formation of a trance-state memory is a sufficiently frequent phenomenon. The quotation is from Braid's 'Observations on Trance,' page 43.

—Nothing more forcibly illustrates the caution with which the mathematical interpretation of certain problems in terrestrial physics

should be received than the redetermination, with the aid of the formulæ used by Sir William Thomson (Lord Kelvin), which Prof. Perry now furnishes regarding the possible age of the earth. Somewhat more than thirty years ago Prof. Thomson announced, as the result of an ingenious calculation based upon the loss of the internal heat of the globe, a time-limit to our planet of from 20,000,000 to 400,000,000 years, minimum and maximum, with a resolution to 100,000,000 years as probably most nearly representing the actual period. This conclusion, which has been received almost unchallenged up to the present year, is largely at variance with the views held by many of the more advanced geologists, who see in the slow making of rock-masses and the numerous revolutions and changes which the organic life of the globe has passed through, evidences of a far greater antiquity than the physicists of the Thomson school were willing to concede. Prof. Perry, who is himself a pupil of Lord Kelvin, now comes to the assistance of the geologists by stating (*Nature*, January 3), that if we assume, as we properly may, higher conductivity for the internal materials of the earth than we know to belong to the materials of the so-called crust—a very likely condition under the excessive temperature of the interior—then the Thomson limit of time must be very measurably increased; and, indeed, a startling calculation is made to show that "even for a perfectly solid earth an age 1,300 times the age given by Lord Kelvin" is not necessarily incompatible with such facts as are now known to us. In a personal letter addressed to Prof. Perry, and bearing date of December 13, Lord Kelvin admits the force of Prof. Perry's arguments, and, with a true scientific submission, says: "I thought my range from 20,000,000 to 400,000,000 was probably wide enough, but it is quite possible that I should have put the superior limit a good deal higher—perhaps 4,000 instead of 400."

—Meteorologists seem to be unanimous as to the necessity for investigation at high altitudes in free air—that is, as distinct from mountain stations. These last do not meet every requirement, because they are, after all, only points on the earth's surface, and therefore present different phenomena from those at great elevations removed entirely from the earth. Prof. Harrington, in a recent number of *Aeronautics*, recommends systematic exploration of the upper air by kites and by balloons, both with and without aeronauts. Pilot balloons carrying self-registering instruments are always of use; one such, in March, 1893, reaching a height of ten miles. But he considers that the best exploration of free air may be accomplished by a meteorologist himself making the ascent twice a day in a balloon with the instruments, taking a constant series of notes, reaching a height each time of about 20,000 feet, and persevering in all weathers and seasons. This more than any other method would add to that accurate meteorological knowledge which alone can be depended upon for forecasting the weather. Probably the first to attempt high-altitude observations by kites was Mr. E. Douglass Archibald of England, who sent up anemometers and obtained records of wind-velocity at a height of 2,000 feet. Later Mr. William A. Eddy of New Jersey perfected a kite which flies very steadily. A number of them strung "tandem" have reached altitudes exceeding a mile, with important instruments attached. Among other facts obtained with reference to aerial eddies was the rather interesting evidence that marked ascending air-currents prevail beneath cumulus clouds. Experiments made by M. Hermite of Paris, in 1892, with a balloon carrying automatic instruments, resulted in the balloon's reaching a height of 52,500 feet, or about ten miles. While the French experiments give many valuable results, their accuracy is lessened because the increased direct radiation of the sun was disregarded. But Dr. Assmann of Berlin has experimented for over two years in perfecting self-registering instruments which will work undisturbed at high altitudes. His accounts, in the *Zeitschrift für Luftschifffahrt*, of the voyages made by his balloon *Cirrus* carrying these instruments, is of great interest. The first attempt was in May, 1894, in the presence of the German Emperor. In July a second ascent was made, the balloon reaching this time a height of 53,560 feet, the greatest yet attained by anything made by man. All these attempts are treated at some length in the last numbers of the *American Meteorological Journal*.

—To explore the Korean language and literature will be the task of American missionaries and scholars for some years to come. Besides the monthly *Korean Repository*, already announced as projected at Séoul, we are in receipt of a valuable monograph of 250 pages on 'Korean Grammatical Forms,' by James S. Gale (the title of "Reverend," either whole or abbreviated, seems to be dropping off rapidly in the mission fields as at home). On a large page are given the written forms of actual examples of Korean speech taken from the lips of natives in various parts of the kingdom. The sentences are printed in *en mun* (native alphabetic characters) and in English translation with Roman letters. A valuable feature is a pair of parallel vertical columns on the left, wherein are shown and contrasted the variations between *en-mun* print, or book-form, and the actual vernacular. As the Korean alphabet is used almost wholly for the expression in translation of Chinese books, the *en-mun* standard forms do not give *all* the colloquial endings. The novels and children's tales are a little more copious in this respect. The student who wishes comfort and economy of eyesight is not likely to attack a native edition while this luxury of white paper and good ink, clear type and fair margins, is before him. One is freshly impressed, in examining this scholarly work, with the likeness in structure of the Korean language to the Japanese, the amazing wealth of conjunctions and honorifics, and the notable variations between the spoken and written forms. The impact of Western ideas will doubtless, as in Japan (where nothing short of the reconstruction of Japanese rhetoric is proceeding), compel the shortening of sentences, and economy in the use of honorifics and conjunctions. The book is printed at the Trilingual Press, Séoul, and seems remarkably free from misprints.

SIR JOHN MACDONALD'S MEMOIRS.

Memoirs of the Rt. Hon. Sir John Alexander Macdonald, G.C.B., First Prime Minister of the Dominion of Canada. By Joseph Pope. 2 vols., 8vo. London: Edward Arnold; Ottawa: J. Durie & Son. 1894.

THE political admirers of the astute Canadian Premier who died at Ottawa in June, 1891, will find much in Mr. Pope's memoirs on which to felicitate themselves and the Tory chieftain's enthusiastic following. Mr. Pope, it must be said, has done well for his subject, having, to be sure, as Sir John Macdonald's private secretary for a number of years and his accredited biographer, had unusual advantages, including access to state documents and official as well as private correspondence, extending over half a century of Canadian political life. The subject of these memoirs, on the other hand, is fortunate in having as the annalist of his times not only a well-informed writer and loyal friend, but one who had known the Dominion Premier only in later life, when he had cast off a good deal of the "old Adam" in him, and attained to the hard-won honors and dignity, the awards of a long, active, and, on the whole, useful career. We note this at the outset, since it accounts for the laudatory strain which, quite pardonably, runs through the memoirs, and for the fervor of the annalist who treats of the history, not quite so pardonably, from the point of view of the book's decorated and successful hero. Mr. Pope is, of course, right in being loyal to his late chief, and, in the literature of many present-day political memoirs, he can cite innumerable examples of writing history through the spectacles of him who has made it. We nevertheless regret, in the present case, that forty years or so of stormy Canadian history should not have been written with more judicial impartiality and less under the influence of close contact with the red ribbon of the Bath. Mr. Pope's work, however, must be taken for what it is worth, and that is not little, bearing in mind, as one reads it, that it is idle to look in personal memoirs or their equivalent—the life-record of an active participator in contemporary events—for the neutrality of the historian. The frank partisanship of the volumes (especially that of the first one) has, on the other hand, this value, coupled with the fact that the narrative is authoritative, that it presents the Tory as well as the individual case in the long and eventful history with which the work deals; and this must be of importance to the writer of any independent survey of Sir John Macdonald's era who may hereafter appear.

The interest of the biography to readers on this side the boundary line is obviously not great, except as it manifests the policy of isolation and unfriendliness which marks the attitude of the Tory party in Canada in its relations with the United States. We get an instance of this policy not only in the ultra-British tone of Ottawa politics, but more markedly in the manner and bearing of Sir John Macdonald towards our commissioners at the time of the Washington Treaty. The biographer, in dealing with the treaty and the Ottawa Premier's connection with it, as one of the imperial commissioners specially charged with Canadian interests, lets us see how hard a bargain Sir John desired to make, and how much he antagonized his British fellow-representatives in pressing Canadian claims upon the Commission, in the matter of the fisheries and the coasting trade. But for the friendliness of Lord de Grey and his English colleagues, and their desire, jointly with our own representatives, to bring the conference to a satisfactory issue, the negotiations, we see, came perilously near overthrow. Sir John Macdonald's letters to his Canadian colleagues on the negotiations will be found curious reading to our statesmen and people, while they show how aggressive was the Canadian commissioner's temper, and how insistently he fought for his own hand, in spite of the advantage which Canada was to gain in submitting the fisheries clauses of the treaty to separate appraisement and compensation by the United States. Not less

curious reading will these letters be to British diplomatists, with the frank avowal of their author's artfulness in setting the British Colonial Office against the Foreign Office, in his efforts to obtain support for his views at the conference.

The interest Canadians must have in these Memoirs admits of little doubt, though Dominion Liberals will, of course, have no sympathy with the biographer's Tory sentiments or with the party tinge given to the political history. Especially obnoxious, we imagine, will be the picture drawn by Mr. Pope of the Hon. George Brown, long the head and front of the Reform party in Canada, and for fully thirty years the political adversary of the Canadian Premier. Canadian methods of political warfare are doubtless not heavenly, and Mr. Brown was not only a formidable, but an irritating as well as ambitious opponent. Yet one can hardly deny him the merit, which his party shares, of fighting valiantly for reforms which the Tories continuously and stubbornly resisted, and that during long years of bitter political strife, unsolaced by either the honors or the emoluments of office. Throughout the first volume Mr. Brown is the biographer's *bête noire*; and, if we except the brief interval of cessation from political strife which heralded confederation, unconcealed is the animus with which he writes of him. Only during the period of the Coalition Government of 1864 are the lights softened on the harsh portrait of the great Liberal chief, while everywhere else in the book his memory is held up to ridicule, if not to execration. This, no doubt, in the biographer's view, is only Mr. Brown's desert for the life-long hostility of a rancorous political opponent towards the hero of his pen. This, also, we suppose, is his due for persistently and fanatically attacking Mr. Pope's coreligionists, the Roman Catholics of Quebec, in his personal organ, the Toronto *Globe*, and for flinging truceless defiance in that journal and on the stump at Torydom and all its works. The picture, nevertheless, we repeat, is a harsh one—harsher, indeed, than Sir John Macdonald, much as he disliked Mr. Brown, would have himself written, had he lived to review with his own pen the political contests that have passed into history, with the justification which time has placed upon the clamor as well as the accomplished work of reform.

The era immediately succeeding the Rebellion was the turning-point in the political history of the Canadas. It is the era in which reform was to see its work crowned in the overthrow of the oligarchical "Family Compact," in the application of the elective principle to the irresponsible legislative council, and the full attainment of responsible government. This is the period at which Sir John Macdonald entered political life, and the reader who knows anything of Canada's political past will naturally turn to it as a test of the writer's ability intelligently to deal with it. Need we say that its effective treatment should call into play the active sympathies of not only a well-informed but a strictly dispassionate writer, one who can speak for Liberalism as well as for Toryism, with a strong leaning just at this juncture towards the former rather than the latter? Unhappily, just here Mr. Pope disappoints his readers, for the history of the time, where it is not merely skimmed over, is made to glorify the subject of these memoirs and to cast a sneer at political principle when put forward by Liberals as a rule of action. Of grave moment were the questions that agitated the country at this period. They included such topics as the demand for responsible government, representation by population, secularization of the clergy reserves, abolition of seigniorial tenure, and compensation for rebellion losses. These were followed, a little later, by the agitation over the seat of government, which brought with it the episode of George Brown's two-day administration, and its Tory pendant, the "Double Shuffle," a tricky evasion of the constitutional rule which requires ministers, on taking or resuming office, to go to their constituencies for reëlection. Mr. Pope's treatment of these varied questions is, of course, in harmony with the attitude towards them of his late chief—an attitude which may be summarized by the writer's unqualified denunciation of Lord Elgin, and his extravagant praise of Sir Charles Metcalfe and Sir Francis Bond Head. The biographer's political bias is specially apparent, not only in his dislike to Lord Elgin, but in his withholding from that Governor the commendation which is his due for negotiating a reciprocity treaty between Canada and the United States, at a time when the outlook in the colony was particularly gloomy, and when even prominent Conservatives had but lately signed a manifesto in favor of annexation. Referring to this able Queen's representative, it is not a little curious now to recall the fact that it was Mr. Gladstone, then a Conservative, who in the English Commons attacked the Rebellion Losses Bill (a bill, it was said, for indemnifying rebels) assented to by Lord Elgin; and Lord John Russell, a Liberal, who defended the measure, and approved of the Governor-General's course in following the counsels of his Canadian constitutional advisers.

With more satisfaction do we pass to the chapters on the Confederation of the British American Provinces, in 1867, and to agreement with Mr. Pope in lauding Sir John Macdonald for the statesmanship manifested in this his crowning work. The task was herculean, as the aspiration was commendable, to knit together, under one federal government, the far-scattered peoples and sections of what now forms the Canadian Dominion; and Sir John Macdonald fully merits the chief credit in founding the new nation and in putting it on its feet. But the accomplishment of this great task was possible only through the coalition of parties, in 1864, and through the self-sacrificing aid of the Hon. Mr. Brown and his friends, for which Mr. Pope has, for once, the grace to be thankful. While Canada rightfully plumes herself upon the high status to which Sir John Macdonald, through this measure, was instrumental in advancing her (though, in passing, it may be said that he did not get his will in creating a "kingdom," rather than a dominion, to the north of us), it must not be forgotten that the new era owes as much to the deadlock of parties as it owes to the labor of any one individual politician. Indeed, so desperate, politically, was the situation that confederation was not submitted for the consent of the people, and in one province at least had to be forced upon it by arts which it would be a farce to call moral. To this day even, the province we refer to has to be maintained in the union by subventions, familiarly known as "better terms," and by vast expenditures of money upon so-called public works, to the serious augmentation of the Dominion debt. This, however, is the seamy side of the fabric which Canadian statesmen, or their friends for them, have bandied words with each other for the credit of weaving. Mr. Pope, though in this matter he does justice to Mr. Brown for the timely assistance he rendered his fellow nation-builder, gives more credit to Sir Alexander Galt than to any other member, besides Sir John, of the coalition Government who took part in carrying the measure. But we need not take issue with Mr. Pope in this matter. The father of Confederation, as Mr. Goldwin Smith once aptly said, was "Deadlock," and neither lofty nor patriotic were the political morals that brought about legislative deadlock in the shifting pre-Confederation administrations of the colony.

The founding of the Dominion lifted Canadian politics to a higher plane, and had a steadying and elevating effect upon Sir John Macdonald himself, assisted happily at this time by the restraining influences of his second wife, a lady of strong character and high social ambitions. The new era was full of opportunities for the exercise of Sir John's vast resources as a politician, his great skill in managing men, and his intimate knowledge of the needs of the country. There was the trouble first to be got over, however, in conciliating Nova Scotia, the province by the sea, which, led by its able son, the Hon. Joseph Howe, was averse to union with the old Canadas; and there were also difficulties in the far West, in obtaining possession of the surrendered domain of the Hudson Bay Company, and in attaching the crown colony on the Pacific to the Dominion. But the fates were propitious; and where they were menacing or churlish, political manœuvring, at which Sir John Macdonald was an adept, managed to smooth the path, though it was soon to bring about disaster in an unexpected quarter, in connection with the railway policy to which Confederation committed the central Government. In the affair of the Pacific Railway scandal, Mr. Pope contents himself, in the main, with setting before the reader Sir John Macdonald's own defence of himself and his incriminated Government. This takes the form of a long and exculpatory letter from the Premier to Lord Dufferin, then Governor-General, in which the First Minister rather unchivalrously shelters himself behind his dead colleague, Sir George Cartier, and, in the absence of a Carlton Club in the colony, pleads the necessity of "meeting fire with fire" in election campaigns, if he was to succeed in maintaining Conservative rule in the country. The result, as is well known, was the overthrow of Sir John Macdonald's Administration and the exclusion of the Conservatives from office for a period of five years—until, in fact, the formulation of the "National Policy" (protection for native manufactures) restored the party and its pardoned head to power. This occurred in 1878, when these memoirs practically close, if we except a chapter on Sir John's personal views on Imperial Federation and Irish Home Rule, and one narrating the facts concerning his last illness and death.

The story told in these Memoirs is well put together, and, allowing for its source, is by no means lacking in political interest. We could have wished that the writer had been more neutral and less swayed by a desire to "blacklist" his late chief's political opponents, with some even of his personal friends, and at least two of his quondam colleagues who had, for one reason or another, become obnoxious to him. On the other hand, we could have wished for more of a personal portraiture, exhibiting Sir John Macdonald as he was known to almost every Canadian, in the weakness as well as the strength of his individuality—serious in the council-room, witty in the legislative chamber, and human everywhere. Aside from the charm and *bonhomie*

of the man, it would of course not be difficult to solve the secret of his almost unvarying success, unless one's eyes were shut to, or the mind ignorant of, the methods of politicians in playing in our modern age the party game. To be just, however, there were more and higher things in Sir John Macdonald than the questionable gifts of the dexterous party leader and cajoler of his fellows. The enduring factors of his fame, besides administrative ability of a high order and hearty sympathy with the national aspirations, include personal honesty and a life of toil in the disinterested service of his country.

NINE NOVELS.

The Greater Glory. By Maarten Maartens. D. Appleton & Co.

A Change of Air. By Anthony Hope. Henry Holt & Co.

The Indiscretion of the Duchess. By Anthony Hope. Henry Holt & Co.

The God in the Car. By Anthony Hope. Appletons.

The Matchmaker. By L. B. Walford. Longmans, Green & Co.

Love in Idleness. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan & Co.

My Lady Rotha. By Stanley J. Weyman. Longmans.

Eyes Like the Sea. By Maurus Jokai. Translated from the Hungarian by R. Nisbet Bain. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Timar's Two Worlds. By Maurus Jokai. Authorized translation by Mrs. Hegan Kennard. Appletons.

MR. MAARTENS is an exceptionally clever writer, a sayer of sayings, an observer of manners, a dissecter of morals, a moralizer upon life, a cynical humorist, a humorous cynic, a poet, a visionary, and a passionate enthusiast for freedom so far as it concerns the poorer half of humanity. Each of his novels breathes more or less of all these traits. His latest, 'The Greater Glory,' runs riot in them all, but particularly in that tense "scorn of kings" and passion for social revolution which have made so many a novel dull. To scourge the sins of Holland by merciless delineation of its morals and customs is one thing; to confront the reader of a novel with rhapsodies most like the pamphlets of socialism is another. In short, tensity is the sin of style into which this very able writer is falling. The interest of his book demands not less enthusiasm, but a lighter touch. We confess to a distinct weariness of the child of luxury who takes an incognito in the slums and writes poems for *The Cry of the People.* Nor do we find a convincing differentiation between the displaced Baron and the usurping Count. For all the details crowded upon them, they do not stand out in vivid relief from each other or from any one else. The author's burning-glass light after all does not illuminate. It is too glaring. The pictures of Dutch society, the jealousies between the "Mevrouws" and the "Juffrouws," "a distinction to be fathomed only by a Dutchwoman," the passing flashes thrown upon life's miseries and life's consolations, are in Mr. Maartens's wittiest and keenest mode; the disappointment lies in the prolixity of the story (at bottom a passable one), and in the telling of it with that mixture of irony and indirection which is at once searing and bewildering. But the world cannot afford not to hope for more writing from the pen that says: "The Dutch, great in painting, are dead to poetry. Even in painting, imagination is a sin. It was by imagination that our common mother fell. Had she been content to perceive that an apple is an apple, she might have been in Paradise at this hour as many a substantial Dutch burgher-mother is."

Anthony Hope's 'Change of Air' has the fresh sprightliness of all his works: the light and lively handling, the skill in keeping the little craft of story jauntily afloat, and the half-stagy dénouement, which frequently in Mr. Hope's stories holds a side glance towards dramatization. The sub-hero, Philip, is the real interest of the book in characterization—a sort of George Warrington figure, on whom is saddled the wisest and best of the book. The author loves him and has made him delightful. The hero, the genius, is more interesting to the women and men who surround him than the reader can well understand, but the hubbub his vagaries create in a country town is real enough, even to the inanities they give rise to. A good deal of padding has been done to supply the *dramatis personæ*, and rather shapeless padding some of it is; but on it, as on a background of not uncomfortable cushions, one may pass an hour of temperate amusement.

'The Indiscretion of the Duchess' returns to the vein of 'The Prisoner of Zenda,' but in no way repeats that story. Mr. Hope's devices in plot-making are distinctly his own. The most surprising inventions flow from his brain in novel combinations. Nineteenth-century adventures though they are, they are told with an old time air of romance that gives them the fascination of an earlier day; an air of good faith, almost of religious chivalry, gives reality to their extravagance. They come near to being pious. Moreover, what is lacking in many excellently told stories is the very sauce of the feast here, namely, a cleverness in epigram which marks Mr. Hope as a wit if he were not a romancer. Many thrilling tales have been written without containing such shrewd observations as these: "Discretion has two meanings—whereof the one is 'Do it not,' and the other 'Tell it not.'" "We do not always wish and hope for the same thing."

In 'The God in the Car' Mr. Hope strikes a note differing from any other in his lengthening scale—a note of less clarity and beauty than the others, but not without force. A man who rides, a Juggernaut, over all that lies between him and his ambition is a good subject for a story. To make the story good, however, there should be proof, not statement only, of Juggernaut's compelling power. This Juggernaut, who subdues men, women, and children to his will, and steps on them to rise, is such an intolerable boor and bore that his influence is hard to believe in. It is easier to side with the few who snub him than with the ninety and nine who let him ride over them. One must, therefore, admire the plan rather than the execution of this story, and be grateful for a liberal meed of brilliant sayings in Mr. Hope's most shining style—enough (sinister thought!) to make a calendar withal.

If there is the "patter" song, there is also the patter novel, and Mrs. Walford is its prophet, if not creator. 'The Matchmaker' is a very fair specimen of the school. It goes on and on amiably, observantly, humorously. The average mood of the average man and the average woman is reproduced with a skill which speaks well for the author's clear-sightedness and deftness of pen. To lend shadow to the monotone of every-day life, the dramatic and even the tragic are here and there invoked with not too great shock to the unities. It is well-trained, expurgated tragedy, on the whole, suitable for family use, and we fancy in Mrs. Walford's mind a preference for the domestic scenes to the glare of melodrama. She describes with positive unction, and as if from sheer exuberance of the humdrum, the village characters and their tiny concerns, but about her villains hang traces of bored conscientiousness. The fluttering anxieties of two spinsters about "the doings at the castle" fill page upon page; the childish banalities of the ladies of the castle fill pages more, so fatally well done as to carry their tiresome quality along with them, to some extent. The heroine who flashes like wildfire in and out, among the placidities of her fossilized kinsfolk in their Scotch island, is a merry, natural creature, young, piquant, meddlesome. The poor thwarted girl whose unhappy love story makes the tragedy of the book is possible enough for the purposes of a story, and is drawn with curious alternations of elaboration and vagueness, And, after all else is said, there remains enough old-fashioned love-making to yield the old-fashioned reader a modicum of calm enjoyment.

'Love in Idleness' is a charming name for a story. Bar Harbor is a charming place. Macmillan & Co. have published Mr. Crawford's story in noble print, on regal paper, with copious beautiful reproductions from photographs and less beautiful ones from drawings. The cover is stamped with a pretty gold network of flowers and leaves, a heart, and Mr. Crawford's autograph. There is some bright talk between the hero and the Professor on the boat which is taking them and the reader to Mt. Desert, but the fencing between the colorless hero and the repellent heroine is so near to slugging that one wishes there were more idleness and less love; decidedly Miss Fanny Trehearne should be disqualified by the umpire from playing. But ramble as he will from his highest standards, Mr. Crawford never fails to say many things that no one else says quite as well.

'My Lady Rotha' has the excellences of Mr. Weyman's other stories—their special qualities of adventure and chivalry woven into a whole whose interest is heightened by the glimpses into history which they furnish, adequately for the story-teller's purpose, indeed, yet ostensibly rather than really. There is a strange likeness in the local colors used to depict Holland in the time of Bloody Mary, Paris in Richelieu's day, and Germany during the Thirty Years' War; but it is always a coloring removed enough from the contemporaneous to make the reader feel that he is moving in a stirring past, and to soothe his mind with a gentle complacency at the thought that in these attractive tales he is reading history. We trust that Mr. Weyman will not seek to heighten the excitement of his stories by piling Ossa on Pelion in the matter of military atrocities, but we perceive a slight crescendo in that direction, to be deplored if his works are to maintain their reputation as books in every way delightful for the young reader as well as the old.

"Fiction is ceasing to be a branch of art, and fast becoming, instead, a branch of science," says the translator of 'Eyes like the Sea.' By way of antidote he introduces to us one of Jokai's hundred and fifty novels, as a representative specimen of Hungarian literature, and as one that supplies in its features of incident, invention, and humor a wholesome contrast with other Continental novels of psychology, physiology, and pessimism. Maurus Jo-

kai, says the translator, may be said to have created the modern Hungarian novel; and he adds that to Jokai, a veteran, is largely due the fact that in a degenerating state of fiction elsewhere in Europe the Hungarian novel remains healthy and humorous. For ourselves, we confess that the "cheery" quality of Jokai's work, so insisted on by his translator, does not forcibly stand out. We should rather call his humor the mother tincture of cynicism. It is not bitter, it is even jolly, but with a jollity that sits upon a profound melancholy like bubbles on a whirlpool. "This is a world of illusion," he seems to say; "the only way to endure it is to joke"—an attitude less of cheer than of resigned pessimism. The interest of his book lies first in the autobiographic portions, which tell of Jokai's own experiences as author, and above all as sharer in the revolution of '48, with a stirring and affecting picture of those ever-moving days. Next, and chief feature of the work as a novel, is the clever portrait of Bessy, with eyes like the sea and career as varied as her eyes. She is a masterpiece of characterization. At each point where her adventures threaten to make her intolerable, her dazzling audacity, pluck, resource, and even a sort of misguided loyalty, compel the reader's admiration. The author has remembered always to leave a drop of humanity at its most courageous in his analysis of this eccentric creature, which saves her from being the conventional adventuress, and keeps the world her kin, however disreputable she may be. Finally, there is a plenitude of wit and epigram to be found in the Hungarian novelist, and a full appreciation of the kindlinesses of life, though no great belief in their abundance.

'Timar's Two Worlds,' by the same author, is a larger work, more romantic in its construction and more powerful in its situations; a more fully fledged novel, in fact. The story is laid on original lines and in scenes unhackneyed by description. The Danube at its fiercest, and a certain "ownerless island" in the Danube, which blossoms like the rose with idyllic harvest, form the background to a tale of rare and even terrible interest. The history of the downward trend of the man who permits himself the first false step, until he determines to bear no longer a life grown unbearable, is full of significance as a lesson to the sinner, while the miraculous rescue and the withdrawal of the hero to a life of pastoral love, and the wholly uneven distribution of punishments and rewards among the innocent and the guilty, make an equally forcible appeal to the artist and to the pessimist for whom so much modern novel-writing is done. From any point of view this is a striking, even a seizing book, and it alone would mark Jokai as a rare writer about whose work hang the indescribable atmosphere of genius, the fecundity of invention, the exuberance of phrase, the poetic instinct for the meanings of things material and spiritual, which distinguish those interpreters of life who stand as kings among their fellows.

American Book-Plates. A Guide to their Study, with examples. By Charles Dexter Allen. With a Bibliography by Eben Newell Hewins. Illustrated with many reproductions of rare and interesting book-plates. Macmillan & Co. 1894. Small 8vo, pp. 437.

FOR the last two centuries book-collectors have had a pleasant fancy of marking their ownership of books by pasting therein little labels, generally inscribed with their names. As forgeries are comparatively unknown, and as there is a very general desire to possess relics associated with the personal surroundings of great men, it is not surprising that these evidences of ownership add greatly to the value of the volumes so enriched. An autograph or a marginal note is more precious, but the book-plate seems to bring the past into immediate contact with us.

But, alas, this is the age of fads and clubs. Not content with a rational enjoyment in the possession of the books once owned by our heroes, the collector arises to collect indiscriminately, to classify whimsically, to reproduce, to exchange, and to found a new cult. The book-plate, extracted from its proper home, is placed in an album, and its worship is as absurd and futile as that of a collector of the shoe-buckles of the belles of the court of Louis the Great.

Of this phase we will speak later. Of course, there is one view in which a collection may be valuable. As these book-plates are really small engravings, they form a subdivision of the history of art. Such work has often employed able gravers, and some few plates are worthy of attention as works of art. Occasionally, also, the design is worth notice for its literary merit or attractive for its quaintness. But inasmuch as the primary object of the book-plate is to mark possession, and as books were peculiarly the property of the rich, it would be expected that the majority of book-plates belonged to persons now forgotten by posterity, and that the designs were mostly armorial or heraldic.

Mr. Allen's book on American book-plates is one which owes its chief importance to the existence of the new processes of cheap reproduction. To put it plainly, the main interest lies in the pictures with which it is liberally adorned, and which, like all such reproductions, give the reader a good general idea of the originals, at the sacrifice of all the finer points of the artist's work. Mr. Allen has evidently collected material assiduously, though he does not show any capacity for arranging it, nor for writing a clear explanation of the value of the examples. He lacks entirely the historical instinct which would place his collections in a proper sequence. Certainly he should have treated of the engravers in their chronological succession, instead of an alphabetical one. In regard to them his knowledge seems to be slight, and his biographies are merely condensed from former authorities, without acknowledgment.

At the very beginning of his introduction, Mr. Allen makes the following remarkable confession:

"The larger part of our early plates are armorial in character; and while heraldry forms so prominent and important a feature, it is left practically untouched in the present volume. The number interested in the science is small, *the authorities on coats-of-arms and on blazoning differ*, and the present writer had not the time to make the thorough investigation necessary to a satisfactory treatment of this interesting branch."

Now there is no other science more simple and exact than that of heraldry and blazon. It is easily learned, and forms an international shorthand. It is peculiarly adapted to the construction of book-plates, and its use thereon has been of the greatest service to the kindred pursuit of genealogy. By omitting this large and interesting branch of the subject, Mr. Allen has greatly diminished the value of his book. We also regret the affectation of rules and styles, which would have been discerned to be unnecessary had an historical arrangement by artists been adopted; and generally the pomp and ceremony attendant on the publication of what is merely a scrap-book.

To pass to the consideration of the material herein found is a more grateful task. The reproductions of the book-plates of Washington, Franklin, Adams, Webster, Isaiah Thomas, and Oliver Wendell Holmes appeal to our sympathies. We seem nearer to the original owners when we see the evidences of their taste in these decorations. The quaint fancies shown in the larger examples from colleges and libraries are doubly interesting in the history of colonial art. So, again, the designs originating within the last twenty years among the present generation of book-collectors and book-lovers are often curious, if not conspicuous for good taste. The list of known book-plates, signed by the engraver, will be of service in many ways, especially when supplemented by dates. The descriptions, at least of the reproduced plates, seem to be unnecessary, while the long list of mottoes is the merest padding.

We regret that we cannot bestow higher praise upon a book which has very considerable merit; but in the interest of good literary work it seems necessary to protest against all attempts to make bulk take the place of careful and judicious research.

Six Dialogues of Lucian. Translated into English, with an introduction, by Sidney T. Irwin, M.A. London: Methuen & Co. 1894.

THERE are certain authors so ill-adapted for solitary study that the reader must for ever be looking up from his book for a friend to share his ecstasy. The student of Lucian seems to fall into this habit until there is nothing for him but to make a translation that shall give his non-classical friends the clue to his delight. Mr. Irwin has made the latest English contribution to this literature of love, and prefaced it by a pleasantly written introduction containing the usual apology, in the spirit of a man exhibiting his lady-love's portrait, and anxiously explaining that, lovely as it is, it does not do her justice. Although the present example is accurate and more vivacious than the average translation of a witty author, it still lays bare the fact, veiled to a certain extent for scholars by the inevitable charm of the original language, that Lucian was capable now and then of writing as dully as another.

Mr. Irwin makes no pretence of contributing to scholarship in the present book, and no one will quarrel with him for treating his Lucian as nearly as possible like a modern author. But Arnold and Pater have accustomed the reader of English classical essays to feel the iron of science under the velvet of style, and to enjoy himself in security. Mr. Irwin glides over some difficult questions with a confidence that makes one doubt his realization of the *ignes suppositos*, and does not seem to have given great heed to modern Lucianic authorities, although he does admit an appeal from Müller and Donaldson. Again, the note on Lucian's abstention from allusion to Rome and Roman writers would not have been written by a student of general Greek literature in the second Christian century, for such a student knows that the Empire and all its works were avoided by the Sophists with a delicacy equal to that of Mr. Wegg. But the book is useful as setting before the public some of the less read of Lucian's works, and it is cheering as a

token of the growing interest in this great writer among English-speaking scholars. Lucian's temperament is one with which the German genius is particularly unfit to deal. It blunders by taking him seriously—not when he jokes, for his humor is generally writ too large for misconception—but when he is serious. Mr. Irwin is right in treating the Dialogues of the Gods as so much pure literature, with no missionary motive behind them.

But in delivering us from the rehabilitated Lucian of the Germans, English scholars have foisted on us another delusion. Pater, whose delightful use of a fragment of the 'Hermotimus' in 'Marius' is largely responsible for Lucian's vogue, imposed him on the popular mind as a gentleman. The 'Hermotimus' had to be considerably assisted in bearing out this view, but, when all was done, Lucian emerged from Pater's refinery with the hall-mark of an Oxford man. Mr. Irwin has adopted this pleasing fancy, though with misgivings. It is an ungracious task to remind his readers that Lucian's ugly method of personal abuse, his vanity and his callousness, do not need the help of his indecency to bar him out from the little band of ancient gentlemen that stand beside Plato and Pliny the Younger.

Occult Japan. By Percival Lowell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

THIS work describes a distinct "find" by its brilliant author during a recent sojourn in Japan, viz., of an elaborate system of possession-trance practised by one of the sects of Shinto, the ethnic faith of Japan. Introductory or sequent to this main theme are accounts of Shinto miracles, pilgrimages, "gohei," and the Ise shrines. Last comes an analysis of the possession-trance and its congeners, hypnotic-trance and dreams, from the standpoint of monism and in the light of the most recent psychologic research. It appears that the peculiar impersonality of the Japanese race, previously treated by Mr. Lowell in his 'Soul of the Far East,' renders it specially capable of that discarding of all positive thought-content which forms the *sine qua non* of trance, whether possessory or hypnotic. While the latter is unknown in Japan, the former is surprisingly common, at any rate around Tokyo. In it the control is not, as in Western spiritualism, the spirit of a deceased person, but one of the myriad Shinto deities, who consents to answer through a medium—*nakaza*—the questions of an official interrogator—*maeza*—concerning "anything a man may want to know, from the nature of the gods themselves to the weather of the coming month." Much care was rightly bestowed upon tracing this curious cult to its real source, the primitive Shinto faith as distinguished from the imported Buddhism, and thus a distinct contribution has been made to what is at last receiving deserved attention, the ethnic faith of Japan.

The treatise stands a model of keen observation, deep insight, and scientific analysis, while over all this rigidly scientific material and method is thrown the charm of a style that implies the blending of scientist and poet. The abounding satire, epigram, alliteration, and metaphor would as much repay a perusal with purpose of entertainment, as its soberer merits would for instruction in an absolutely new field.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Winter's Tale. King John. 2 vols. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45 cents.
Burgwyn, C. P. E. The Lost Diamond: A Play. Richmond, Va.: J. W. Randolph & Co. 15 cents.
Charles, R. H. The Ethiopic Version of the Hebrew Book of Jubilees. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Davidson, John. Ballads and Songs. London: John Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day. $1 50.
Edgren, Prof. A. H. Shakuntala; or, The Recovered Ring. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Flint, Prof. Robert. Socialism. London: Isbister & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.25.
Gregorovius, Ferdinand. History of the City of Rome in the Middle Ages. 2 vols. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $3.75.
Hawthorne, Nathaniel. The Old Manse and a Few Mosses. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Jenkins, T. A. L'Espurgatoire Seint Patriz of Marie de France. Philadelphia: A. J. Ferris. 90 cents.
Lagarde, Paul de. Erinnerungen aus seinem Leben. Zusammengestellt von Anna de Lagarde. Göttingen: Lüder Horstmann.
Muzzarelli, Prof. Antoine. The Academic French Course. American Book Co. $1.
Nesmith, J. E. Philoctetes, and Other Poems and Sonnets. Cambridge, Mass.: Riverside Press.
Ostrander, D. Social Growth and Stability. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.
Russell, W. C. The Good Ship Mohock. Appletons. $1.

FEBRUARY
EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES.—Education of the Nervous System, H. H. Donaldson; Dr. McCosh as a Teacher (with Portrait), A. T. Ormond, S. M. Hamilton; Values in Secondary Education, Walter B. Jacobs; Uniform Standards in College Preparation, W. H Butts; The Religious Issue in the London Schools, J. G. Fitch; The Kindergarten and the Elementary School, C. C. Van Liew.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 7, 1895.

The Week.

THE House is to vote on the Springer bill to-day. Should the bill pass, the Senate must act or refuse to act. The necessities of the Treasury, however, are immediate. The public were in a state of alarm on Wednesday week. A great deal of gold was drawn out under the influence of panic. If the banks had not stood firm, and refused either to draw gold from the Treasury for their customers or to receive special deposits of gold, we should have had a general panic, under the influence of which the Treasury would have lost every dollar of gold that it held, as rapidly as it could be drawn out. The negotiation for a $100,000,000 loan abroad has had a quieting effect, and for this President Cleveland is again entitled to the thanks of the business community and of the whole community. His services in this emergency have been no less than they were in the matter of the Sherman repeal bill.

In the Senate debate the question was raised whether there was any power to use the proceeds of bond sales to meet the current expenses of the Government. This is not a new question, nor is the answer to it new. After a greenback has been redeemed in gold, it does not cease to exist, since there is an express law which provides that it shall be paid out again. There is no way to pay it out except for Government expenses or for redeeming the public debt. Of course, the expenses must be paid before the debt is redeemed. This is merely saying that, with a given sum of money in the Treasury, the Government's present obligations must be paid rather than its future ones. Thus it comes to pass that while bonds can be sold only for the purpose of redeeming legal-tender notes, and while the gold received for bonds is used only for that purpose, the practical operation is the employment of the money to meet a deficiency of current revenues. It is true that this was not contemplated by Congress when the bonds were authorized, but neither was a Treasury deficit contemplated. The intention was to make specie payments effective and permanent; and while no such emergency as the present was then anticipated, the wisdom of that clause in the specie-resumption act has now been vindicated in a signal manner.

Whatever may be the true theory of the origin of the Treasury's troubles, it is as clear as a sum in simple arithmetic that the Government's present embarrassment is, in Mr. Wilson's phrase, as a banker, not as a paymaster. On January 31 there was a net cash balance in the Treasury of $99,897,337. That sum is enough to pay the running expenses of the Government for three months, even if not a penny of revenue came in. To be entirely fair, and leave out of consideration the subsidiary coin ($15,481,586), the Treasury has more than $80,000,000 in hand—seven times as much as Foster had in hand when the Republican era of great prosperity closed two years ago, and ample to meet every demand liability which can be presented to the Government as a paymaster for two months to come. But the Government is unfortunate enough to be a banker as well, and has outstanding something like $500,000,000 in notes which it is bound to redeem in gold, on presentation. But, alack! of gold to redeem them in it has but $44,000,000, and it is evident that it could be bankrupted to-morrow as a banker while remaining perfectly solvent as a paymaster. Salaries, supplies, interest—it can meet them all with cash payments and have plenty left; but the greenbacks and Treasury notes are all the while making their deadly round and threatening instant collapse of the whole fabric of the currency. Yet the *Tribune* says the greenbacks are the kind of money the people "like," and that nobody must lift a finger to get rid of them; so what are we to do?

When the House of Representatives fixed a time for taking a vote on the Pacific Railroad bill against the protests of the opponents of the measure, it was generally supposed that the same vote would be cast for the bill itself. It has turned out differently, the bill having been defeated by a large majority. Technically the bill is merely recommitted without instructions, but in the present state of the public business it might as well have been killed outright. There is no chance of its coming up again at this session. If a special session of the new Congress is called directly after the expiration of the present one, it will still be possible to save the Government's claim or the greater part of it; but if the next Congress should prove as impotent to deal with the question as this one, the whole will be lost. A crisis has been reached where non-action means foreclosure of the prior lien. The Government has no more rights than any other second-mortgage bondholder, and there is no more reason why the courts should postpone a sale under the first mortgage than in a case where private parties only are concerned. Indeed, there are some reasons why less delay should be granted. Usually the holders of junior securities come into court and plead that they have been taken by surprise, that they need time to collect the securities and take counsel together, and that they ought not to be called to a sudden determination of their rights and interests. Nothing of this kind can be said for the Government. It has had this matter under debate more than ten years, and when delay was no longer possible it has refused to take any action whatever. It is true that the Government can come in, at a sale under the first mortgage, and redeem the property from that lien, but to do so requires an act of Congress which we shall not get from this Congress and ought not to get from any, since the main line without the branches is not worth the first mortgage.

Why, it may be asked, does the House vote against its proper organ, the committee on Pacific railroads? The debate during the three days set apart for it shows that the most moving consideration was the sins of people who are mostly dead, and who, even if they were alive, could not be compelled to disgorge their ill-gotten gains. "If we pass this bill," said Mr. Snodgrass of Tennessee, "we shall condone all the frauds, all the crimes, all the thefts, all the robberies that these directors and stockholders have committed against the Government of the United States and the people of this country, and besides we shall continue to give them an additional subsidy for fifty years more." And rather than give them what is called an additional subsidy we will now hand over to them our entire claim and preserve our consistency. True, we shall not prosecute anybody for these frauds, crimes, thefts, and robberies long past, whether the perpetrators be alive or dead, but we shall preserve our consistency at the expense of $116,000,000. It is needless to say that such a course would not be pursued by any private creditor.

Congress having thrown over its shoulder the sum of $116,000,000, by voting against the Pacific Railway funding bill, may have a chance to reject $75,000,000 which, it is understood, will be offered as a lump sum for the Government's claim on all the subsidized roads. It is proposed to attach an amendment of this kind to one of the appropriation bills as a last chance to get anything. The original issue of bonds in aid of these roads was $64,000,000, upon which interest has been paid to the amount of $102,000,000. The roads have repaid $50,000,000 by transportation and sinking-funds, leaving the balance of debt mentioned above. If an offer of $75,000,000 is made now for the Government's claim in full, it ought to be accepted instantly. That sum would meet all the maturing bonds known as the "currency 6s," and leave a margin of nearly $11,000,000 to be applied on the back-interest account.

The introduction in the Senate of a bill to retire Justice Jackson of the United States Supreme Court upon a pension, although he has served only two of the ten years ordinarily required, is interpreted as meaning that there is no hope of his rendering further service upon the bench, owing to his impaired health. The appointment of a Democrat as his successor will involve no change in the division of the judges between the two parties, as Jackson, although appointed by Harrison near the end of his administration, to succeed Lamar, is a Democrat. With the retirement of Jackson there will be only three of the nine members of the bench whose appointment dates back of 1888, and one of these three, Field, will before long be compelled to abandon his post by the increasing infirmities of old age. But if Cleveland should appoint his successor, it would make no change in the party division, as Field, although appointed by Lincoln in 1863, is a Democrat. There are now five Democrats and four Republicans on this bench, but it would puzzle anybody to tell with which party a judge sympathized from anything in his decisions.

The leading architects of the land, who have been working with patriotic zeal and disinterestedness to get a law passed by Congress which should put the office of supervising architect upon a basis that would enable it to command the best architectural talent of the country in the construction of public buildings, have discovered that somebody at Washington has suddenly thwarted their plans. Mr. Carrère, who declined Secretary Carlisle's offer of the position of supervising architect a few days ago, says the general impression among the architects and others interested in the proposed reform is that Logan Carlisle, son of the secretary, is the man who has blocked the movement. It has been known for a long time that the secretary's son was his "wicked partner" in the administration of the Treasury Department. No matter how virtuous may be the father's professions in regard to civil-service regulations, architectural or other reforms, if Logan takes a different view, the professions go to the wall. Logan is an enthusiastic spoilsman of the old school, and delights in nothing so much as snubbing reformers and blasting their hopes. His presence in the Treasury Department has been a constant scandal since his first appearance there. That he should be able to upset so desirable a reform as the adoption of a new and workable system for the supervising architect's office, a system which had been drawn up to meet and had met the approval both of the secretary and the assistant secretary, shows that he is a power for harm which ought to be destroyed even if it requires Presidential authority to rid the Treasury of the further scandal of his connection with it.

Poor, ignorant Gresham goes on his blundering way, getting one troublesome international question after another settled in the most stupid fashion. His Japanese treaty, for not negotiating which, and then for negotiating which, he was so justly denounced and exposed by the *Tribune*, has just been ratified by the Senate. Prior to that his Chinese treaty, covering so many points of international difficulty, was negotiated and ratified. In between came his dealings with Great Britain, resulting in the final abandonment of the English protectorate over the Mosquito Coast—a protectorate which had bothered all the really great minds in the State Department since Marcy's day, only to be disposed of for ever by an ignoramus. These three great achievements in two years by the most imbecile secretary that ever dismissed a subordinate and forced him to write for the *Tribune*, show us what might have been done in the same time by a man of average ability. One has to go back to the days of Hamilton Fish to find a parallel to what this laughing-stock of the nation has accomplished. It would add much to the general hilarity over his colossal and criminal blundering if he should succeed, in the next two years, in negotiating a treaty of arbitration with the European powers. That would complete and round out the career of a dunderhead in a way to make it wholly unique.

The Democratic managers in Tennessee seem bent upon carrying through their scheme for keeping the governorship from the Republican who received a majority of the votes on the face of the returns at the November election. Although the Constitution requires the turning over of the office to the man whose election is shown by the returns, and although it has been the invariable custom to follow this rule, the fact that the margin in favor of Evans, the Republican candidate, was very narrow has been too strong a temptation for the dominant ring, and the Democratic Legislature sustains Gov. Turney in the claim that he can hold over, pending a contest, the result of which is a foregone conclusion. It is encouraging to note that there are earnest protests from leading Democrats against this policy. A number of the most prominent party journals have opposed the scheme, and the editors evidently find abundant support among their readers. One of these newspapers, the Nashville *Banner*, publishes a very forcible letter against the conspiracy from Mr. John S. Bransford, a veteran Democrat, who makes an eloquent appeal to the young men of the party to arise in their strength and force the usurpers to yield. The *Banner* declares its conviction that "the overwhelming majority of Democrats oppose the revolutionary and indefensible policy pushed by a partisan lobby in the Legislature," and it calls upon the people to make this opposition effective by letting members of the Legislature know their sentiments and demanding that the law-makers do their duty. It seems doubtful, however, whether the scheme can now be blocked. If it is carried out, it is altogether probable that the revolt of honest Democrats against the management of their party will give the Republicans a majority too large to be tampered with in 1896.

The effect of office in raising a man's opinion of himself has often been curiously illustrated in this city, where we have frequently seen an unknown person, drawn from the liquor shop or the petty clerkship, and converted into a "commissioner," suddenly begin to give tongue on taxation, or rapid transit, or "the wealth of New York," or other great public interests with all the authority of a Turgot or a Hamilton. But the working of the principle was probably never more curiously illustrated than in the case of Mr. Lexow. He was and is a comparatively young and quite unknown lawyer, who got elected to the State Senate from the village of Nyack, and was, we presume by Mr. T. C. Platt's suggestion, put on the committee to investigate the police of New York. This committee at the outset was certainly not intended, or, at all events, not expected, to do anything of consequence, and when it came down here very few people in New York had ever heard of Mr. Lexow. The work before the committee was done by Mr. Goff, and Mr. Lexow simply sat still and listened. But no sooner was it all over, and no sooner had the committee made a rather silly report, than the citizens of New York found that they had got, in the person of this obscure lawyer, a real master, who knew what was good for them better than they knew themselves, and disposed of men like Mayor Strong, James C. Carter, Dr. Parkhurst, Mr. Charles S. Smith, and Mr. Larocque, and the like, with contempt as a "gang of reformers," of whom he was "sick and tired." For mass-meetings got up by them to express the opinion of those who won the election on his bills he expressed similar scorn. But the most diverting of his utterances appeared in the *Tribune* on Sunday. Said he:

> "I have personally felt the pulse of public sentiment during the last fortnight, speaking with all kinds of men, who represent every shade of feeling, and I have found the opinion in favor of a bi-partisan Police Board to be overwhelming."

Of course the only pulse he could feel "personally" is that of T. C. Platt. Nobody else of any weight would let such an absurd body get near him, least of all "public sentiment." When he talks of "public sentiment" he must mean that of Nyack, where, we have no doubt, he is a very big man; but why should the public sentiment of Nyack govern New York? and why should its great men take the place of our great men?

Gov. Morton, not being so great a man as Lexow of Nyack, is not able to share the latter's contempt for criticism, mass-meetings, and "gangs of reformers." He looked forward with so little pleasure to the prospect of being grouped with Platt and Lexow in the protests which the citizens of New York were to make in mass-meeting on Monday evening, that he sent for Lexow on Friday, and told him he must so amend one of his police bills as to give Mayor Strong the power to appoint the commission to reorganize the force, since he (the Governor) would not sign the bill if the appointing power were given to himself. As this was the point in the bill upon which Lexow had refused to yield a few days earlier, and in refusing had expressed his contempt for criticisms and mass-meetings, the Governor's demand was a hard blow to the great Senator; but Platt gave him orders to yield to it, and he did so as gracefully as possible. It should be said of the Governor that he has merely put in execution the purpose which he announced soon after the bill was introduced by Platt through Lexow. He was quick to see that Platt, in preferring him to Mayor Strong as the appointing power, not only violated the spirit of the Constitution, but held up the Governor before the people of the State as a more pliable Platt man than the mayor.

The anti-Platt meeting on Monday night was one of the most enthusiastic, one of the largest, and, as regards composition, one of the most thoughtful and intelligent, that have ever met in the Cooper Union, and the oratory was worthy of the meeting. Gen. Swayne's definition of the relation of party to good government was as effective a bit of political moralizing as has ever been heard on a platform; and Mr. Carter's description of the Lexow attempts at legislation as "the boldest, the most impudent, and the most inexcusable piece of audacity in proposed legislation ever made known in the city of New York, which has seen many instances which would almost come up to it," brought down the house. Dr. Parkhurst was never in happier vein, and must have recalled to many present the great days of Henry Ward Beecher, who was, at his best, undoubtedly the most telling political orator of the last generation, and, unless it be Dr. Parkhurst, has certainly no successor. When one, in listening to these orators, and looking at the meeting, remembered how much it represented of the intelligence, public spirit, and patriotism of New York city, how much of its trade, commerce, industry, and good citizenship, and by what great popular majorities its position about city government had been backed up at the polls, one could not help marvelling at the audacity and impudence, in Mr. Carter's words, of the opposition got up by Platt with his handful of obscure, uninfluential, and insignificant followers. Platt against the city of New York, Lexow against 154,000 city voters, "Lou" Payn against the bar, Fish against the clergy, Fred Gibbs against the Chamber of Commerce, "Jake" Patterson against the Good Government clubs—sounds surely like a very unequal fight.

Gov. Morton's approval of the acts of the former State Civil-Service Board, placing all the employees of the State Department of Public Works under civil-service regulations, is causing deep pain to Platt's new head of the department, Mr. Aldridge of Rochester. The latter finds it very difficult to make a "clean sweep," with these regulations in force, for the present employees refuse to resign, and he is unable to find sufficient reasons for removing them. Nothing is so exasperating in the Governor as his tendency "to pander to the moral sentiment of the community," and Platt will be goaded into taking violent measures against him before long unless he develops more hardihood on the subject of public opinion. It is most irritating to have the Governor consent to place a Platt worker like Aldridge in office, and then place the office under regulations which make it impossible to use it in the interest of Platt politics.

The real trouble with the Governor lies in the fact that he is himself a citizen of New York city. He has spent many years of his life here, has held an honorable and influential position in its social and business circles, and knows decent public sentiment when he sees it. When he comes to this city he associates with the very people who make that sentiment, and he is the first Governor that we have had for many years of whom this can be said. When Hill came here while he was Governor, he met nobody except Croker, Gilroy, Grant, and the Tammany gang. He seldom went into a respectable private house, or had any intercourse with the respectable elements of the city population. The same thing was true to a great extent of Gov. Flower. Platt made a great blunder in not favoring the nomination of somebody from the rural districts, and we have no doubt that he sees his mistake now. He and Lexow and the rest of the Platt faction despise decent sentiment without much personal discomfort, because they seldom or never come in contact with it. That is what makes Lexow's statement that he has "personally felt the pulse of public sentiment" so delightfully ridiculous.

President Eliot's characterization of intercollegiate football, in his annual report, is the utterance of a man who refuses to surrender either his reason or his responsibility to a popular and passing craze. Out of the mouths of the apologists for the game, he condemns it. They would restrain on the day of the great match the brute instincts which they have been sedulously cultivating through three months of training, by "employing more men to watch the players," so as to prevent foul and vicious playing. What sane man can dispute President Eliot's conclusion, that "a game which needs to be so watched is not fit for genuine sportsmen"? Nor will it be any easier for men whose livelihood or fame or animal gratifications do not depend upon the game, to disagree with his verdict that it is "unfit for college use." In this he speaks as the educator, mindful of his duty to the young men under his care and to their parents; farther on he speaks as an American citizen who would not see the intellectual and moral standards of his countrymen turned topsy-turvy. The justice and the pungency of the following sentences it would be hard to overestimate:

> "It should be distinctly understood, however, that the players themselves have little real responsibility for the evils of the game. They are swayed by a tyrannical public opinion—partly ignorant and partly barbarous—to the formation of which graduates and undergraduates, fathers, mothers and sisters, leaders of society, and the veriest gamblers and rowdies all contribute. The state of mind of the spectators at a hard-fought football match at Springfield, New York, or Philadelphia cannot but suggest the query how far these assemblages differ at heart from the throngs which enjoy the prize-fight, cock-fight, or bull-fight, or which in other centuries delighted in the sports of the Roman arena."

The London *Statist* has an interesting though conjectural estimate of the amount of British capital invested outside Great Britain. Last year the value of the imports into the United Kingdom exceeded the value of the exports by £134,000,000. The British vessels entering and clearing with cargoes during the year measured about 50,000,000 tons, which at 10s. per ton would represent earnings of £25,000,000; to this should be added the earnings of English ships which did not touch at English ports; also the commissions and insurances, amounting in all to £40,000,000. The foreign and colonial borrowings during the year amounted to £30,000,000, while advance orders for machinery, etc., would account for £6,000,000 more. Adding £36,000,000 to the £134,000,000 excess of imports and deducting the £40,000,000 referring to the shipping, we have as a remainder £130,000,000. Large amounts of capital invested abroad were brought home to London, but these withdrawals were offset, the writer thinks, by the interest which became due in 1894, but which the English capitalists did not receive, because of default. Next, the net imports of coin and bullion of all kinds amounted to £10,000,000, making the total assumed receipts on capital invested abroad £140,000,000. Capitalized at 5 per cent. this sum would represent an investment of British capital outside Great Britain amounting to nearly 3,000 millions sterling, or fifteen billions of dollars, which probably understates the real amount.

"REASONABLE WAGES."

MR. CARROLL D. WRIGHT has an article in the current number of the *Forum* on "Steps towards Government Control of Railroads," in which he maintains that the bill now pending in Congress, providing that railroads shall pay "just and reasonable wages" to their employees, and providing for the submission of all differences between them to "a properly constituted tribunal," is a step, though a subordinate one, in "the silent revolution now going on," which is finally to place the Government in control of the railroads. The principal step is the pooling bill, which provides that charges to shippers shall be reasonable. The former bill, he declares, will make railroad employees "quasi-public servants"; and "though as a rule he would not allow the Government to fix the wages of railroad employees," nevertheless he holds that, "inasmuch as it is its right and duty to prevent the interruption of interstate commerce and the obstruction of the mails," in the exercise of this right it "ought to have a voice in making terms and adjusting the conditions of the employment of employees engaged in such service." Curiously enough, too, he declares that the Chicago strike, which did not arise out of a dispute between railroads and their employees at all, "must be recognized as a factor in producing the changes in the federal law now going on," for it "is dissipating a good deal of the haze which has hung before the eyes of both labor and capital." He also maintains that such Government interference on behalf of railroad labor would be a parallel to the Government interference, through the pooling and interstate commerce bill, on behalf of merchants and shippers.

Now, it is not a little singular that so acute a man as Mr. Wright should not perceive the radical difference between Government interference on behalf of shippers and Government interference on behalf of labor, which lies in the fact that in the one case the Government controls, or can control, both parties, and in the other it controls only one. It can make the shippers pay whatever the railroads charge, because the railroads furnish their only means of transportation, and it can make the railroads charge only reasonable rates, because it can punish the officers or remove them for disobedience. But although it may compel the railroads to pay "reasonable wages," it cannot compel the employees to consider them reasonable, or to accept them. In spite of Mr. Wright's experience with the Chicago strike, there is one bit of haze it has not removed from his mind. He is still, apparently, under the impression that laborers would not or could not strike if a Government tribunal said the wages were reasonable, or that in any dispute with the corporations labor was in the wrong. If the Government decided against labor, it would have no power whatever to enforce its decisions or make the men work on terms prescribed by it; and if they refused to abide by its decisions, as they undoubtedly frequently would, it would have to keep the roads open by military force, just as it did last summer, and let the railroads get new labor as best they could. Never was there an odder hallucination than the notion that laborers would not strike if they were called "quasi-public servants." They would strike under that appellation just as readily as under their present one, whenever they wanted something which "the properly constituted tribunal" refused to give them. Where the Chicago strike was illuminating was in showing the length to which "organized labor" is prepared to go in asserting its own claims against the rest of the community; for in that case the railroads of the country were blocked, and the mails interrupted, in order to compel a private carriage-builder in one State to make concessions to his employees which he said he could not afford. In that strike no special reverence was shown for "Government," any more than for any other power. It was treated like any other "foe of labor," *i. e.*, like anybody else who said the demands of labor were unreasonable.

Moreover, all interference of Government between railroads and their employees would necessarily be the interference of politicians between a large body of voters and a small body of property-holders. Anybody who supposes that under these circumstances the large body of voters would not generally get the best of the controversy, is not familiar with the history of labor strikes in this country. It may be laid down as a general rule that nobody is so competent to define the term "reasonable wages" as the persons who are to pay them, acting in concert with the persons who are to receive them. What is reasonable wages in any particular business depends partly on the cost of production and partly on the state of the market. No outsider could know much as to the effect of either of these agencies on the rate, even if he were not a politician or a man with a "political future." A permanent tribunal for fixing the rate of wages would, therefore, either have to consist of representatives of the parties to the bargain or of incompetents. As a representative of the Government it would be a ridiculous body. In considering it, too, we have to take into account the present labor notion of reasonableness. The general notion of labor to-day is that it is entitled to all profits, and ought not to be asked to pay anything for superintendence. It thinks the unions could run the roads under the supervision of a grand master-workman. What Mr. Wright and those who agree with him should favor, if they wish to deal fairly with the property-holders, is the purchase of the railroads at a fair valuation. It is only as Government property that Government can manage them at all, and as such they would probably be run, like the post-office, without reference to profits, and the taxpayers would make wages "reasonable."

Mr. Wright and many other good people are trying to make legislation and governmental machinery supply the place of knowledge, good sense, and self-control on the part of the class of the community from which railroad employees are taken. This class is at present governed almost absolutely by very ignorant and unprincipled leaders, to whom disputes with employers are useful, as tending to magnify their office and display their power, and exalt what is called the laboring class as against the rest of the community. Men like Debs are "tickled to death" by being able to block the national highways, and suspend business, and compel the Government to treat with them, or inquire into them, on a footing of equality. The proposed legislation, of which Mr. Wright approves, would not diminish the importance of this class one iota. On the contrary, it would increase it. The countenance given by such articles as Mr. Wright's to the assumption that in blocking the highways of a great nation in order to make Pullman arbitrate, Debs was more than half right, and was removing "haze from the public mind," impedes the process of education by which alone the labor problem can be solved.

A USEFUL DEMONSTRATION.

COL. WARING has been at the head of the Street-Cleaning Department for a little more than three weeks, yet in that short time he has forced from even Tammany critics the concession that the streets of the city have been cleaned as they have not been cleaned before in the memory of the present generation. He has had several snow-storms to contend with, and has grappled with them in a manner to astonish the oldest inhabitant. The snow has disappeared from the principal streets and avenues of the city in a manner which, after our experience with Brennan and Andrews, has seemed positively miraculous. Citizens have been astonished on waking in the morning to find that the snow which filled the streets in front of their houses at nightfall had vanished in the night. The unfamiliar spectacle of gangs of able-bodied sweepers and shovellers really working like other laboring men, while a boss stood over them directing and prodding them, has caused the casual wayfarer to pause and ask himself if his eyes were not deceiving him. Nothing of the kind had ever been seen by him before. He had been familiar with the gangs of infirm and decrepit creatures, never seen anywhere else save on park benches, who held brooms and shovels for no other purpose than to lean upon them and discuss questions of politics and government. The new gangs are made up, apparently, of less thoughtful men, but they do more street-cleaning, and their advent is one of the wonders of the period.

And how has this wonder been accomplished? Simply by treating the question of cleaning the streets as a plain business matter, to be met and executed by business methods. Col. Waring has done nothing more than put "politics" out of the department. Instead of asking an applicant what his "pull" was, before "putting him on a broom," he has inquired into his capacity to work. He gave away the secret of his method when he said, in response to a critic who had spoken of the "positions within his gift" as commissioner, "There are no positions in my 'gift.' No position in the department is going to be given away to anybody; a full equivalent in work will be returned for it." By following out this principle in all branches of his department Col. Waring has succeeded in a fortnight's time in so reorganizing his force that it is really cleaning the city. Could anything be simpler than the means by which this wonder has been accomplished? It has not cost a penny more than the old method of not cleaning the streets cost. On the contrary, we believe it is a fact that the colonel finds the appropriation ample for not only cleaning the streets but keeping them clean.

Yet when Col. Waring's appointment was first announced, the city was fairly crowded with wiseacres who were wagging their heads over his foredoomed failure. They were absolutely sure that he could not succeed. Why? Oh, because nobody except a visionary reformer or dreaming mugwump believed that the streets of New York could be thoroughly cleaned. Were not the streets of other great cities of the world kept clean? Possibly they were, but there was something peculiar about the streets of New York. The pavements were different from those of other cities, and then look at the trucks: no other city allowed trucks to be stabled in the streets. Was not there a law against such stabling? Possibly, but you could not enforce it, you know. Could not the trucks be moved or the pavement under them be swept by a competent force? Ah, there you hit the point. You could never get in New York a competent force. Why? Because you could never quite remove the department from politics, and even if you could you would still be unable to get such a class of men as they have abroad. Finally, you must remember that we are living in America, not Europe, and must take things as we find them.

This state of mind, and it was as general as it was tiresome, was the result of years of contemplation of political street-cleaning. The task which had never been surmounted came to be looked upon as insurmountable. While boasting ourselves to be the most indomitable and ingenious people on the face of the earth, we were willing to confess that the cleaning of our streets was a problem of such superhuman difficulty that we must give it up. The daily spectacle of private contractors cleaning separate blocks and groups of blocks perfectly, did not shake this doubt of our capacity. Cleaning the whole city was merely applying to every block the simple methods which succeeded in a single block, but we quailed before such a tremendous generalization, and said no, it is too much to expect of us; it cannot be done, and if you were not a thoroughly impracticable person—a theorist, in fact—you would see it could not be done. Well, it has been done, and by a theorist, too.

Col. Waring has conferred an unspeakable boon upon the community by shutting off this refrain from the chorus of "well-nows" who are always sure that, however useful plain common sense may be in other matters, it is utterly useless in politics. He said at the outset that cleaning streets seemed to him to be, after all, only a human operation, requiring no supernatural powers for its success, and he has demonstrated as much. He was the first appointee of Mayor Strong on the platform of non-partisan, business administration of municipal government, and his success shows the practical wisdom of that platform. For the first time in a quarter of a century at least, the experiment has been made of running a great municipal department, with a large force of men, on business principles and without political interference, and the result has been that a task which was given up as insurmountable under twenty or thirty years of political administration has been accomplished triumphantly within three weeks. That is an achievement which ought to close the mouths of the "well-nows" for all time.

There is something more in this triumph of common sense than a defeat of "practical politics." Col. Waring well says that the true measure of the health of a community is not its death-rate, but the health-rate; that there may be a vast amount of sickness and of costly disability with a very low death-rate, but that a high health-rate is an unfailing index of good sanitary conditions and insures a low death-rate as a matter of course. His cleaning of the streets does not stop, as Tammany's did, short of the tenement-house districts. He cleans the whole city, and in so doing brings one part of our municipal administration to the level of civilization for the first time in many years. Nothing could do more for the health of the whole city than this, and nothing carry more happiness to the homes of the poor. We are at last doing our simplest duty to the most helpless portion of our population in one direction, and the example should be followed in all others. Honest and economical administration should follow clean and healthy streets, in order that the burden of living may be made as easy as possible for the poor. This can be done if Mayor Strong is given the power to fill every municipal office with men of the Waring type, who will apply the same common-sense methods to all branches of the city service. The mayor is ready to do this, but Boss Platt refuses to give him the power. Let us send Platt about his business, and usher in the full era of common sense in city government.

ORDER OUT OF CHAOS.

If you want a thing done, says the proverb, do it yourself. Acting on this principle, Mr. John G. Ames, the accomplished superintendent of documents, Department of the Interior, has produced a 'Comprehensive Index of the Publications of the United States Government, 1889-1893.' "I have repeatedly urged that provision be made by Congress," he says in his letter of submittal to the secretary of the interior, "for the preparation of such an index, not only of documents yet to be printed, but also of those already published. As Congress, however, failed from session to session to make such provision, I took upon myself, about three years ago, the task, additional to the current and prescribed work of my office, of preparing an index of the documents issued during the period covered by the Fifty-first and Fifty-second Congresses." Mr. Ames's chief, Secretary Hoke Smith, proved not unappreciative of this disinterested labor, giving it, along with his imprimatur, his "hearty commendation," and the assurance that "it will be welcomed as a most acceptable contribution to this class of literature by members of Congress, by officers of the Government, and by the public at large."

Time will show whether the average congressman, whose imagination was too feeble to make the mere mention of such an index secure his vote for it, as for a measure of public utility and even necessity, will appreciate the work now that it is done, and will order its continuance by a regular force. No intelligent person, in or out of Congress, can examine Mr. Ames's Index without blessing him for it, and seeing in it a help to consistent and thoroughly informed legislation and much else besides. For one thing, it makes the public document no longer lumber in our public libraries, but a part of the general circulation. Consider only that it renders our consular reports available, and that it must react on these favorably by encouraging consuls to put forth their best endeavors for a better destination than the waste-basket. All these reports are entered topically, and possess often a curious if not always an immediately practical interest. Consul Wildman, for example, at Singapore, defines the local disease called *beriberi*, noting its symptoms and treatment. Consul Griffin, at Sydney, treats of the rabbit pest in Australasia. Similar domestic topics are the ramie industry in America, and the introduction of the *Icerya purchasi* and its parasites into California. Indeed, there is hardly any subject which we need be surprised to meet with, since important papers in the

publications of the Smithsonian Institution, the National Museum, the American Historical Association, etc., are entered. Thus, we find slavery in the Territories discussed by the late President Welling, bibliographical notes on Eliot's Indian Bible, by J. C. Pilling, a history of the Sutro tunnel, accounts of lumpy jaw in cattle and of smokeless powder, a recommendation that the slums of cities be investigated by the Commissioner of Labor, a resolution looking to the better ventilation of the dining-room of the House of Representatives, etc., etc.

The political history of the period is, of course, accurately reflected in this Index. Silver and the silver-pool investigation, lotteries, the eight-hour law, the Homestead troubles, the Chilian imbroglio, Chinese immigration, the movement to elect Senators by the people, the World's Columbian Exposition, the experiments to control rainfall, the International American Conference — such are a few of the more conspicuous rubrics. Each department of the Government naturally has its separate list of publications displayed, as have its bureaus and functions —lighthouses, fish and fisheries, and the rest. To be remarked especially are the long lists of findings by the Court of Claims and cases referred to it (more than seven pages of names altogether); of pensions recommended (thirteen pages in double columns); of public buildings recommended (a page and more); of bridges recommended to be authorized; of recommended corrections in the military record (two and and a half pages of names); of public documents recommended to be printed. Every name, personal or geographical, in these lists is entered again in the general alphabet. Finally, the writers of papers, the authors of consular reports, the Senators and Representatives who report for committees, the cabinet officers and heads of bureaus, are all grouped in a Personal Index, which completes the serviceability of this admirable key.

Mr. Ames's conception of his Index, which we wish we could describe in his own words, seems to us very just, and the execution of it as nearly perfect as could be expected. Every journalist ought to desire to possess, and every library ought to be supplied with, this volume—a quarto of less than 500 pages—which should be the first of a series carried punctually forward from year to year, or from Congress to Congress, or in four-year periods, as the best judgment of experts may determine, and also gradually extended backwards. The present compiler's endeavors to regulate the shocking waste in the distribution of public documents are well known. With the new value given to them by this Index, it ought to be possible to establish once for all a system of exchange and sale which should greatly reduce the expenditure for public printing. The new Public Documents bill will do much to prevent reduplication of documents. Many, says Mr. Ames, "are published as Executive or miscellaneous documents of the Senate or House of Representatives; again, in a different style of binding and with a different title, as reports or publications of an Executive department; and again, with still another title, as reports of a particular bureau or office of the department." Meantime, this medley is threaded by his Index, for which, in closing, we join our thanks to those of the secretary of the interior.

MR. ABBEY'S DECORATIONS FOR THE BOSTON LIBRARY.

LONDON, January 19, 1895.

THERE is no doubt that the achievement of American artists has been great since the memorable year 1876: one has but to turn to the work of individual painter and sculptor, illustrator and engraver, for proof. But hitherto little has been accomplished in the way of mural decoration.

If this is, in a measure, because of the small chance offered to these artists, the neglect of the art is certainly not peculiar to America and Americans. Accomplishment has been only less limited in European countries, where the existence of fine traditions makes the neglect all the more unpardonable. The Italian rests upon his laurels, satisfied with the past's masterpieces. The Englishman, with sporadic enterprise, has allowed Whistler and Burne-Jones to decorate a few of his private houses, and Ford Madox-Brown at least one of his town halls—at Manchester—and he has taken pride to himself for giving Leighton and Poynter the freedom of South Kensington's Museum walls, with results the most disastrous, for letting Richmond loose in St. Paul's to experiment with mosaic, and for yielding other of his famous churches to the irresponsible amateur. Austrians and Hungarians rejoice in the flamboyant outbursts of Makart and Múnkacsy, in whose hands, surely, decoration has gone quite mad, while the Frenchman alone has reason to congratulate himself on commissioning his great men, now Puvis de Chavannes, now Besnard, to cover with their designs the walls of public buildings in Paris and the provinces. It is because the record of modern mural decoration the world over has been so meagre that more than a purely local or American interest is attached to the work of Mr. Sargent and Mr. Abbey for the Boston Public Library. Its importance in America can scarcely be exaggerated. A step in the right direction, doubtless, was made in Chicago; but the ephemeral nature of the buildings decorated, and the short time granted to artists for the task, necessarily detracted greatly from the value of the decoration done. Boston, practically, has supplied the first opportunity for serious effort.

A portion of Mr. Sargent's ceiling was exhibited in last spring's Academy, when I had occasion to speak of it. Now, Mr. Abbey is showing, in one of the smaller London galleries, so much of his frieze as is finished. Of course, as was the case with the ceiling—well arranged though it was for exhibition—the frieze cannot but lose from being seen in its present crude surroundings of red-draped walls. The designs, meant to be incorporated with a definite architectural composition, and to be placed at a certain height (nine feet) in a certain light, now hang at a much lower level than is eventually intended, in a different light, and with absolutely no architectural framing. However, it is possible to form a very fair idea of the scope and accomplishment of Mr. Abbey's decorative scheme. The subject, as the one design sent to Chicago explained, is the Quest of the Holy Grail. One may be inclined to question this choice as utterly irrelevant. It is not easy to understand the relation of Holy Grail to Boston Library. Of old, the artist, in decorating walls of church, or palace, or public hall, went for inspiration to appropriate holy legend or historic association, as did Sodoma in Monte Oliveto, Pinturicchio in Siena for instance, or in Venice, Titian, Tintoretto, and Veronese, the greatest of all the great masters of the art; and no one can doubt that colonial Boston would have furnished Mr. Abbey with more than one theme made to his hand. Or again, the modern, with Puvis de Chavannes, is content with allegory that belongs to no special period or tradition, and is without archæological responsibility. However, the paramount consideration is, not subject, but treatment. And it is in this respect that Mr. Abbey has the greatest surprise in store for his admirers. That he would reveal the utmost research and learning, that he would be accurate and careful in detail, that his archæology would be beyond reproach, one knew beforehand. But one was not prepared to find that, in working for the first time on so colossal a scale, he could still succeed in lending to his figures the same elegance and dignity, to his composition the same grace and spaciousness, that have ever distinguished his black-and-white drawings.

The designs so far completed are five in number: Galahad, as a mere babe, visited by an angel bearing the Holy Grail; as the youthful knight, after long vigil, ready to set forth upon the quest; installed by Joseph of Arimathea in the Seat Perilous of the Round Table; with the other knights, receiving the episcopal benediction for the search, now formally approved by Arthur; in the hall of Amfortas, the spell-bound, watching the Procession of the Grail.

It is in the first of these that greatest concession has been made to decorative conventions. A flat pattern of blue and gold, treated as so much wall-paper, is background for the nun who upholds the child and the wide-winged angel-bearer of the Grail. The figures are, however, rendered with absolute realism, so that they seem literally cut out from this conventional background, upon which they cast no shadow and the nun by no possibility can find resting-place. Here, Mr. Abbey, in blending realism and convention, has attempted the impossible, with inevitable failure as result. The figures are delightfully drawn, the pattern is skilfully executed, but the combination proves strikingly incongruous. In the four other designs he has broken away from all concessions and is frankly realistic. In fact, he is to be compared in his work not to a man like Puvis de Chavannes or Burne-Jones, with whom he has nothing in common, but rather to Besnard or Jean-Paul Laurens; though probably he has been more directly influenced by Sargent and Helleu.

In line and arrangement the Round Table, shown in Chicago, is best, with its sweeping curves of white angels and golden haloes; but one cannot help wondering if much of the beautiful detail will not be lost when the whole is seen from the proposed height. The three other designs have an architectural motive, suggested largely, I believe, by the wonderful old Romanesque work at Le Puy. In composition none surpasses the fourth, with its stately group of kneeling knights, each resting on

his shield and holding aloft spear and banner. But in freedom of handling and general technical execution the fifth and last is by far the most successful. Nothing could be more majestic and impressive than the figure of the pale Galahad in his flowing red robes, as he stands by the sleeping king; movement could not be more rhythmically expressed than in the procession of strange, mystic beings; while, simply as a piece of masterly painting, the group of low-bent figures to the left is most remarkable. Indeed, it seems a sacrifice of a fine picture to make this design wholly subservient to decorative ends.

Although one may criticise Mr. Abbey's frieze, it is safe to say that no American except Mr. Sargent could produce anything to compete with it; and this one ventures to assert even after having seen the decorations at Chicago and much of Mr. Vedder's later work. In carrying out a purely decorative convention, it may be that Mrs. MacMonnies is more than a strong rival, though in technical proficiency she is hardly his equal. But if Mr. Abbey does not fulfil the decorative conventions now accepted, that is no reason to declare him in the wrong. Has not Albert Dürer recorded the severity with which he was taken to task by contemporary Venetians for daring to defy tradition? However this may be, it is certain that Mr. Abbey and Mr. Sargent between them are giving the initiative to mural decoration in America, and that the Boston Library, in commissioning them, has inaugurated a most notable departure. The work now needs but the active coöperation of Mr. Whistler, who already has been invited to take his share in it. N. N.

Correspondence.

THE PRESERVATION OF CARLYLE'S HOUSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I be permitted to enlist the aid of the *Nation* towards making more generally known in the United States the movement which has been set on foot in England for the purchase and preservation of the house which Thomas Carlyle inhabited in Chelsea for more than forty years? This movement has the support of many distinguished men; at its head is Mr. Leslie Stephen, known to many Americans not only as an eminent author, but as the originator of a similar movement for placing a memorial to James Russell Lowell in England.

The amount required for the purchase and repair of the house, for insuring its being kept in good condition for the future, and for the custody and exhibition of the personal relics of Carlyle, of which it is to be the depository, will probably be from £2,500 to £3,000. The commencement made is by no means discouraging, but it is felt that America might aid very powerfully, not merely by subscriptions, but by the moral influence of example.

I need say nothing to the readers of the *Nation*, either in defence of the general principle that the vestiges of great men ought to be cherished and preserved, or of its particular application to Carlyle. Still less need I seek to extenuate those passages in his conduct as regards the United States which are undoubtedly subjects for regret. His faults, as with all men of unusual force, were inherent in and inseparable from his great qualities. *Si non errasset, fecerat ille minus.* I will only ask leave to mention three considerations which might not so readily occur to the mind: (1) the extent to which America is herself responsible for Carlyle by the recognition she accorded to him, through Emerson and others, when he had as yet met with but little in his own country; (2) Carlyle's own selection of Harvard College as the recipient of his library; (3) the significance of international coöperation for such purposes as a sign of the times, and its happy effect in promoting amity and good feeling. We have recently placed memorials of Longfellow and Lowell in English public edifices, and have been repaid by the public dedication of a bust of Keats, a movement originated in America.

I have only to add that the treasurer of the fund is an American gentleman long resident in England, B. F. Stevens, Esq., known for his publications on Columbus and Franklin, by whom subscriptions will be received at 4 Trafalgar Square, London.

I remain yours very truly,

Richard Garnett.

British Museum, January 19, 1895.

THE KANSAS MORTGAGE-REDEMPTION LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of January 24 you refer, in an editorial, to the recent mortgage-redemption law of Kansas as a Populist measure and a result of the Populist rule in Kansas. The *Nation* is usually well informed and accurate in its political history, but it seems to have absorbed the impression, general throughout the East, that all of the vagaries which have prevailed in Kansas in recent years are due to the Populists. The fact is that the Populists have never been in control in Kansas, excepting in the executive department. At one session of the Legislature the Populists had the House, while the Republicans had the Governor and the Senate. At the next session the Republicans had the House and the Populists had the Governor and the Senate. The responsibility for legislation, therefore, rests equally on these two parties. Further than that, the mortgage-redemption law of which you speak did not originate with the Populists. It was introduced in the House by J. F. Grunlee, a Republican member from Hutchinson, a wholesale grocer and Republican leader, and is commonly known as the "Grunlee mortgage law." It passed the Republican House by an almost unanimous vote, and was sent thence to the Populist Senate.

I may further mention the fact that at the previous session of the Legislature, when the Populists had the House, the House passed a much more reasonable and desirable mortgage law, which was killed by the Republican Senate, not because it was too radical, but because it originated with the Populists. The Republicans, during this period, were vying with the Populists in catering to the same sentiment. This mortgage law has been championed by the Republican press of the State as a Republican measure.

There are some Republicans and some Democrats in Kansas who have not been in sympathy with the hatred of creditors and capital that has been raging there for the past few years, but the Populists have not been perceptibly ahead of the Republicans in promoting this sentiment. Joseph Withrow.

Topeka, Kan., January 28, 1895.

PITHECANTHROPUS ERECTUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have not been able yet to obtain a copy of Dubois's memoir on "Pithecanthropus Erectus," mentioned in the *Nation* for January 17 (p. 52), but the good summary and copies of illustrations published by Prof. Marsh in the *American Journal of Science* for February (pp. 144-147, pl. 2) have furnished data sufficient at least for a suggestion. Your notice well calls the find "remains of a preeminently hominine anthropoid." I cannot, indeed, find any *generic* differences between the remains and the corresponding parts of a man. The reference of such remains to a distinct family—*Pithecanthropidæ*—is, therefore, baseless; no differential characters have been given, nor can be given, from the material observed. The differences observable between *Hominidæ* and *Simiidæ* are very slight, independently of the psychical ones and their direct coördinates in the skull; there is no room for a *family* intermediate between the two. What may be the value of the differences between the so-called *Pithecanthropus* and *Homo*, I am not prepared to say. I will confess, however, that I cannot appreciate any. Of course, the exostosis of the femur was pathological.

Permit me further to correct a misconception respecting the views held by American palæontologists. None of authority, so far as I know, deny the close relationship of man to the *Simiidæ* and the derivation of man from a primitive form of that family. The only contention of any importance is whether man and the *Simiidæ* are derived from a lemuroidean stock directly or from the monkeys. Under such conditions, then, the view that man is derived from a form intermediate between existing Simiids and man would not be at all "at variance with that held by some of the American palæontologists."

Theo. Gill.

Columbian University, Washington, D. C., February 2, 1895.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in preparation an edition of Marryat's 'Midshipman Easy' with designs by representative American artists; the Baroness Tautphoeus's 'At Odds,' uniform with her 'Initials' and 'Quits'; and the 'Richelieu' and 'Agincourt' of G. P. R James, which may be followed by other selections from the same voluminous novelist.

The fourth of the five volumes of Prof. John Bach McMaster's 'History of the People of the United States' will be issued directly by D. Appleton & Co.

Macmillan & Co. announce a translation, by Dr. A. C. Porter, of Strasburger, Noll, Schenck, and Schimper's 'Lehrbuch der Botanik'; also, a translation of Dr. Ernest von Halle's report on American Trusts to the Verein für Sozial-Politik, thoroughly revised and enlarged; and a biography of Adam Smith, by John Rae.

Henry Holt & Co.'s February announcements include Ten Brink's five 'Lectures on Shakspere,' translated by Julia Franklin; and 'Jack o' Doon,' a romantic tale of the North Carolina coast, by Maria Beale.

Roberts Bros., Boston, publish this week a new edition of five of the late Robert Louis Stevenson's works in as many volumes, uniform in size and binding, including 'Travels with a Donkey in the Cévennes' and 'Treasure Island'; the fourth volume of Renan's 'History of the People of Israel'; and 'The

Woman Who Did,' by Grant Allen. Later, 'The Sons of Ham,' by Louis Pendleton; and 'Prince Zaleski,' by M. P. Shiel.

'Four Years of Novel Reading,' edited by Prof. Richard G. Moulton of the University of Chicago, will shortly be issued by D. C. Heath & Co.

'We Three and Troddles,' by R. Andum, with eighty-three illustrations in silhouette by A. C. Gould, is an English humorous work about to be published by Henry Altemus, Philadelphia.

Ginn & Co. have in press for the University of Pennsylvania 'A Primer of Mayan Hieroglyphics,' by Prof. D. G. Brinton, and 'The Rhymes of Gower's Confessio Amantis,' by Prof. Morton W. Easton.

B. F. Stevens, London, will shortly publish a small foolscap quarto volume, by Mr. Henry Harrisse, under the title of 'Americus Vespuccius: A Critical and Documentary Review of Two Recent English Books concerning that Navigator.' This bibliographical and historical survey will show the part taken by the merchant princes of Augsburg and Nuremberg in the celebrated expedition of Francesco d'Almeida to India in 1505, and will demonstrate when, where, and by whom, in what language and in what form, the alleged Vespuccian 'Reyse van Lissebone' of 1508 was originally written.

The seventh volume of *Garden and Forest* (New York), conducted by Prof. Sargent of the Arnold Arboretum; the sixth volume of that "entertaining magazine for lawyers," the *Green Bag* (Boston Book Co.), edited by Horace W. Fuller; and the twenty-fourth volume of the *Overland Monthly*, edited by Rounseville Wildman (San Francisco), have come to hand. Each abounds in illustrations, each in its own sphere or place is without a rival, and we can but wish a long life to each.

In a pamphlet of thirty-six pages entitled 'Note on the Ancient Mexican Calendar System,' and printed by Schulze in Dresden, Mrs. Zelia Nuttall publishes the most recent results of her researches in this difficult and complicated province of Aztec archæology. She calls attention to the institution of the *macuiltianquiztli*, or market, which was held every five days, and to the important fact that "the regular rotation of market-days and the day of enforced rest every twenty days were the prominent and permanent features of the civil solar year." Furthermore, "the religious-festival periods were partly movable and partly ruled by the central ritual year contained in each solar year." There is also a table showing the dates in the Julian calendar to which the days that begin the different Mexican years correspond. The substance of this pamphlet was communicated to the Tenth International Congress of Americanists, which met in Stockholm last summer. Fuller information on the points discussed will be given in a larger work now in press.

We are glad to see printed by itself Prof. Edward S. Morse's address, "On the Importance of Good Manners," delivered last year at Vassar College on Founder's Day. It is in large measure a criticism of our public and private manners by comparison with those of the Japanese, and may be recommended for reading in schools or for circulation in city quarters where the defilement of the streets is most outrageous. The little pamphlet can be procured for five cents apiece, or fifty cents a dozen, of H. B. Hastings, Box 250, Boston.

The lists of works on Korea, Japan, and China contained in the January Bulletin of the Boston Public Library are timely and valuable. A general reference, under the subheads Commerce, Manufactures, and Education, to the "Consular Reports" published monthly by the State Department, and giving much useful information on these and kindred subjects, would have made them more complete. The illustrations of this number are twelve views of old buildings and streets in the north end of Boston. The library was opened in its magnificent new quarters on February 1.

The fifth number of the Bulletin of the Bureau of Rolls and Library of the Department of State (bearing date May, 1894, though just issued), opens with a list indicating the arrangement of the papers of Madison, Jefferson, Hamilton, Monroe, and Franklin—the last collection being the pious work of Henry Stevens, who supplied "a perfect typewritten copy of every piece, made to correspond in matter to the originals." Here is the draft of Franklin's famous letter to Strahan, July 5, 1775, ending: "You are now my Enemy,—and I am, Yours, B. Franklin." There follows a continuation of the index to "Chapter A," miscellaneous papers of the Revolutionary epoch, which is not bad reading. The entries are mostly of writers, but are sometimes topical, like "Women in Office," a memorial of Mary Katherine Goddard of Baltimore, Dec. 23, 1789, asking to be reinstated in the postoffice, which she had held for fourteen years. The appendix (or two-thirds of the Bulletin) consists of a literal print of the U. S. Constitution and of its ratifications.

Mr. Raymond L. Bridgman's article in the February number of the *New England Magazine* on "A New Birth [Wanted] in the City and State" is remarkable chiefly for its assertion of a steady decline of late years in the quality of the delegation to the Massachusetts Legislature from the cities of the State, from Boston in particular. "Greatly and sadly deteriorated" is his phrase for the metropolis. His belief that "the managing politicians would be overjoyed to strengthen their tickets by the use of well-known and influential names" seems naïve enough, with Dr. Everett's experience fresh in our minds. A paper on the famous Lowell Institute of Boston ends with a complete list of lecturers and topics from the commencement in 1839. It goes well with an instructive review of "The Rise and Decline of the New England Lyceum System," by the Rev. E. P. Powell. Mr. Chadwick's historical sketch of the Harvard Divinity School can be read with pleasure even by Calvinists, and is the literary feature of the number.

The *Sketch*, the London newspaper which is published in the interest of the music-hall (as the variety-show is called in England), and which many libraries have subscribed for under the impression that it is purely a journal of literature and art, reaches a degree of indecency in some of its late issues which ought to insure its being removed from the shelves of rooms in which self-respecting folk are wont to congregate.

After nearly half a century of useful corporate life as a college exclusively for young men, Beloit College, Wis., has, by unanimous vote of its Board of Trustees, decided to admit (in and after October, 1895) women to all its regular courses and degrees—except to the preparatory department, technically known as "The Academy." This question has, it appears, been before the authorities for several years, and President Eaton, in making his announcement (January 16) of the proposed change to the present students—"interrupted by an applause which promised to break into cheers"—explained in a very manly way the reasons which had induced the Board to reverse the tradition of the past fifty years. While specific announcements of details are not yet issued, it is unofficially stated that the women will be instructed in the same classes with the men, but that "the woman's department will receive its appropriate development, with an organic life of its own worthy of Beloit College," and that, as soon as funds are available, dormitories for the new students will be erected on a woman's campus.

Although one of the youngest of British Universities (chartered in 1833), Durham could hardly discard without a struggle the conservative instincts which she inherited from ecclesiastical forbears. It is therefore matter for encouragement that, at its last convocation (in December, 1894), held in the venerable Castle Hall, Durham University voted a petition to the Queen in Council, praying her to grant power to confer degrees on women. It appears that in 1881 "regulations" were passed in convocation providing that, under certain specified restrictions, female students might be admitted to a degree in Arts; as a matter of fact no further action was taken, and the University was advised that its charter gave it no authority to grant degrees to women. The fact that there are at present more than 180 women students at the Durham College of Science doubtless partly explains the clause in the petition which recites, in explanation of the request, that since 1881 "the demand . . . has largely increased, and that the need for providing for the granting of degrees to women in all faculties, except that of divinity, has become widely felt." The votes in favor of setting the seal of the University to the petition were 17 to 1, and the result "was received with applause and hurrah."

Dr. Hans Reusch, director of the Geological Survey of Norway, gives an account of the "Norwegian coast plain" in his last annual report, illustrating its extension along the Atlantic border by an outline map. Unlike our Atlantic coastal plain, which consists of gently sloping marine sediments, once beneath the sea and now elevated to form part of the continental border, the coastal plain of Norway is regarded as the result of long-continued denudation, by which the resistant and disorderly rocks of the Scandinavian mountain-peninsula have been worn down close to sea-level along the Atlantic margin. Here and there remnant mountains still surmount the plain; and in consequence of a general elevation since its production, numerous valleys have been eroded in its once even surface. Fiords result from a partial submergence of these valleys, more or less modified by glacial action. Dr. Reusch calls attention to the control exerted by the coastal plain on the distribution of population; hundreds of thousands, out of the two millions of Norwegians, live on this surface of moderate relief. A brief abstract of the original paper is given by Dr. Reusch in the Chicago *Journal of Geology*.

Speaking of the relation of coastal forms to the conditions of population, mention may be made of a recent brief article by Dr. Fr. Ratzel, in which he shows that the ratio of area to periphery of a country constitutes only one peculiarity, and not the fundamental peculiarity, of coastal form, in spite of the importance that has been attributed to this ratio by many geographers. Ratzel instances our northeastern coast as an example of a very irregular land outline, but one which has nevertheless not sufficed to determine the seat of large populations, because of the comparative-

ly rugged and inhospitable interior. To the latter relation, therefore, Ratzel would give greater prominence in the discussion of coastlines than it has usually received. The article referred to is in the *Jahresbericht* of the Geographical Society of Munich.

We are requested to state that contributions to the projected English Dialect Dictionary from this side of the water should be sent through the American Dialect Society, of which Mr. E. H. Babbitt, Columbia College, is secretary.

—Vicarious globe-trotting—to Oudeypore or Guayaquil and Panama—is as a matter of course included in the entertainment *Harper's Magazine* offers to February readers. "New York Colonial Privateers" and "French Fighters in Africa" also make part of the programme; the handsome periods of Mr. Janvier's resonant style setting off the slightness of matter in the one article as Frederic Remington's brilliant illustrations do the descriptions of Poultney Bigelow in the other. The theme pertinent to any and every audience is, however, Herr Antonin Dvorák's "Music in America." It is needless to decide whether Herr Dvorák writes more as patriot or as musician. Certainly none should be able to resist the appeals he stoutly makes to national feeling, though there may be some who will take issue with his theory of the possibilities of the national melodies, as there are already those who find fault with the use made of them in a composition of his own. The recent example of his own country, Bohemia, gives weight to the buoyancy of his belief that the musical apathy of the country may be overcome, and music speedily assigned its rightful place in popular interest; and to complete the friendliness of his attitude, and condone the frankness of his criticism, he has found something to say for the quality of the American voice—has even been "startled by the strength and the depth of the voices in the boys who sell papers on the street." An article on "Art in Glasgow," which no one interested in the development of contemporary schools can afford to overlook, is contributed by Mrs. Pennell, while those who have followed Richard Harding Davis's excellent piece of fooling, "The Princess Aline," must hope that its conclusion next month will be as pure in tone, as light and sure in touch, and as humanly sound at the core as the two parts that have gone before.

—Besides the portion of its contents that is to be foreseen within a hair's breadth of certainty, there is likewise in *Scribner's* an element of the unexpected to give the number liveliness of interest. Also in the category of the actively interesting, though not in that of the unforeseen, belongs the article on James Anthony Froude, which, in the hands of Mr. Birrell, becomes a skilled appreciation. The one saying, that "sacerdotalism, whether enthroned in the Vatican or burning borrowed candles in Lambeth, was the enemy at whose head he aimed his blows," gives approximately the key in which the article is written, and the other, that for the last forty years of his life Froude "was a great, though careless, artist in words," the substance of its literary verdict. "Giants and Giantism" is the title of the novel paper in which Dr. Charles L. Dana seeks to annex new ground for the neurologist's ever-spreading territory. The brain of the giant is found to be the seat of his diseased growth, and anatomical investigation seems to prove that he is merely one more victim of the neurosis or nervous disorder which, in varying forms, it has become popular to diagnose in the case of writers, musicians, and *fin-de-siècle* women. The final conclusion, that acromegaly, or giantism, is a legitimate object of attack on the part of students of preventive medicine, opens up still another of the sanguine vistas in which that hopeful branch of science is continually growing richer. Bret Harte's "Question of Privilege" is a metrical *tour de force*, with mirth in the broad humor of its verse, but none in the picture of life it inimitably outlines—though hardly inimitably for those who remember "Doesticks's" Congressional debate in which the ante-bellum Southern sensitiveness discovered the dragging in of the negro question even in a poetical quotation ("The rose you deftly cullèd, man").

—The *Atlantic*, too, has a paper belonging in the line of what passes for new under the sun in methods of thought and observation, in the shape of an elaborate "Study of the Mob," by Boris Sidis. Mobs, the paper explains, are hypnotic phenomena manifested on a large scale, predisposition to hypnotism being produced in masses (as it is in the minds of individuals through any "quiet, uniform, and incessant perception," such as the passes of the hypnotizer), by monotony, as in the Siberian province of Yakutsk, where cases of spontaneous hypnotization are on record; and by social pressure. Social pressure, when laws and regulations press on the individual from every side, when personality is suppressed, when relations in life are fixed, is an even more fundamental factor than monotony in the production of "that peculiar hypnotic state of fascination which is so highly favorable to the formation of mobs." Russians, soldiers, and women is a new classification arising from an examination of the conditions of life which show the two hypnotic factors at their highest powers, and Russia is found to be the country whose history "is a mob history." There is an enlargement of the point of view thus presented of Russia in the following paper, by James Mascarene Hubbard, which describes that empire as a civilizing force in her conquered provinces in Asia. Facts of railroading, of engineering, of fleet-building, of manufacture, irrigation, and agriculture, are marshalled in support of the view that Russia's aggressive policy in the Caucasus and Central Asia, is justified by her civilizing agency, and that "the Russian has accomplished in twenty years what the Frenchman has failed to secure in Algeria in sixty years." This is a paper of the class, not too widely distributed, which passes the reader from place to place, not with intent of time-killing, but of gathering data for intelligent thinking. Mrs. Alexander Graham Bell's article on "The Subtle Art of Speech-Reading" has the prime merit of recording individual experience in language that distinctly represents it.

—An important topic—the preservation of national and State forests—is discussed in the *Century* in a series of letters from writers qualified to represent the varying points of view that must be considered in the interest both of the forests and of their proposed guardians. Pending the foundation of a school of forestry, which, after the example of Prussia, France, and England, is the only course open to an intelligent understanding of the necessities of the case, and during the years required to give its course of instruction at least once, protective control of the forests by the Army is called for by the consensus of opinion of the writers. A supplementary course of instruction in forestry for officers and military cadets, either at West Point or elsewhere, both for the present and in the future, is urged from most quarters, though the balance of evidence is against placing the entire care of the forests permanently in the hands of the Army. A standing need, however, of the Army, as the executive of an administrative staff of trained foresters, with the work of both supplemented by a protective staff "consisting of forest guards, and including private soldiers and non-commissioned officers, to whom lessons in forestry might be given at the post schools," is clearly explained in a letter by Gifford Pinchot, from Biltmore, N. C. The discussion has been called forth by a plan suggested by Prof. Charles S. Sargent of Harvard for forest preservation by military control, and the one point on which there is unanimity of conviction is the immediateness of the need for preservation. Probably the most widely read papers of this issue will be Mrs. Fields's recollections of Dr. Holmes, to which a number of his unpublished letters give a substantial charm of personality, and Mrs. Van Rensselaer's agreeably written "People in New York." There is printed word for believing Sir Edwin Arnold's "Passing of Muhammad" to be a "dramatic sketch"; otherwise, although passed from lip to lip among his wives, it might have been mistaken for one of the most undramatic of narratives.

—The fourth Occasional Paper of the John F. Slater Fund is a statistical sketch of the negroes in the United States, prepared by Mr. Henry Gannett of the Geological Survey, and deals with figures, but only very moderately with the reasons underlying the figures. It appears that in 1790 the negro element composed 19 per cent. of the total population, and in 1890 it was 12 per cent.; there were 18 times as many whites and 10 times as many blacks in the country in 1890 as in 1790; and for the last census period (1880–90), the percentage of increase of whites was 26.68 against 13.51 of the blacks, or almost double. Every combination of figures shows that in actual numbers the blacks are increasing; but one decade with another the relative increase has been less than, and it has been steadily surpassed by, that of the whites. It does not appear sound, however, to say, as is done (p. 9), that because in the first fifty years (1790–1840) the whites had increased more rapidly than the negroes (4.5 times to 3.8 times), therefore the greater increase of the whites (3.9 times against 2.6 times of the negroes) in the last half-century is not due to the enormous white immigration that set in in the forties. It would rather appear that the diminution of the white ratio (.6) implies a marked falling off in the natural increase of the whites during the period of reinforcement from abroad. Should this influx from which we are now suffering happily be checked, the decreasing proportionate increase of the whites would still further diminish. Since the cessation of the slave-trade (1808) the blacks have received no foreign addition. But it is doubtless true not only that the whites will always be dominant in numbers, but that the relative proportion of those of wage-earning years will always be greater. This last, however, involves questions of vital statistics and of domestic education, physical and moral, among the blacks not touched upon in this paper.

—Comparing the two races within the former slave States, where more than nine-tenths of the negroes are found and where the whites

have been very slightly affected by migration, the relative proportion has remained practically the same: 65 whites to 35 negroes in the hundred in 1790, 63 to 37 in 1840, 69 to 31 in 1890. During the first fifty years the Southern negroes increased more rapidly than the whites, but less rapidly in the last half-century, although it may be doubted whether there has been the same careful enumeration since the blacks acquired a full instead of a fractional representative value. In Southern towns of 8,000 or more inhabitants in 1860, 10.9 per cent. of the whites and 4.2 per cent. of the negroes were found; the reasonable explanation being that the negroes were held for labor in the fields. In 1890 the proportion of whites and negroes in these towns was 15.7 and 12.4 respectively. Two opposing forces influence the negro: his gregarious tendency, which leads him to the cities, and his inferior equipment for the competition of trade, which tends to keep him a tiller of the soil. Topographically the negroes are in excess in the low-lying, heated, and rainy regions, for which cotton, sugar, and rice are probably primarily responsible. Geographically the negroes are decreasing in the northern tier of the Southern States, and are drifting south. How far that is a migration and how far it is a question of vital statistics is not known. The vital statistics all through the rural South are unsatisfactory. The relative mortality of the negroes in the large cities is nearly double that of the whites, and the birth-rate must also be greater. Nothing is known of the relative morbidity of the race as a whole. The apparent criminal rate is much higher among the blacks; but discussion is empty until it is known how the laws are enforced, and especially the character of the crimes. The proportion of increase among the enrolled negro school-children in the twenty years from 1870 to 1890 was two and a half times that of the whites, and it is said that five years ago 43 out of every 100 negroes over ten years of age were able to read and write. If that is the fact, it seems to imply a large adult death-rate as well as great interest in primary education, for practically no Southern negroes could read or write in 1860. The extreme difficulties that beset negro education in many localities make this proportion of literacy the more remarkable and commendable. This paper, published at Baltimore by the trustees of the Slater Fund, is illustrated by seven diagrams and maps. In plate iii, "white" should read "negro."

—The significance of the coöperative undertaking conducted by Mr. Traill in his editing of 'Social England' has already been spoken of in these columns, on the occasion of the appearance of the first volume. The defects of the second volume—covering the period from the accession of Edward I. to the death of Henry VII.—which has just been issued by Messrs. Cassell and Messrs. Putnam, are the same as those of the first: too great a multiplicity of interests, and an evident disproportion in the space allotted to the several topics. Yet the idea of the book is an excellent one; and it contains a great deal of good work, ranging from painstaking compilations from secondary authorities up to the brilliant essays —too few and too brief—with which Prof. Maitland lights up the history of English law. We hope we may regard these as foretastes of that great history of English law which we have so long been expecting from him. And while such contributions as these, and those of other recognized authorities on their subjects, like Mr. Hubert Hall, make the book desirable by the scholar, the fairly high level of its execution throughout and the modernness of its tone will commend it to our colleges. Fortunately, the writers are sufficiently at variance among themselves to set their readers thinking.

—The third volume of Dr. Hans Blum's 'Fürst Bismarck und seine Zeit' (Munich: Beck) contains a history of German affairs from 1863 to 1867. The most conspicuous events of this period were the wars against Denmark and Austria, the details of which do not come within the limits of the present work. Strategic movements and bloody battles are mentioned only so far as they exerted a more or less direct influence upon diplomatic negotiations. It was in this field that Bismarck conducted his sharp campaigns and won his brilliant victories, without which the most splendid and decisive feats of arms would have failed of their ultimate purpose. The masterly skill with which he prevented any intervention of the European powers during the hostilities with Denmark in 1864, and fairly forced their consent to the annexation of the duchies, was something of which he had every reason to be proud, and is still fain to speak as the most difficult and most successful of all his diplomatic achievements—a judgment which every reader of Blum's clear and consecutive account of the matter will fully endorse. In 1866 he had not only to conciliate foreign nations, but also to curb the impetuosity of military leaders who, as he wrote to his wife, were intoxicated by success and seemed to think they had conquered the world and could use their pleasure in disposing of it. "It is my ungrateful task to pour water into their too exhilarating wine, and to remind them that we are not living alone in Europe, but with three neighbors." There is no lack of spicy incidents and comical *contretemps* growing out of his relations to intriguing diplomatists and to hostile members of the Chamber of Deputies. One day the Austrian ambassador to the Federal Diet, Count Rechberg, received a despatch instructing him to vote with Prussia for a certain important measure, accompanied with a confidential letter directing him to induce the representatives of the other German states to vote against the measure and thus defeat it. In his haste he handed the wrong paper to Bismarck, who read and returned it with the remark: "There must be some mistake here." Rechberg saw his blunder, and grew pale and excited. "Don't be disturbed," said Bismarck; "you did not intend to give me this document, and therefore you have not given it to me, and I am wholly ignorant of its contents." In fact, he made no mention of it in his official reports, and thus won Rechberg's gratitude, besides having him henceforth "on the hip."

THIERS REDIVIVUS.—I.

History of the Consulate and the Empire of France under Napoleon. By L. A. Thiers. 12 vols. London: Chatto & Windus; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1894.

History of the French Revolution. By L. A. Thiers. 5 vols. London: Richard Bentley & Son; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1894.

"THERE is not one only, but there are twenty different methods of writing history. It may be written in the style of Thucydides, Xenophon, Polybius, Livy, Sallust, Cæsar, Tacitus, Comines, Guicciardini, Macchiavelli, Saint-Simon, Frederick the Great, or Napoleon, and be superlatively written, although very differently. I would desire nothing better of Providence than to have acquitted myself as the least eminent of these historians, in order to feel certain that I had done well, and that I should leave behind me a memento of my ephemeral existence."

A man who ventures to introduce himself to his readers in such company—though it be done in the garb of modesty rather than of offensive self-conceit—has certainly no mean opinion of his own worth. Does posterity recognize the right of Louis Adolphe Thiers, who penned those lines in the preface to his 'History of the Consulate and the Empire'—written ten years after the publication of the first volume of the work—to name himself in the same breath with those illustrious men? We cannot argue this from the fact that forty (and partly more than fifty) years after the publication of his two voluminous works, judicious publishers deem it a good commercial venture to offer a new edition of the English translation to the public of Great Britain and America. In all probability the extraordinary revival of interest in Napoleon and his epoch is at the bottom of this republication. The great political rôle played by Thiers himself can hardly have entered into the calculation. Steam and electricity have made the world live fearfully fast, and nearly twenty years have passed since Thiers practically stepped down from the political stage. Men and women under thirty years of age at least have no immediate consciousness of his having been one of their great contemporaries. The works must sell as the productions of the historian and not of the statesman Thiers, or they will not sell at all. We think that they will sell; but is it desirable that they should find a good market? That is a very different question, and the right answer to it is by no means an unhesitating and unqualified yes. We should say, that depends upon how they are read. It seems unnecessary to add, "by whom," for the scholar must turn to the original. The republication being a translation, it can be intended only for the general public.

The general public cannot be expected to hunt up what competent judges said forty to fifty years ago. Nor would they know, even if they did, what the present standing of the historian Thiers is. If the "Preface to the English Edition" of the 'History of the French Revolution' was to be retained as an integral part of the reprint, it should have been dated, for one finds in it the following assertion: "It [the History] may justly be pronounced the best that has been written on a very momentous period; the safest, as well as the most entertaining; and when we refer to the long list of eminent authors who have employed their pens in the description of this gigantic moral earthquake, it is no slight commendation to be placed at the head of the phalanx." As to the "most entertaining," it would be bootless to controvert the proposition as long as tastes differ. But how about "the safest"? The work done in this field by French and foreign scholars during the half-century that has elapsed since Thiers wrote his history is stupendous. By the hundredweight new material of importance has been brought to light from the dusty alcoves of public and private archives. Trained historians—many of them men of a very high, if not the very highest, order—have sifted it critically and determined its bearing upon the evolution of the grandest historical drama. If, in spite of all that, the son of a poor workman of Marseilles, whose professional training was that of a lawyer, not of an historian, and who devoted by far the

larger half of his time to journalism and politics, is still the safest guide through the bewildering mazes of the French Revolution, he must have been much more than a prodigy; he must have been a genuinely inspired seer. By supernatural intuition he must have divined what he could not know, for the documents revealing the facts had never come under his eye. Nobody has thus far felt tempted to stand sponsor to such a superlatively absurd claim. Nobody can, therefore, deny that Thiers's History of the Revolution must be of necessity in a high degree antiquated.

This is not saying that it does not still deserve to be read. In a sense it really is, as the preface to the English edition avers, "a classic." To those, also, who are in search of something more than mere entertainment its perusal will be profitable. The easy and graceful flow of the narrative, the unaffected and well-tempered simplicity of style, the elegant and exquisitely proportioned structural arrangement, the unsurpassable lucidity of statement, can be studied to great advantage not only by the historian, but also by the journalist, the novelist, the lawyer, the pulpit orator, the economist, the teacher—in short, by everybody who, for the benefit of others, has to put thoughts into language and to present facts. But to direct any one who primarily wishes to learn what is known to-day of the true history of the French Revolution above all to Thiers, is far worse than to urge Niebuhr rather than Mommsen, Ihne, Marquardsen, etc., upon the student of Roman history—far worse because Niebuhr's critical scholarship lit a powerful beacon-light which, so far as its rays penetrated, dispelled darkness for ever, though they did not bring the effulgence of the noonday sun. Thiers, as the historian of the Revolution, was not for a single year anything of the kind. Unequalled as the narrator of its course, he had, as a critical investigator of it, even in his day, not only his peers, but his superiors. Again, as to original research, he holds no mean place among the historians of the century, but the fame he is justly entitled to in this respect was principally, though not exclusively, achieved in later years. Certainly a vast amount of reading was done for the History of the Revolution, but much of it was done for him by others; and the public meant no offence when, in the earlier years of Thiers's fame as an historian, they habitually adorned him with a tail—"*les historiens de Mons. Thiers.*" Such reading as he did himself was not done so much in the spirit of the plodding scholar, who patiently devotes days, weeks, and months to clearing up a doubtful question, because he has no ulterior object, searching after truth for truth's sake, but rather in the spirit of the intensely interested spectator, who cares more to see and to understand than to know, and therefore always rests satisfied if he feels reasonably convinced of having grasped correctly the situation as a whole and the positions of the principal figures.

The assertion that Thiers cared more to understand than to know calls for an explanation. In the first-mentioned preface to the 'History of the Consulate and the Empire' he declares "intelligence" to be the quality the historian needs above all, and elaborates this thesis almost to the extent of an essay. His argumentation is eminently characteristic of him, and delineates with graphic precision his own way of studying and writing history. Thiers was possessed of a truly prodigious amount of what he understood by intelligence. His every fibre quivered with it. He could not help being intelligent as to everything, for it was his very nature. In a sense there was no merit in the wonderfully transparent lucidity with which he presented everything, not only when he wrote, but also when he addressed the Chamber from the tribune. It required no effort on his part to make the intricate plain and the involved perspicuous. He did not unravel the tangle; it was no tangle to him. Under the influence of sentiment and ambition, he did at times strive to close his ears against the promptings of this domineering intelligence, but he succeeded only very indifferently. Nevertheless, though he was amazingly intelligent, he was by no means possessed of an intellect of the first order. Whatever he saw he saw with remarkable clearness, but neither was his range of vision extraordinary in extent, nor did he see everything that lay within its limits. He characterized himself as "devoted to the modest worship of good sense" (*Hist. of the Cons. and the Emp.* v., 3); and truly, for his intelligence, though prodigious, was after all only the intelligence of good or common sense. It was clear, comprehensive, keen, sure-footed, and good taste, tact, and sparkling *esprit* served it as most helpful handmaids; but it was neither profound nor lofty. He therefore could become famous and do meritorious work of a high order, but the wreath of real greatness was not within his reach, either as historian or as statesman. If his character had been moulded on a grand scale, it might have counterbalanced and even outweighed his intellectual limitations. But the deeper cause of his intellectual qualities not rising to a higher level was exactly that his character, though of untarnished respectability, wholly free from low and sordid ingredients, and capable of a devotion challenging admiration, was, after all, in the main not above the common stature. As his intelligence was preeminently that of common sense, so were his moral standards in politics commonplace, and the political ideals he was striving after those of the common crowd—using the words in their natural meaning, and not in the customary disparaging sense. In his whole way of thinking, feeling, and aspiring he was the most exquisite embodiment of the typical traits of the French *bourgeoisie* the nineteenth century has produced—the weak and reprehensible more or less toned down and smoothed over, and the strong and good partly developed almost to perfection, but still—to paraphrase *King Lear*—every inch a French *bourgeois*, nothing else and nothing more.

The writer of the preface to the English edition of the History of the Revolution calls Thiers "a worldly statesman, with no strong passions or prejudices to mislead his judgment." He might have added—nor with strong convictions to bar his way. Not that he was not honest in his convictions, nor that he lacked convictions to which he was, in a way, faithful throughout his life. But neither upon his intellect, nor upon his sentiments, nor upon his conscience did these convictions have sufficient hold to prevent certain other sentiments of his, which collided with them, from getting the better of them and of him. He did not renounce or deny his convictions, but, under the pressure of those other sentiments, he became very accommodating, bidding the convictions just to keep discreetly in the background for the time being, and utilizing his dialectic powers for establishing a *modus vivendi* between yes and no. His lack of profundity stood him in good stead in this intellectual and moral thimblerigging. If he had not kept so near the surface, he would have found it less easy to persuade himself, even more than others, that this weakness was in truth a great merit.

"I have endeavored to stifle within my own bosom every feeling of animosity; I alternately figured to myself that, born in a cottage, animated with a just ambition, I was resolved to acquire what the pride of the higher classes had unjustly refused me; or that, bred in palaces, the heir to ancient privileges, it was painful to me to renounce a possession which I regarded as a legitimate property. Thenceforward I could not harbor enmity against either party; I pitied the combatants, and I indemnified myself by admiring generous deeds wherever I found them."

That is, according to his own declaration, the spirit in which he had studied and written the history of the Revolution. Can a more appropriate spirit be conceived of? If the question could have been submitted to a vote of all the factions, ought he not to have been their unanimous choice as historian of the Revolution? For surely each had good cause for gratification and none any reason to complain. *Sine ira et studio*, and in addition a heart large and generous enough to have a responsive pulse for all! "Objectiveness" is recognized as a prime requisite of the historian's mind. Is this not objectiveness in the sublimest form?

An eminent German historian thought differently. Ludwig Haeusser thus depicted the results of this way of looking at history:

"Thiers has made us share and live through all the sentiments of the different epochs; we rejoice, embrace, rhetorize with the Constituent Assembly; we bluster with Camille Desmoulins and the Palais Royal; we become fanaticized with the Convention and weep with the imprisoned royal family; and though our hearts must ache in accompanying the Gironde to the guillotine, we can, after all, not help looking with sympathetic admiration also upon the fabric of terror which Danton, Robespierre, and Barère are erecting. No party has a right to complain, for each finds a side dressed up to its taste by the author; nobody is angry; circumstances, fate, necessity are responsible for everything; all individuals, from Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette down to Robespierre and Marat, were at bottom unexceptionable people."

So it is; "this tolerant fatalism" practically eliminates moral responsibility. The history cooked by Thiers according to the above-mentioned recipe is a very palatable and easily digestible dish, but a close analysis reveals the fact that the ethics contained in it are so diluted as to remind one of Abraham Lincoln's meat broth made from the shadow of a pigeon that had died of starvation.

This in part accounts for the admirable success with which Thiers has lived up to his maxim that "the reader must be spared all effort of attention." It besides points directly to the foremost among the reasons why, as the preface to the English edition states, "he has no tendency to enter into long investigations of causes which he leaves the reader to discover for himself." Thus he has as much consideration for himself as for his readers. It is an excellent device to spare himself arduous efforts, but it proves that, though he is more anxious to understand than to know, his desire to understand is confined to pretty restricted limits. But if the author does not take the trouble to search for the causes, and the reader is spared all effort of attention, it is easy to imagine how that must affect the reader's really *understanding* the period whose history he is told. Certainly, it is not the historian's function to indulge in moralizing homilies, but to present facts. But the causes are an essential part of the facts—we are tempted to say that they are in a sense their vital principle. If the facts are not fully

grasped in their double character of effects and causes, so that the story clearly reveals "the causal *nexus*" of an organic tissue, we do not get the true historical facts, but merely their shells. History then fails to fulfil one of its principal, most responsible, and most beneficent tasks.

The muse of history stands foremost among her sisters, provided her records are written in such a manner that she can rightfully engrave upon her tablets the inscription, *Mortui vivos docent*. Strange as it may seem at first sight, Thiers was, in spite of all we have said, only too ardent a votary of this principle. It would be doing singular injustice to him to consider the History of the Revolution merely as a history. To-day it is nothing but that; originally, however, it was, besides, something else, and, judged from the historical point of view, something greater than a mere book. Though, as we heard Haeusser say, nobody was angry and each party found a side dressed up to suit its taste, it was conceived as a political manifesto, and as such it became a political deed of far-reaching, beneficent effect. It was a political manifesto against the Bourbonism incapable of either learning or forgetting anything—the Bourbonism outdoing the "red Terror" by the "white Terror"—the Bourbonism saddled with the "*chambre introuvable*"—the Bourbonism making the day of the execution of Louis XVI. an official day of national prayerful contrition—the Bourbonism inflicting upon the "*France intérieure*," *i. e.*, the overwhelming majority of the nation that had willed the Revolution, the audaciously arrogant and shamelessly egotistical rule of the "*France extérieure*," *i. e.*, the emigration—the Bourbonism glorying in the "missions," with their revival of mediæval fanaticism and their gross mediæval tricks—the Bourbonism of the "Congregation" and the Jesuits, readmitted into the realm and lifted into power in flagrant violation of the law—in short, the Bourbonism which systematically led up to the July ordinances of Charles X. and Polignac, and thereby to the July Revolution. The faith of the people in the Revolution was revived. Though they continued to be cut up and rent into factions, the reading of these records, more fascinating than the most interesting novel, was a powerful factor in rallying them on the common ground that, in spite of everything, it had not been all a terrible mistake, for which the nation ought to do penance in sackcloth and ashes. Those who wanted to draw this inference from the fact that the brothers of the decapitated king were seated on the throne, were understood to be the true enemies, and the only enemies common to all whose hearts beat strongly and warmly for the welfare of whole France. Therefore it was an excellent tactical move to spare the feelings of all and have a kind word for all. It was the surest means to make all join minds and hands in resisting the attempt to have the vicious idols smashed by the Revolution again set up on their pedestals.

Besides, it was the stepping-stone to the ulterior end. Contending against the lapse of the Restoration into headlong reaction would naturally lead to the reawakening or the strengthening of the positive attachment to the great underlying ideas of the Revolution. To prevent the resuscitation of the hated *ancien régime* from its bloody tomb was not enough. What was sound in the tenets and maxims of the Revolution had to be made again active forces in the minds of men, and thereby in the institutions of the country. This, too, required the conciliation of as many as possible, and it could best be attained by moderation, and by propagating the true faith indirectly by means of an inspiring narrative of its history, rather than by direct preaching and the display of a partisan spirit. The astute mind of Thiers saw all this the clearer because he was by temperament as well as by conviction a moderate Liberal, and his great natural abilities as a political tactician were developed to a high degree of perfection in the school of journalism under restrictive press laws. Other historians might have seen it too, and still would not have allowed it to exercise any influence whatever upon their work. With Thiers that was wholly out of the question, because he was primarily and above all a politician and not an historian. That the rôle of the historian exercised such a powerful charm upon him was in great measure due to the fact that history could be made a serviceable vehicle for political purposes, and he made it such a vehicle consciously and of set purpose. To say that he would not have become an historian if history could not have been utilized in this way, would be to overshoot the mark. But that he never lost sight of this fact, and that it was at times the uppermost consideration in his mind, can be irrefutably proved from his works. The critic of the historian Thiers who does not constantly ascertain when the volume in hand was written, what the political situation of France was at the time, and in what predicament it put the politician Thiers, is sure to make an occasional slip and to pass by many a suggestive or even important point. On the other hand, if he does not fail to make these inquiries, it will be fully revealed to him how the marked growth of the historian Thiers stands in close causal connection with the ripening of Thiers the public man (composed in about equal parts of the politician and the statesman) in the school of disappointment and adversity, into a full-sized statesman only slightly tainted with the proclivities of the politician.

ALBERT MOORE.

Albert Moore, his Life and Works. By Alfred Lys Baldry. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1894. 4to, pp. xii, 110. Many illustrations.

Albert Moore (christened Albert Joseph) was born in 1841, the son of William Moore, a portrait-painter living at York and not without reputation, who, like his more distinguished son, has found a place in the 'Dictionary of National Biography.' Albert Moore exhibited two studies in the Royal Academy when he was only sixteen, and from 1860 to 1893 his pictures were constantly shown at the Academy, as well as at the Grosvenor Gallery and other public exhibitions in London, and larger works in the way of wall-painting were executed in different parts of England. No man's work excites greater interest among artists, and none proves more interesting to the student. He is, however, very little known in this country, and even in England is seldom named as a really eminent and distinguished painter. The 1889 edition of Bryan's Dictionary knows him not; the almost all-embracing Seubert, edition of 1882, barely names him as a "*Mlr. der Gegenwart in London*"; Müller's 'Künstler-Lexikon' gives him one of the briefest of notices; Clement and Hutton, in 'Artists of the Nineteenth Century,' give him only eight lines besides some quotations. It is not more than justice requires that the present very handsome and very important book should be devoted to this artist, who, as Mr. Whistler has said, just missed being a very great man.

The book shows at once how he missed greatness and how near he came to it. It is a record of a busy life, and of a large production of the most artistic, the most comforting, the most gratifying and delightful pictures, in which, however, there is lacking that divine fire which burns in two or three men in a century. The book contains many full-page photographic pictures, of which ten are photogravures, and contains also head- and tail-pieces and other text illustrations, bringing the whole number of reproductions of Moore's work up to about eighty, and including also a portrait of William Moore and two photographs from life of the artist himself. This is what is most important in it, as may be said without disrespect to a very competent writer. The text, which is not very voluminous, devotes a chapter to the artist's biography; then two chapters to a record of his works, "From Year to Year," 1857 to 1874, and 1875 to 1893; then a chapter to his "Working Principles" and one to his critics. A list of Moore's pictures, the years of their production, and the places of their exhibition, and a full index, complete the book.

No modern painter has lived more wholly in his art of painting than Albert Moore. His pictures have nothing to do with literature or with history, with peasant-life or child-life, with anecdote or with mysticism. He chose as his subjects things which would be lovely in pictures, and kept steadily before him as his one end and aim the production of pictures which would be delightful to look at. That is to say, he was as indifferent to story-telling in art as Paul Veronese. And if it is an adequate description of Veronese to call him a decorative painter, it is equally sufficient as a description of Moore. All depends upon what you mean by "decorative." If it is decoration to produce in painting what no other art can supply, and to ignore that which another art, namely, the art of words, can do better, then the Cinquecento man and the modern man are decorators alike.

One of Moore's most valuable pictures is "The Quartette," painted in 1869 and exhibited in the Royal Academy. It is three feet long and contains seven figures. Four men are seated on a prominent seat, a solid bench running the whole length of the room as we see it: above them is a shelf of which there is something to be said. Between the men and the spectator stand three women, two together and half-embraced, the third alone, all looking fixedly and as if in a trance at the musicians. For the four men hold two violins, a viola (probably), and a 'cello; and a concerted piece of music is in process of execution. The double-bass lies upon the shelf above, and vases filled with flowering branches occupy the rest of it. The four men are dressed somewhat in ancient Greek taste, three of them in loose draperies and the fourth in leopard-skins; their hair is in short curls; one wears a slightly indicated cap, and one a fillet. The three women are all clothed in abundant drapery, more ample than the Greek, more free and loose than the Roman models; and their hair is dressed in the simplest way, drawn back loosely and coiled at the back of the head. The musicians are intent upon their delightful task, the women as intent upon the music and the musicians. There is no other thought, no lingering or suggested love-making or purpose apart from the music; so much general or unpainterlike subject there is and no more. And

the picture is rife with interest. It is impossible to weary of it; young people and old, beginners and veterans in the study of gallery pictures, love it alike. Examination shows that the figures are admirably drawn and posed, the draperies most skilfully cast, the faces full of quiet expression.

The indifference of the painter to archæology is complete. Not only are the garments and draperies of no historical epoch, but the exquisite designs of parts of furniture, doors, screens, and the like are not to be classified as of any epoch, nor does Mr. Moore hesitate to put a violin or a palm-leaf fan into the hand of a figure draped in what may pass for a classical fashion. The violin and the fan are beautiful in form, and that clearly suffices for this singularly abstract and ideal art. The picture called "Dreamers" was exhibited at the Royal Academy in 1882, and is four feet long. We propose to describe it at the risk of making the reader laugh. A long bench here also runs along the wall, and it has a moderately high back upon which the head of a sleeper may be laid as she sits upon the bench. Three such sleepers there have been, beautiful girls, but one of them has just waked, and has raised herself; the other two, in attitudes repeating each other in many respects, are deep in their dreams. A lovely pattern covers the wall, and another adorns the stuff which covers the sofa, but the girls are in drapery of unfigured stuffs, and this and some other drapery forms a large part of the subject of the picture. The sleepers are sound asleep: they are heavy on the bench and their heads are heavy on the ledge which supports them. The awakened girl is only just conscious of the external world.

An excellent critic, considering these pictures of no literary or anecdotical subject, in which the human figure, nude or draped and treated for itself alone, is always the principal thing, declares that Moore's way of looking at his subjects and at his work was a sculptor's way. To this it may be answered that he cared too much for color, too much for lovely patterns in color, too much for flat designing as if of inlay, as contrasted with relief designing, to be called a would-be sculptor. Moreover, the excellent use of landscape-backgrounds, as in "Follow My Leader" (1873), "Oranges" (1885), and "An Idyll" (1891), as well as the use of landscape for more than a background, as in "Waiting to Cross" (1888), and "The Loves of the Winds and Seasons" (1893), is proof enough of the painter-like mind of the man.

His peculiar use of color is also to be kept in mind. The picture called "A Revery" was exhibited at the New Gallery in 1892, and was afterwards sent to the Chicago Exhibition: it contains but a single figure, and is not quite four feet high. A draped woman is sitting in a very rich, throne-like chair; behind the chair is a screen most elaborately adorned with a flat pattern; and a marble inlaid floor receives the sitter's feet. The lady holds a fan, and some large flowers are thrown loosely upon the pavement beside her; other flowers fill large vases, and a branch of marigolds comes into view from beyond the frame in the upper right-hand corner. All the tone of color is high and pale. The drapery is generally yellow, cream-color and orange; the chair is ivory inlaid with pearl; the screen is pale-green and silver. A tendency to very light colors exists in all of Moore's work that we know of or can get word of. He saw colors as most men see them, and was not in his choice of them akin to the "Impressionists," but the colors which he cared for and desired to render were always the bright, pure, and light ones. This peculiarity of his work has brought on the argument which our author holds with Mr. Sidney Colvin, admitted to be the most sympathetic critic of all those who have analyzed in the journals Moore's work as a painter. Mr. Colvin is quoted as having said that, after all, "the kind of color which has been practised by the Venetians and by all the great schools of painting in Europe" is to be preferred. Mr. Baldry takes exception to this dictum in a very sensible way, like a student of Japanese painting and of the new thoughts that art has given to the West, like a champion of free thought everywhere. The Venetian color was a convention, he declares; and no one can gainsay him. Why should we not have other and different schemes of color, each admitted as good in its way? "The lover of the old convention admits nothing as color which is not low-toned and heavy, full of mysterious gloom. The laughing brilliancy of the open air, the sparkle of light, the dainty pattern of bright hues, softened and diluted by the all-pervading radiance of the scene, give nothing better than what Mr. Colvin calls a 'thin and abstract system of color.'" So protests Mr. Baldry against a too conservative criticism; and these words may remain the last of our notice of his hero—certainly one of the most eminent of modern artists—and of the very valuable book devoted to him.

RODWAY'S BRITISH GUIANA.

History of British Guiana, from the year 1668 to the present time. By James Rodway, F.L.S. Volume III. 1833–1893. Georgetown, Demerara: J. Thomson. 1894.

To Americans, British Guiana is a place the very name of which is all but unknown. Some learned of it for the first time on visiting the World's Fair at Chicago, where the exhibits of the colony were displayed to such advantage by Commissioner Quelch as to attract considerable attention; but here again not a few persisted in identifying Guiana with Guinea. There are, nevertheless, merchants in New York and other commercial centres who have interests of a very solid kind in the trade going on between Great Britain's colony on the mainland of South America and the United States. From Portland, Me., and Boston, whence are shipped cargoes of ice and iced provisions; from New York, whence go a number of general cargoes; and from Fernandina and other ports in Florida, whence are exported quantities of pitch-pine lumber—the year round there are vessels over which float the stars and stripes, bound to Georgetown, the capital of British Guiana, or to New Amsterdam, another port of the same colony. From the latest published customs returns of British Guiana, it appears that the value in gold of the last year's trade of the colony with the United States amounted to, in imports, $2,310,000, and in exports $4,312,000; the latter consisting mainly of the sugar so famous as "Demerara," the name of the most important port of the colony. The tyranny of the Sugar Trust and the barrier of high duties, have hitherto prevented Americans from enjoying the luxury of the straw-colored grains of the Demerara sugar.

It is of this colony that a history has just been completed by Mr. James Rodway, F.L.S., the accomplished librarian of the Royal Agricultural and Commercial Society of British Guiana, and the editor of that Society's scientific journal, *Timehri*, so called after the aboriginal word, in Guiana, for the mysterious picture-writings on some of the rocks in that part of the world. It is not only in *Timehri* that the editor's contributions will be found. He has written papers in such London periodicals as *Natural Science* and the *Cornhill* and *Longman's;* and his delightful paper upon "Orchid-Hunting in Guiana," which appeared a few months ago in the *Cornhill*, attracted deserved attention. Mr. Rodway's literary and scientific labors have just been further manifested in his production of a work entitled 'In a Guiana Forest: Studies of Nature in Relation to the Struggle for Life' (London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Scribners).

Having already noticed in the *Nation* the first two volumes of Mr. Rodway's History, it is only left to deal with the third, which brings the narrative down to 1893. Seeing that, in 1895, the third century will be completed since Sir Walter Raleigh made his first voyage to Guiana (of which he has left us an account in that "quaint and curious volume," published in 1596 with the title of 'The Discoverie of The Large, Rich and Beutiful Empire of Guiana'), Mr. Rodway has produced his work very timeously. Time is still working wonders. When, in 1876, we gave ourselves up to celebrating the centenary of the Declaration of Independence, people in Old England sagely remarked that the observance of centenaries was characteristic of a young nation with a short history. All this sagacious superiority is now cast aside; and not only has the centenary of a great event, like that of the defeat of the Spanish Armada, been commemorated, but "celebrations" of centenaries are so much the fashion that not only events but individuals also have their centenaries honored in the Old Country. Edmund Gibbon has just had this honor. Who knows but that Sir Walter Raleigh, whose Life the same Gibbon once contemplated writing, may receive this distinction in 1895 from his countrymen, who regard him as a great Englishman? Americans, too, may have something to say of one who did so much to promote English colonization in the New World.

It is of the period from the emancipation of the slaves, in 1834, to the present time, that Mr. Rodway's third volume treats. The history of British Guiana has, since the emancipation, been very much a history of its plantation labor question; for, until the rise of its gold industry, in 1888, the colony was for the most part a vast sugar-plantation. The timbers of British Guiana are not sufficiently well known to cause any great development of trade in that respect, although the "greenheart" is so celebrated for its enduring qualities as to be sought for when great harbor works are being constructed. To the building of a pier at Ostend, or towards the making of the Manchester ship-canal, many a great "log" of "greenheart" has gone from the colony. And yet the sugar industry has so overtopped that of timber that the latter has not hitherto been regarded as "a good second" to the former. Shortly after the abolition of slavery a large number of the emancipated laborers left the plantations. Wages rose accordingly. The planters soon found that they could not afford to continue cultivation at such a high cost for labor. They had been accustomed to the African as a tiller of their fields, and they sought to procure African laborers from out-side. The British Government, then maintaining a squadron on the West Coast of Africa for the suppression of the

slave-trade, forbade the recruiting of laborers in that quarter. In the neighboring West Indian colonies, the local planters wanted their own people, and discouraged recruiting for British Guiana. Laborers were brought from Madeira, the Azores, from the East Indies, and from wherever else they could be got. Even a few Germans and Irish were imported. At last, immigration from India and China became an established fact, and now 4,000 or 5,000 coolies are annually imported from India. As these East Indians have all hitherto enjoyed the right of a free return passage to India, at the expiration of ten years' residence in the colony (a right which many have exercised), and as the number of females introduced is less than that of the males, this system of immigration has not proved, up to the present time, as successful for purposes of colonization as could have been wished. The amount spent upon immigration, from first to last, by the planters and the Government of the colony together, exceeds twenty-two millions of dollars. The pluck with which the sugar industry has been maintained in British Guiana, and the scientific skill with which the manufacture of the staple has been carried to perfection, have as yet survived the harassing expedients of the Sugar Trust and the discouragement of an American high tariff. The American consumer may yet find in "Demerara crystals" one of the needs of his breakfast and tea-tables.

To a description of the rise and development of the gold industry of the colony, Mr. Rodway devotes two chapters. From a tiny shipment of 250 ounces in 1884, the export has risen to 137,629 ounces in the colony's last financial year. This is the product of surface washings solely. Various enterprises for quartz-mining in the colony are now under way; some local, others with outside capital. Among the latter is the New York and British Guiana Gold Mining Company, with a capital of a million dollars, nominally. Of the fact that gold abounds within the colony, experts have no doubt; but, as is elsewhere the case, Nature opposes many difficulties to the collection of the precious metal. Diamonds have been found in British Guiana, but not as yet of any solid commercial value.

The question between Great Britain and Venezuela as to the boundaries of British Guiana is not unknown in the United States. It was touched upon in the *Nation* when Mr. Rodway's first two volumes were discussed. In the third volume of his work the author gives a chapter to the subject. He deplores the short-sightedness of the colonists of a previous generation, who, in 1840, declined to contribute half the expense of a survey which the British Government had employed Sir Robert Schomburgk to make, with a view to define the colony's boundaries. At a subsequent date, a geological survey of the colony, towards which the British Government gave a grant in aid, was discontinued at the instance of the colonial legislators. "It was the old story," says Mr. Rodway: "unless practical results were obtained at once, the thing was no good, and the expense unwarrantable." The maps compiled by the geologists who made the survey are now much sought after.

The fair city of Georgetown, the capital and chief port of the colony, has a chapter to itself. The development of Georgetown from its germ, the little hamlet of Stabroek, first projected by the British during their occupation of the then Dutch colony in 1781, and actually begun by the French during their occupation in 1782, and then continued and carried out by the Dutch when the colony was restored to them, down to the Georgetown of to-day, with its 55,000 inhabitants, is shown with clearness. For a sub-tropical city, Georgetown is quite up to date. Lying five feet below the sea's level at high-water mark, sanitary measures have effected so much as to make the town a fairly healthy place. With its broad streets, crossing one another at right angles, and its numerous private residences adorned with trees and plants of various shapes and colors, there is much to please the eye of a visitor. In business matters there is much to show that colonists keep abreast with the times. Overhead, numerous wires span the wide streets, for telegraphic, telephonic, and electric-lighting purposes. Sixpenny telegrams were in vogue in British Guiana before they were adopted in the United Kingdom; and the addresses are not charged by the colonial post-office. The citizens of Georgetown rejoice in a day-and-night telephone service, and they use gas or the electric light in their houses, as they prefer. The city itself is lighted in both ways. Ice is not only imported from Boston and Maine, but is manufactured in the colony. With ice selling at one cent for two pounds, the inhabitants of British Guiana are able to have cold water, which is now held to be a necessary of existence, always on hand. There are two cathedrals in Georgetown and two public gardens. In one respect at least the postal administration is ahead of that of many a larger place, for letters posted in the city for delivery within go for a one-cent postage rate. Needless to say that Georgetown has its firm of universal providers, in the shape of "The Great Demerara Supply Stores." That this enterprising business establishment has a nice respect for the veracities may be gathered from one of its recent advertisements in a Georgetown newspaper. Therein, after declaring its "popular prices for every article," and "everything fresh and up to date," these public benefactors include in their tempting list of goods on sale, "Hatchets, same as used by George Washington, 64 cents each."

That a history such as Mr. Rodway's should have been printed and published in a tropical colony with less than 300,000 inhabitants, most of whom are of the humbler classes, is highly to the credit of Mr. James Thomson, the proprietor of the "Argosy" Press, whose enterprise in this matter must be regarded as a public service done to British Guiana.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America. 1773-1783. Vol. XXI. Nos. 1814 to 1860. London. April, 1894.

BEFORE approaching the more important contents of the opening volume in the third decade of this great work, it seems a fitting moment to speak once more in praise of the performance as it advances towards completion. Not only is the interesting character of the documents fully maintained—though rarely some paper is offered whose presence could be spared—but there is no discernible falling off in the quality of the paper, or in the well-nigh faultless execution (in facsimiles) of the originals, and of the clear and beautifully written translations. The technical effect is brilliant and stately, a thorough and careful piece of workmanship. Until this monument is done it will be difficult to appreciate the significance of seemingly unrelated portions, but a word of commendation is not out of place at any time, and it is a pleasure to give it.

Vol. 21 closes as it opens, with Vergennes still trying to make Spanish and French diplomacy run in double harness; but, with all the great minister's astuteness, he finds Florida Blanca decidedly offish, especially so because D'Aranda at Paris is favoring almost with enthusiasm the French rather than the Spanish home policy. The documents to and from Vergennes and Montmorin are too long and too intricate for elucidation, but their theme is simple and their logic irresistible except to the Spanish King and his irritated minister, who show an almost impious unwillingness to see that Providence is pointing the way for the houses of Bourbon to join forces against the common foe. In forestalling any prestige which England may gain with America, by themselves treating definitely, though secretly, with the Deputies, the two crowns necessarily commit the colonies to a furtherance of their own interests in the New World. It is not easy to determine how sincere Vergennes was in thinking that the natural relationship between the mother country and her revolted colonies was likely to prove deeper than any temporary animosities between them; but it is reasonably certain that, to his mind, everything hung upon the way in which English opinion would swing after the assembling of Parliament. Should the North ministry or its successor decide to grant all concessions short of actual independence, or should it waive that last obstacle, there was, in his mind, only one policy for France—to act with promptness and to render any English overtures impossible by treaties of alliance and of commerce. He will induce Spain, if persuasion and gentleness can do it, but he makes it clear that France will pursue her course in any event.

The evidence offered in a detached way throughout these documents makes it difficult to say just what caused the procrastination of the Spanish court. The wounded pride of Florida Blanca at finding himself pushed by a foreign minister of only coequal power with himself towards accepting a course of conduct repugnant to his sovereign's moral judgment and to his own *amour propre*, is certainly a possible explanation. The only strong excuse freely sent back to the repeated messages from Versailles through the French ambassador was that the Spanish fleet would be in danger should England learn of any such provocation as a treaty with America. Vergennes in answer gives ample assurance that the fleet shall be rendered secure, but the most that can be elicited in return is the vague promise that should war actually ensue, Spain will not refuse to bear her share in it.

Before the volume closes, that happens (though we get no definite facts as yet) which is a common matter of history: the United States and France, on February 6, 1778, enter into two treaties, one of alliance and one of commerce. Stormont repeats a rumor of the event on the same day to Weymouth (No. 1857). Antecedent to this, but in close connection with it, comes document No. 1831, which deserves careful attention. It is Monsieur Gérard's "Narrative of a conference with the American commissioners," on January 9. It shows how cautiously the steps towards a definite conclusion were taken. Flattering to national pride is this untouched "negative" of our comparatively unsophisticated deputies, calmly and cleverly playing the game of statecraft, with three great Powers and thirteen colonies in the pool.

Let us turn from this side of the picture to Lord Stormont, still pertinaciously and hopelessly representing a fast losing cause. His complaints are the same, though deeper and

louder, that France is acting out a perfidious policy. The phrase pleases him if nothing else does. His work is so nearly done that it would be unprofitable now to describe it minutely. Just one success is vouchsafed to him when he reduces his great adversary, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, to absolute speechlessness. Stormont, after the Queen's ball of January 21, when he hears that twenty-one French ships of the line are to be put into commission at once, goes to Vergennes and asks him of this news, then questions him point-blank as to the truth of rumors concerning the treaties with America. Stormont writes to Weymouth, "He seemed more embarrassed than ever I remember him, plaid with his fingers, and remained quite silent" (No. 1846). Vergennes himself, in a letter to Noailles (No. 1848), relates this interview very accurately, but explains, more lamely than is his wont, his silence on the ground that he cannot speak without first knowing the pleasure of the King.

How did Stormont get his intelligence of the treaties so soon and so accurately? France had used every effort to preserve the secret, at least while Spain was still so coy. Of the two treaties, that of commerce, if made public, was the least calculated to work mischief, but secrecy for both was most desirable. A little later, February 6 (No. 1858), Stormont speaks of a new source of information, "Mr. James," who wishes "to shew his Regard for Great Britain by giving useful intelligence, for which He expects a handsome acknowledgment"; and as an earnest "a gratification of Fourscore or a hundred Guineas" is suggested for the worthy fellow. It was not probably this "Mr. James" who revealed the treaties, nor could it easily have been the engaging Paul Wentworth, who, seriously annoyed at the intrusion upon his privacy of persons connected with the French secret service, had taken alarm and called on M. Favier on January 11 (No. 1833), clad "in top boots and frock coat," to say good-bye, and to make a final proposition that Favier should form a fourth in a partnership for speculation. The correspondence is to relate only to the operations in the money market, but the Frenchman refuses on the ground of having no exclusive information. "I would not even see you, nor have any correspondence with you, even for commissions for razors, English beer, peppermint-water, pickled salmon, and lottery tickets; in a word, I could know nothing certain except through some confidence which I should not care to abuse." After this positive answer the two parted cordially, and, so far as is to be seen, Mr. Wentworth withdrew from Paris, grieved as he said (No. 1832) at the "inefaceable unpleasantness of having been taken for a spy."

No. 1837, which does not bear the name of the writer or of the person to whom it was addressed, although Le Ray de Chaumont may have received it, reveals an attempt on the part of some partisan of England to induce France to "sell out" the colonies, by forming a commercial union with her ancient enemy. The writer maintains that no one in France rightly understands the theories of commerce. The desire to propitiate must have been active to induce him to say: "I am persuaded that if France, in the present conjuncture, treated openly and in good faith with Great Britain, she would obtain all that would contribute towards establishing peace on a solid basis." Unenthusiastic as the French King often showed himself to be towards America, he was not likely to be beguiled in this way, so long as Vergennes alertly stood between his master and the indifferentism of Maurepas. That, by the way, was a wise saw which, in a letter to Montmorin (No. 1847), Vergennes says that he once learned from M. Chauvelin, Keeper of the Seals, that "the whole science of politics was concentrated in the two words *foresee* and *forestall.*'

From Edinburgh to the Antarctic. By W. G. Burn Murdoch. With a chapter by W. S. Bruce. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894. 8vo, pp. xii, 364. Illustrated.

THOSE interested in Polar exploration and adventure have long known Dundee as a Scotch New Bedford, from which many whale-ships hail. The brothers Gray, masters and owners of such craft, have even an international reputation. Yet evil days have come for the whaling industry. Their prey, taught by experience, lurks in inaccessible recesses of the ice, or has been so reduced in numbers as to make the pursuit unprofitable. Whalebone of the better sort has risen in value until five dollars a pound has been named in the quotations. One right whale carries in his mouth a ton of baleen, while the oil pays the freight. This is a little fortune, and two or three whales will pay for a voyage. But in Spitzbergen Seas, Baffin's Bay, and the North Atlantic region generally even the two or three can no longer be had. The Dundee masters do not like long voyages, and have become so domesticated that they feel defrauded if they cannot winter at home. But something had to be done, or the business would come to an end.

Whalemen are prone to legend, and their "yarns" are proverbial. There is always a lost bay where the young whales are born and oily millions are basking in security behind a protective line of sand and breakers, waiting for the lucky master who shall again discover the hidden inlet. In a certain latitude, longitude uncertain, so-and-so has sighted an enormous school of sperm-whales, very shy, with a diabolical faculty of eluding the boats and disappearing in the fog. However, by proper means, something might be done even with them, if all else failed. Then there is the long-lost island in the North Pacific where the fur-seals winter, reported in the last century by a Russian boat crew driven far from land by storms, with no instruments but a compass, and finally reaching Kadiak by a miracle. Even last year a vessel sailed in search of this mythical island, as many have done before, seeking the goddess Fortuna in the bewildering fogs and murderous southeasters of the Eastern Ocean.

In an unguarded moment Sir James Ross referred to some whales seen in Erebus and Terror Gulf, during his antarctic expedition of 1842, as "right whales." This expression was recalled by the Dundee whaling-masters when their arctic work no longer prospered. In 1891 a voyage to the antarctic was mooted, but came to nothing. In the following year Mr. Kinnes succeeded in enlisting capital in the project, and four whale-ships, the barks *Balæna*, *Diana*, *Active*, and *Polar Star*, were outfitted. The largest, the *Balæna*, registered 260 tons, with a 65-horse-power auxiliary engine. The fleet agreed to rendezvous in the South Shetlands, where Ross's whales were to be sought for. The Royal Geographical and Meteorological Societies were naturally interested in the project, and contributed instruments for scientific observation; while some public-spirited individuals arranged that the ships' surgeons should be men of scientific tastes, supplied with the necessary equipment for doing incidental scientific work. The surgeon of the *Balæna*, Dr. Bruce, and a young artist who signed articles as surgeon's assistant, at a shilling a month, with no advance, are the authors of this volume.

To sum up briefly the commercial results of the expedition, no right whales were found, though "finbacks" abounded; but the vessels turned their attention to sealing, came home "full," and made a prosperous voyage. The *Balæna* left Dundee in September, 1892, and reached the Falkland Islands on the 8th of December. She arrived in the South Shetlands early in January, 1893, started on her homeward voyage February 18, and reached Dundee on the 30th of May. It would seem from the text that the commander of the *Balæna* was not favorably inclined towards the scientific utilization of the voyage. That his men should work on Sunday all day and well into the night killing and flenching seals was "a wark o' necesseety," but making "picturrs on the Lord's Day o' Rest is an awfu' like thing." Nevertheless, in spite of obstacles, hardships, and deprivations, something was accomplished.

The South Shetlands were probably first sighted by Dirck Gerritz in 1599, but were first made known by William Smith in 1818, while Graham Land beyond them was discovered by Biscoe in 1832. They were surveyed by Ross in his remarkable antarctic expedition of 1842–43, and the subsequent progress of discovery has been in the line of unimportant if useful detail. The Dundee fleet added almost nothing to the chart, but a Norwegian ship which they met, the *Jason*, Capt. Larsen, traced the eastern shore of Graham Land to 68° south, noting two active volcanoes which he called Mt. Jason and Mt. Sarsee. The same mariner brought from Seymour Island, fossil shells and coniferous wood, of Tertiary age, the first relics of this sort which have been obtained from the antarctic lands. These show, of course, that a warmer climate once prevailed there.

The *Active* determined the insularity of Joinville Land by passing through a strait previously unknown. The climate of the region showed remarkable uniformity; the temperature averaged during the whole of their stay about one degree below the freezing-point, this in the height of the antarctic summer. The lowest was 21 degrees, the highest 38 degrees Fahrenheit. Except where too steep for snow to lie, the land was wholly ice-bound, and no land vegetation of any sort is reported. The seals, which insured the commercial success of the voyage, were of four kinds, all peculiar to the antarctic region: two sea-leopards (*Stenorhynchus leptonyx* and *S. weddellii*), the white crab-eating seal (*S. carcinophagus*), and Ross's seal. Unused to man, they made no attempt to escape. Their slaughter was indiscriminate and painful to witness. An examination showed their stomachs to contain fish, crustaceans, an occasional penguin, and "ballast" in the shape of small stones. Some of the arctic pinnipeds also are known to take in "ballast." Birds were plentiful, especially the penguins; about twenty species in all were recognized, including the Cape pigeon, smaller albatross, and the sheathbill, or *Chionis*. The comical antics of the penguins were a never-ending source of amusement. Taxidermists as well as ordinary readers may find profit in the study of the spirited and characteristic sketches by Mr. Murdoch, which give a very different idea of the penguin from the specimens usually found in museums.

The aspect of antarctic ice is notably differ-

ent from that of the arctic regions. Huge table topped vertical-sided bergs are the rule, and the irregular pinnacled ice of the north is seldom represented. The beauty of color and grandeur of form were the admiration and the despair of our artist, who endeavors to paint in words, not without success, some of the marvels he found beyond the powers of his brush.

Much of the book is naturally devoted to the voyage and the stay at the Falklands, the latter impressing Mr. Murdoch more favorably than they did Darwin. Altogether, unfamiliar scenes are agreeably depicted; and if the artist's sketches have suffered somewhat in "processing," they still lend much of interest to the text. The maps are excellent, but there is no index.

From the Greeks to Darwin: An Outline of the Development of the Evolution Idea. By Henry Fairfield Osborn, Sc.D. (Columbia University Biological Series.—I.) Macmillan & Co. 1894. 8vo, pp. 259.

THIS is an attempt to determine the history of Evolution, its development and that of its elements, and the indebtedness of modern to earlier investigators. The book is a valuable contribution; it will do a great deal of good in disseminating more accurate ideas of the accomplishments of the present as compared with the past, and in broadening the views of such as have confined themselves too closely to the recent or to specialties. Through philosophy, history, theology, and general literature, the author has extended his search to the remotest suggestions. His account is connected and well written; it contains many a surprise for those who, working without backward glances, have taken zoölogical science to be a concern only of to-day. Nearly all of our theories are in some way followed back to the oldest speculations. The aquatic origin of life and the germ of Evolution are traced to Thales and Anaximander, spontaneous generation to Xenophanes, natural selection to Empedocles, adaptation to Democritus, pangenesis to Hippocrates and Heraclitus, and so on. Indebtedness to the ancients, as also what is owed to the later Bacon, Buffon, Lamarck, and many others of the series reaching to the present time, is set forth in a manner that will go far toward modifying prevalent estimates of the proportions of noted authorities. To be entirely complete, the discussion should include Inorganic Evolution.

The point of view is conservative; consequently, while it appeals to the larger circle of readers, this work may not satisfy radicals of either of the so-called modern schools. The conclusions are mainly personal, and are subject to changes by others. It will be questioned whether the influence of the ancients has not been estimated too highly, and too often imagined to exist. The basis of modern methods is traced to the philosophers, but the true basis of the science of nature lies in the things themselves, and they suggest the methods. Distinctions should be made between the probabilities of influence from the purely speculative, and coincidences arising from the study of the same objects; direct influence, in addition to the historical connection, existing in the one case and not in the other. In coincidence of conclusions on natural objects between a later writer and an earlier, again, the probabilities of direct influence may be said to be greater if both are wrong than if both are right. Whether points like these have had sufficient consideration in this work must be determined by subsequent studies.

The author's three stages in the discovery of a law of nature are, "first, that of dim suggestion in pure speculation, with eyes closed to facts; second, that of clear statement as a tentative or working hypothesis in an explanation of certain facts; and finally, the proof or demonstration." Preferably, the first stage should be observation, the second comparison and speculation. Science has suffered too much from statements of what is seen with eyes closed to the facts. Working hypotheses should not be valued so high, especially if they are theories not formed by the student himself. They may lead to brilliant thought, but are mostly unproductive of valuable results. Most of the early investigators too readily left observation for guesswork, and, once entangled in "working hypotheses," never again freed themselves. That Cuvier, when he left his objective studies for speculation, was exceptionally unsound, is very true, but it is equally true that his retarding influence was most felt through the adoption of his conclusions as working hypotheses by his followers. The author says (p. 9): "Young Darwin was among the few who kept before his mind [their minds] both theories." "There were but two theories to choose from, the special-creation theory and the transmutation theory. He took them up with an open mind" (p. 232). Darwin's statement (p. 234) is: "I worked on true Baconian principles, and, without any theory, collected facts on a wholesale scale, more especially with respect to domesticated products, by printed inquiries, by conversation with skilful breeders and gardeners, and by extensive reading."

It is in the approach to the present time that we notice in our author a slight lack of proportion. A final estimate of Darwin as compared with his predecessors is hardly possible while standing so near. The valuation of his service in the overthrow of the theory of special creations is fair; that of his special theories has the appearance of a compromise. The fact of survival is much less acceptable as proof of fitness than twenty years ago, and the tendency is to question, in definite application, the notion that "the less fit have perished," as thoroughly as we should question, say, the notion that "the progeny of the less fit, from the greater strain exerted upon the parents by the modifying agents, are the more adaptable." Hence it is evident that we are not yet prepared for accurate appreciation.

As a whole the book is admirable. The author has been more impartial than any of those who have, in part, anticipated him in the same line of work.

George William Curtis. By Edward Cary. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

INASMUCH as Mr. Cary's personal approach to Mr. Curtis was from the side of politics and reform, while political journalism is his own vocation, it was to be expected that his book would be more satisfactory on this side than on that of literature pure and simple. Nevertheless, if the work is anywhere preëminently good, it is in the chapters that concern those years when Mr. Curtis was writing the 'Nile Notes' and 'The Howadji in Syria,' 'The Potiphar Papers' and 'Prue and I.' Nowhere a mere eulogist, Mr. Cary's discrimination between 'The Potiphar Papers' and 'Prue and I' is clear and fine, and, a little later, his indication of the failure of 'Trumps,' and the circumstances and habits that contributed to that failure, is as frank as the most candid critic could desire.

Both on his father's and his mother's side Mr. Curtis's ancestry is traced back to the first settlement of New England. The first Curtis brought over a certificate of his conformity to the Church of England and of his being "no subsidy man"; wherein the seekers for ingenious parallels will find one with the most distinguished of the line. The Curtis of Revolutionary times was a stiff-necked Tory of Worcester, Mass., who made his peace with the local patriots in 1777. Mr. Curtis's brother Burrill, whose death bas just been announced, furnishes valuable pages about their parents and their boarding at Brook Farm. Another informant represents George as seeming twenty-five when he was only eighteen, "with courteous recognition of others' convictions and even prejudices, and never a personal animosity of any kind"—phrases descriptive of his later and his latest years. At this time there was a singular maturity in his letters written to his father, of which Mr. Cary gives a few admirable examples. He saw and heard Webster at Bunker Hill in 1843, and took his measure pretty well for a boy of nineteen summers: "Too great for party; not yet great enough for quiet independence." A letter of 1844 calmly contemplates disunion as the outcome of slavery aggression, and argues its advisability. This and other letters of the same period indicate that Mr. Curtis's anti-slavery enthusiasm in 1856 was not so new-born as it has heretofore appeared; that he was in the van before he went abroad, but that three years of travel and the subsequent literary engrossment meant a certain arrest of his anti-slavery development.

The chapter on the Howadji books is interesting on more than one account. Compared with earlier writing in Curtis's journal and elsewhere, their style is artificial—a sympathetic adaptation to the Oriental theme. There is little indication of his learning how to write. The leading characteristics of his style appear in things he wrote while yet a boy, but it was chastened and subdued as time went on. The relations of father and son come out clearly in a letter written in 1851, when the 'Nile Notes' had been publicly reproved upon the score of immorality, and the father had been grieved at what seemed too much excuse for the assault. A mingled deference and independence is the prevailing note, though the latter may be in the ascendant when "the Howadji" says: "Had I written a book to please you, I would not have published it, because it would not have pleased myself. . . . The essential spirit of the book is precisely what I wish it." Something of the violence with which Mr. Curtis lashed out in the 'Potiphar Papers' is due, perhaps, to the spasm of virtue which his 'Nile Notes' excited in "the best society" of New York in 1851. A number of letters to Charles F. Briggs reflect the humors of his experience in the lecture field, and the buoyancy of his spirits while he was at once lecturing, writing books, and contributing to the papers and the magazines. We do not seem to find as full an account as we should like of the scope of Mr. Curtis's lectures. Such a one as that of 1859 on "Modern Infidelity," which he delivered to forty two lyceums in one winter, marks indelibly the force of his appeal to private reason from any authority whatsoever, and one craves some mention of it as an illustration of Mr. Curtis's religious thought, and his publication of it without the least equivocation or disguise.

Coming to the dreadful winter of 1860–'1, we

find Mr. Curtis with Horace Greeley, John A. Andrew, and many others contemplating disunion as the ideal solution of the crisis, in case the South declined to yield her claims. This attitude was so common among the Republican leaders that it is not to be wondered at in any particular case, but it is certainly surprising to find Mr. Curtis warmly approving (much more warmly than Whittier) Seward's speech of January, 1861. For that speech certainly did betray the anti-slavery principles in a most gross and miserable fashion—surrendering the Territories to slavery or freedom as one or the other might be voted up or down, and proposing an unalterable amendment to the Constitution prohibiting national interference with slavery in the States. The war once found inevitable, Mr. Curtis bent all his energies to shaping it into an instrument for the destruction of slavery. There are many beautiful letters in the book; there is no other so beautiful as that written just after the death of Lincoln, nor is it possible to read it without "a great trembling of the heart." In the chapter on Mr. Curtis's connection with *Harper's Weekly* we have the criticism of an editor on an editor, and it is the more valuable on this account. His editorial style was not that of his essays or orations. It was a talking style:

"He seemed to have his reader as clearly in his mind as if he were sitting before him, and he reasoned with him, appealed to him, suggested to him, as he would have done had their eyes met. And the editor did not make the mistake of either overrating or underrating the person to whom he addressed himself. I have sometimes thought that this imaginary companion was conceived by him with a very serious reference to the character of the *Weekly* as it was when he took charge of it, and that his typical reader was one who primarily liked to look at pictures, and whose interest, thus attracted, was to be directed by the writer."

Arriving at Mr. Curtis's connection with civil-service reform, Mr. Cary is in closer sympathy with his subject than at any other point. He bears new and valuable testimony to the sound, practical, common-sense dealing of Mr. Curtis with the whole business. The political reaction of 1874 and 1876, so closely following on the great Republican victory of 1872, was no whit in excess of his anticipation. The Hayes-Tilden electoral commission was his original device for solving the problem; but how he relished the purely partisan character of the decision we are left in doubt. In the spring of 1877 Hayes offered him his choice of the great foreign missions, but his lack of legal training was a bar to his acceptance of any of them, together with his fear of doing a less influential work. His break with Conkling followed soon, and then in 1884 the more signal one with Blaine and the Republican party. We are duly shown what long and ample preparation there was for the course which he eventually pursued. The utter silliness and immorality of those who hold each member of a convention bound to support the action of the majority, do not, perhaps, deserve attention, but there is a letter (p. 291) which may be commended to the victims of such gross illusion. Moreover, we are reminded that a motion for such a construction failed in the convention, those favoring it withdrawing it in face of Mr. Curtis's vigorous opposition, as if they dared not put it to the test. The reasons for his support of Mr. Cleveland in 1888 are summarized very carefully in a letter to some stranger who had written him a letter of friendly criticism and disapproval.

Of Mr. Curtis's more personal and private life, his tastes, his friendships, his domestic life, his religious attitude, Mr. Cary has written with brevity and reserve, but with a discriminating touch. Taking his book as a whole, those must have known Mr. Curtis extremely long and well whose good opinion of him is not enhanced by this entirely simple and sincere portrayal of his character and his career.

Among Men and Horses. By M. Horace Hayes, F.R.C.V.S. Illustrated by reproductions from photographs. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

Captain Hayes was born in the County of Cork. He was three years a cadet at Woolwich, went to India and became a captain in "The Buffs." He has been a voluminous writer on horsy and veterinary topics and is a good and recognized authority. This book is a rambling record of his very active life in all parts of the world. It is very readable, and its interest is enhanced by much that is instructive, for Captain Hayes knows his Horse well, and he has appreciated the phases of human nature with which his peculiar experiences have brought him in contact. Like most of his class, he has a somewhat obscure notion of the line of demarcation between the sportsman and the sporting man, but his instincts tend to the better side. He says that "in the vast majority of cases the ordinary Englishman's love for horses is more love for gambling. If this were not so, we would find that horse-shows would be better attended than race-meetings. . . We all know that racing cannot be carried on without betting. . . . 'What I likes about racing,' said a young so-called sporting publican, who was a devoted student of the turf from a 'tape' and 'price-list' point of view, 'is to see my two "quid" coming into the straight, a dozen lengths in front of everything, and all the rest pulling up.'" The author has, nevertheless, the racing man's admiration for a good bettor, as for example: "Cremorne beat him by a short head. . . . 'What difference does that make to you?' said some one to George Payne. 'A hundred thousand, my boy,' coolly remarked dear old George, as serene as the moon."

He describes himself as "knocking about at race-meetings with all sorts of sporting characters, getting up boxing and athletic matches and other 'divarsions' dear to the heart of an Irishman." But he had a more serious and a more serviceable side, and he has done a great deal for the horse and for horse-owners. His books, 'Points of the Horse,' 'Veterinary Notes for Horse-Owners,' and 'Illustrated Horse-Breaking,' are capital. He devised a system of breaking which seems to be of more general application than Rarey's; and with his wife, who rode the reformed brutes the minute they left his hand, he made the tour of the colonial world, giving lessons and public exhibitions, and getting material for some of the most entertaining portions of his book.

As to Buffalo Bill's buckjumpers, he says:

"If any of these animals really did buck, which I rather doubt, it was in the feeble manner which might have been expected from 'trick' horses which had to do their 'turn' twice a day for months, if not for years. Besides, buckjumping is a vice which no horse will continually practise unless he receives the frequent encouragement of throwing his man off. The cowboys seem hard, active, fearless fellows, with whom it would be more pleasant to drink than to fight. No comparison can be drawn between their riding and ours, as the two styles are entirely different. Whether their bronchos buck or only pigjump, the feat of sticking on them is not very difficult when it is allowable to use a saddle of about fifty pounds in weight, and to hold on to it with one or both hands. The size and shape of their saddle are no doubt regulated to attain comfort in their hard work, and not merely to enable them to stick on. Had they practice in our saddles and in our methods, they would no doubt acquit themselves creditably, like the fine fellows they are."

He is very sensible on the subject of giving water to a heated horse:

"Applying the golden rule of treating a horse as I would wish myself to be treated, I introduced in India, many years ago, the practice of giving a horse in training a fairly liberal drink of water, immediately after he had done his work, before sending him back to his stable—and with the happiest results. By my example and writings, I destroyed, in India, the old and cruel myth of a drink of water being dangerous to the health of a heated horse; supposing, of course, that the water was not too cold. Take, for instance, a man who is exhausted and streaming with perspiration after doing some violent work. What, may I ask, is the first thing he does? 'Takes a drink, if he can get it,' you naturally reply. And after he has had his whiskey and soda, glass of beer or shandy-gaff, cup of tea or glass of water, what does he say? 'By Jove! that has done me a power of good,' or words to that effect, you answer. Right again, my reader, and so would your horse say, under similar circumstances, were he able to speak. But I fancy I hear you observe that even horses have been known to drop dead from taking a drink when they were hot. Such instances, I admit, have undoubtedly occurred; but only when the imbibed fluid was comparatively cold, in which cases it caused death by nervous shock. The precaution of slightly warming the water, or of giving it only in small and repeated quantities, is not difficult to adopt."

In connection with training, he says:

"The easiest way to get down weight—without resorting to the continued use of medicine, which cannot help being injurious to the health—is that of abstaining from taking any fluid during meals, and for, say, an hour and a half after meals; no restriction being placed on its consumption before meals, so long as the one and a half hours' interval after them is observed. This I found very efficacious; but could not continue it, as it brought on rheumatism, on account, I presume, of the food being presented to the organs of digestion in too concentrated a form. A large amount of fluid is certainly required by the systems of most persons, to, so to speak, wash out the tissues and thus to prevent the deposition in them of deleterious products, the presence of which is apt to give rise to rheumatism and other untoward results."

Suggestive quotations might be extended ad libitum. In fact, there are few better books for the odd moments of one who has an interest in horses and horsy things.

Le Vatican, les Papes et la Civilisation; Le Gouvernement Central de l'Église. Paris: Didot; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer. 1895. 4to.

Even the presses of Didot have not often favored the public with a more sumptuous volume than this. Few subjects offer so rich a field for the illustrator as the central church and palace which epitomize the history of Latin Christianity in all its vicissitudes, and on which the piety and wealth of Europe have lavished all the treasures of art. For the worthy treatment of so attractive a theme the resources of the illustrator have been taxed to the utmost. Engravings and chromos, woodcuts and process cuts, have been employed in profusion, and he will be hard to please who does not find here what will satisfy his curiosity if untravelled, or recall pleasant memories if he has been fortunate enough to stand under the Dome of St. Peter's and wander through the loggie and library of the Vati-

can. Everything is here depicted, from the archaic seal of Pope Anaclet to the *fin de-siècle* face of Cardinal Gibbons; from epigraphs in the catacombs to frescoes of Giotto and Raffaele and sculptures of Michelangelo and Canova; from delicious alleys and parterres in the gardens to the secret apartments of the Conclave; from the shrewd, intellectual countenance of Leo XIII. to groups of his officials and servitors, his Swiss Guard and Noble Guard.

There is also much to interest in the text, though it is scarce to be reckoned worthy of the illustrations. It is true that we have an introduction by Cardinal Bourret and an epilogue by the Vicomte de Vogüé, while the body of the work has been contributed by three former members of the French School in Rome, who are evidently thoroughly familiar with their subject. The first 233 pages are occupied by a general view of the history of the papacy by M. Georges Goyau, which may be summarized as an eloquent *plaidoyer* in justification of the Syllabus of 1864. All the mediæval claims of the Church are assumed to be its inalienable rights, however obscured by the Cæsarism of the Christian Emperors and the irreligion of modern godless generations. Luther, Zwingli, and Calvin, we are told, "claim to maintain a religion, and they claim that this religion was a branch of Christianity." As for science, the writer complains that after the Reformation "it ceased to accept as postulates the dogmas revealed by Christ or taught by the Church. . . . If it came across them and found them true, it adopted these communications of God. God had to allow himself to be surprised, *flagrante delicto*, in material exactitude."

Of course from an essay written in this spirit there is not much to be learned except the curious recrudescence of mediævalism which the Holy See is stimulating with some success. Of greater value is the second essay, also by M. Goyau, on the central government of the Church, giving us an inside view of the organization and machinery through which the two hundred millions of the Roman obedience are spiritually governed. Of the vastness and intricacy of this business a glimpse can be had from the single fact that the archives of the Datary, from the accession of Martin V., in 1317, to Pius VII., contain 6,690 volumes of supplications addressed to the Pope for benefices and for dispensations to marry within the prohibited degrees. The third section is by M. André Pératé, and is entitled "The Popes and the Arts." In the space of about a hundred pages it gives us an interesting sketch of the patronage of art in the papal court, and its influence on the artistic development of Europe. Finally, another hundred pages, by M. Paul Fabre, describes the Vatican Library and its vast accumulations of literary and historical treasures, which the enlightened liberality of Leo XIII. has thrown open to scholars of all nations and creeds. In the paragraphs, however, devoted to the library under Pius IX., M. Fabre preserves a discreet and significant silence with regard to its most industrious and illustrious custodian, Augustin Theiner.

Yet, after all, in turning over the pages of this splendid book, the thought awakened by its ostentatious display of the magnificence of the papal court and its surroundings is, what Jesus of Nazareth, if He returned to earth in his humble guise, would think of his representative, and what his representative would think of Him.

As a Matter of Course. By Annie Payson Call. Boston: Robert̀s Brothers. 1894. Pp. 125.

JUDGING by Miss Call's title, her book might be a novel by Howells, but in reality it is a treatise on mental hygiene, big by reason of the importance of its stuff, even if small in the number of its pages. They that are whole need not a physician; but they that are making themselves whole can find no better ally than the author of this unpretending volume. In her previous work, 'Power through Repose,' Miss Call preached the gospel of muscular relaxation to her countrymen; here it is the gospel of mental relaxation. Both gospels are needed by our people sorely; but few realize the unnatural state of "contraction" of every sort in which they live, and a special grace from on high is usually needed to reveal to us that there is a way out, so simple and near-lying that to overlook it would seem impossible, save for the fact that the very tension and pressure and hurly-burly in which we live in our prison close the valves of the opening to so narrow a crack that we roll over and over it without perceiving it to be there. To ignore things, to be willing that they should take their course, to let go our hold on them and on ourselves, and throw overboard a good lot of our supposed higher consciousness—these sound in one sense like immoral maxims, and for some people they would be immoral maxims, but to the over-tense and over-careful and irritated type of spirit they are the only outlet to a wholesome moral life.

The merit of Miss Call's book is in inducting the reader into this philosophy in detail. We might give extracts, but out of their context and place in the general argument they would probably sound more trivial than they are in the book, so to cite would be unfair. Moreover, Miss Call's style shines more by sincerity and plainness than by rhetorical ability. Her book, had it a little more brilliancy, might well take a place with us similar to that which Feuchtersleben's 'Diätetik der Seele' has held in Germany, and go through edition after edition. This would seem only natural in a work which must meet the exact need of so many persons, and of which the quality is so peculiarly real and penetrating and the humanity so rare.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alarcón, P. A. de. El Final de Norma. W. R. Jenkins. 75 cents.
A New Gospel of Labor. Seattle, Wash.: S. Wegener. 50 cents.
A Selection from Child Life in Poetry. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
A Selection from Child Life in Prose. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Baldry, Alfred L. Albert Moore, his Life and Works. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $22.50.
Baring-Gould, S. Noémi. Appletons. $1.
Beazley, C. R. Prince Henry the Navigator. Putnams. $1.50.
Bercy, Paul. Lectures Faciles pour l'Étude du Français. W. R. Jenkins. 30 cents.
Bernard, V. F. L'Art d'Intéresser en Classe. W. R. Jenkins. 30 cents.
Bhikshu, Subhadra. A Buddhist Catechism. Putnams. $1.
Bowyer, J. T. The Pollinctor. Richmond, Va.: J. W. Randolph & Co. 50 cents.
Bradford, Dr. T. L. The Life and Letters of Dr. Samuel Hahnemann. Philadelphia: Boericke & Tafel. $3.50.
Bridges, Robert. Milton's Prosody. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 40 cents.
Butcher, Prof. S. H. Aristotle's Theory of Poetry and Fine Art. With a Critical Text and a Translation of the Poetics. Macmillan. $3.25.
Call, R. E. The Life and Writings of Rafinesque. [Filson Club Publications.] Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co.
Callaway, Prof. Morgan. Select Poems of Sidney Lanier. Scribners. $1.
Chesney, Gen. Sir George. Indian Polity: A View of the System of Administration in India. 3d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.
Cornwell, W. C. The Currency and the Banking Law of the Dominion of Canada. Putnams. 75 cents.
Corson, Prof. Hiram. The Aims of Literary Study. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Cowan, Prof. Henry. Landmarks of Church History to the Reformation. London: A. & C. Black; New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 30 cents.
Crockett, S. R. The Stickit Minister. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Croquet, C. P. du. La Conversation des Enfants. W. R. Jenkins. 75 cents.
Crawford, F. M. The Ralstons. 2 vols. Macmillan. $2.
Cunningham, Prof W., and McArthur, Ellen A. Outlines of English Industrial History. Macmillan. $1.50.
Dallas, Mary K. Biltry. Merriam Co.
D'Alviella, Count Goblet. Emile de Laveleye: Sa Vie et son Œuvre. Paris: Félix Alcan.
Davis, Rev. J. D. A Sketch of the Life of Rev. Joseph Hardy Neesima. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Donisthorpe, Wordsworth. Law in a Free State. Macmillan. $2.
De Witt, D. M. The Judicial Murder of Mary E. Surratt. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.
Dickens, Charles. Little Dorrit. Macmillan. $1.
Douglas, Miss Amanda M. In Wild-Rose Time. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Evans, Mrs. Elizabeth E. Transplanted Manners: A Novel. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Furneaux, W. Butterflies and Moths (British). Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Garden and Forest, 1894. *Garden and Forest* Publishing Co.
Geikie, Prof. James. The Great Ice Age. Third edition, largely rewritten. Appletons. $7.50.
Gestefeld, Ursula N. The Leprosy of Miriam. Gestefeld Library and Publishing Co. $1.25.
Grant, Rev. G. M. Religions of the World in relation to Christianity. London: A. & C. Black; New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 30 cents.
Green, Anna K. The Doctor, his Wife and the Clock. Putnams. 50 cents.
Hazell's Annual for 1895. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Hinds, A. B. The Making of the England of Elizabeth. Macmillan. 90 cents.
Horne, C. F. Great Men and Famous Women. Illustrated. 2 vols. Selmar Hess.
Howell, George. A Handy-Book of the Labor Laws. 3d ed., revised. Macmillan. $1.50.
Howells, W. D. A Traveller from Altruria. Harpers. 50 cents.
Hyslop, Prof. J. H. The Elements of Logic, Theoretical and Practical. 2d ed. Scribners. $2.50.
Larned, Augusta. In Woods and Fields. Putnams. $1.
Larned, J. N. History for Ready Reference. Vol. IV. Nicæa to Tunis. Springfield, Mass.; C. A. Nichols Co.
Lear, Edward. Nonsense Songs and Stories. Ninth and revised edition. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.
Lee, C. H. A Vindication of Arthur Lee. Richmond, Va.: J. W. Randolph & Co.
Martin, G. H. The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System. Appletons. $1.50.
Mills, Rev. B. F. God's World, and Other Sermons. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Noire, Ludwig. On the Origin of Language and the Logos Theory. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 15 cents.
Paine, A. B. The Mystery of Evelin Delorme: A Hypnotic Story. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Parker, G. W. Elements of Astronomy. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Perl, Henry. Venezia. Illustrated. Scribners. $12.50.
Pendered, Mary L. Dust and Laurels: A Study in Nineteenth Century Womanhood. Appletons. $1.
Phelps, Prof. Austin, and Frink, Prof. H. A. Rhetoric, its Theory and Practice. Scribners. $1.25.
Poindexter, Charles. Captain John Smith and his Critics. Richmond, Va.: J. W. Randolph & Co. 50 cents.
Ricardo, David. First Six Chapters of the Principles of Political Economy and Taxation. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Saintsbury, George. Corrected Impressions: Essays on Victorian Writers. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Sardou, Victorien. Madame Sans-Gêne: An Historical Romance. Home Book Co.
Savage-Landor, A. H. Corea; or, Cho-Sen, the Land of the Morning Calm. Macmillan. $4.50.
Schlesinger, Prof. Ludwig. Handbuch der Theorie der Linearen Differentialgleichungen. Erster Band. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Seyffert, Dr. Oskar. A Dictionary of Classical Antiquities. 3d ed. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Sharp, William. Vistas. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
Shoemaker, M. M. Trans-Caspia: The Sealed Provinces of the Czar. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.50.
Sigwart, Prof. Christoph. Logic. 2 vols. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $5.50.
Skeat, Prof. W. W. The Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer. Vol. VI. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan. $4.
Slingo, W., and Brooker, A. Electrical Engineering. New and revised ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Smith, Adam. Select Chapters and Passages from the Wealth of Nations. Macmillan. 75 cents.
St. Andrews and Elsewhere. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Stedman, E. C., and Woodberry, G. E. The Works of Edgar Allan Poe. Vols. I.—III. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
Stevens, C. E. Sources of the Constitution of the United States. Second edition, revised and enlarged. Macmillan. $2.
Stockton, J. P., Jr. Zaphra: A Story of To-Day. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.
The Best Plays of the Old Dramatists: Ben Jonson. Vol. II. London: Unwin; New York: Scribners. $2.
The Bookworm: An Illustrated Treasury of Old-Time Literature. Vol. 7. London: Elliot Stock; New York: Armstrong. $3.
The Critic. July—December, 1894. *The Critic* Co.
The Duties of Servants. By a Member of the Aristocracy. Frederick Warne & Co. 60 cents.
Thiers, L. A. History of the French Revolution. Vols. iii., iv., v. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Trotter, Prof. Spencer. Lessons in the New Geography. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.
Warren, Walter. Cecil the Seer. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Watertown Records. Comprising the First and Second Books of Town Proceedings, etc. Watertown, Mass.: F. G. Barker.
Wilkes, Clement. Sidney Forrester. H. W. Hageman. 50 cents.
Williams, Hamilton. Britain's Naval Power. Macmillan. $1.50.
Wise, T. J. Spenser's Faerie Queene, Part II. Illustrated by Walter Crane. London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Wislicenus, Prof. W. F. Astronomische Chronologie: Ein Hülfsbuch für Historiker, Archäologen und Astronomen. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Waiting at Table. By a Member of the Aristocracy. Frederick Warne & Co. 60 cents.
Wolff, H. W. Odd Bits of History. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.75.
Wright, Rev. John. Early Bibles of America. 3d ed., revised and enlarged. Whittaker. $3.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 14, 1895.

The Week.

THE defeat of the Springer bill in the House by twenty-seven majority was not entirely unexpected. That its defeat was due in part to the ill-timed efforts of ex-Speaker Reed to introduce a little politics in the national finances seems to be clear. If Mr. Reed had given a hearty support to the bill, it cannot be doubted that he would have carried at least fourteen Republican votes which were cast in the negative, and this change would have saved the bill. The main point to secure was the provision making the bonds payable in gold. That the House was really in favor of this was shown by the vote on the proposed amendment of Mr. Bell to add the words "or silver," so that the bonds should be paid in either silver or gold. This was a crucial test, and the House voted it down by a decisive majority. But after this proof had been given of the sanity of the House the bill was killed by politics, and for this Mr. Reed is largely responsible. The Reed substitute would have been the next best thing after the defeat of the Springer bill, but the vote had to be taken on the substitute first. Of course the friends of the Springer bill could not vote to kill their own measure in advance by adopting the substitute. The Democrats as a party will have to take the penalty of non-action in the financial crisis, which the President so impressively brought to their attention, but there are many Republican members who ought to be severely dealt with, because better things are expected from them than from the Democrats. If they had taken the high position that they took on the Sherman repeal bill, the Springer bill would have been passed by a decisive majority.

The President's communication to Congress on the subject of the $65,000,000 gold loan leaves very little to be said in the way of comment. It is all embraced in the fact that the lenders of the money ask 3 per cent. interest if the loan is made payable specifically in gold, but otherwise 3¾ per cent. It is very easy to say that all Government bonds have been paid in gold, and therefore all of them will be so paid, whether that word is used in the law or not. The lenders think that there is some risk, and they measure it by ¾ of one per cent. They are one of the parties to a bargain and the Government is another. The two meet on an equal footing. If the Government prefers to pay $16,000,000 more than is necessary for the use of the money rather than pronounce the word "gold," it is at liberty to do so, of course, but the spectacle will be the most humiliating, in a financial sense, that the world ever saw. Even the foolish State of Idaho knows better than this. So also does Arizona. This is a case where all the members of the community are individually sane but collectively mad. Each one knows how to carry on his private business, but is *non-compos* as regards the public business. The chances are, however, that the House, when brought face to face with the gold clause unencumbered with any other question, will adopt it by a good majority. What may be done by a Senate as incapable as the present one, no man can predict.

The President says that he has made this loan in pursuance of section 3700 of the revised statutes, which reads as follows:

> "The secretary of the treasury may purchase coin with any of the bonds or notes of the United States authorized by law, at such rates and upon such terms as he may deem most advantageous to the public interest."

This law was first enacted in 1862, being a part of the war measures of that period, but, having been reënacted in 1874 as a part of the revised statutes, it has received the stamp of permanence. Its existence appears to have been overlooked until now. It supplies any defect, if there were any before, in the chain of title by which these bonds and the previous ones have been issued. The discovery of these latent powers, or something else, has produced a remarkable "flop" in the editorial department of the *Sun*, which now applauds President Cleveland to the skies for his masterly handling of the national finances. Even the *Tribune*, which has been a harder case than the *Sun* during the late troubles, is now moved to say:

> "The President announces a new loan; and although the rate of interest is higher than was expected, he is entitled to much praise for having thus protected the national honor, at this or any other price. He had to deal with a Congress which, as its votes proved, was inclined to prefer national bankruptcy. That disaster, at least, the President has averted, and if an impartial criticism must attribute to him a large share of the danger, it must also give him without stint the credit for averting it. He most unwisely involved the country, but he has honorably adopted the only method of relief."

The horror and dismay of the New England Senators at the news that the Hawaiian Government is taking itself so seriously as to condemn revolutionists against it to death, are partly comic, partly pathetic. They exploded so violently over the barbarity and heathenism of the Queen, when she talked of having the heads of some traitors, that to find the heroic missionary republic following her wicked example leaves them in a ridiculous plight. Yet they make it plain that their chief concern is neither humanity nor self-consistency, but a fear that all their fine annexation plans may be upset. Senator Hale did not conceal his distress over the prospect that "the almost universal sentiment of the American people in favor of the existing Government in Hawaii" would take a dangerous turn if the Missionaries' Sons took to hanging Americans. The Jingoes have evidently never regarded the Hawaiian Government as a real government. It was a good-enough stopgap, a simulacrum of government, to last till they got their hands on the country. But they have talked so nobly about the pure republicanism and devotion of the self-perpetuating oligarchy now in power in the islands, have raged with such a show of deadly fury against the royalists, that the Missionaries' Sons came to think they couldn't better fire the American Jingo heart than by dealing out death to royalist traitors. The poor fellows never dreamed that they would be upsetting the whole kettle of fish.

If such cases of illegal arrest and arbitrary imprisonment and secret deportation as have been going on in Hawaii had occurred under a royalist government, we should have known what adjectives to apply to them. If an attorney-general serving under a miserable queen had gone into the prison where his victims were and sworn at them profusely, we should have taken it as a matter of course; but what shall we say when the chief prosecutor of a missionary republic falls to swearing like a pirate? These things are a sore affliction to the patriots at Washington, and they know not what to say except that Cleveland and Gresham have a terrible responsibility to bear for this business. The Hartford *Post* severely rebukes the Administration for the "ridiculous haste and eagerness to lay before Congress information which is likely to reflect upon the humane character of the Provisional Government." It does look like an affront, we must admit. The true course would have been to suppress Willis's despatches and deny the accuracy of the press news. That would have given the patriots time to turn round. As it is, they are comfortless, since England continues in brutal indifference to all that goes on in Hawaii. An inquiry at the Foreign Office on Saturday as to what would be done about the Englishman sentenced to death in Honolulu, brought the answer that nothing would be done. Not a ship sent, gun fired, or flag hoisted! How long will Americans endure these repeated insults?

The precious Senate rules were delightfully in evidence on Saturday. All the parliamentarians were agreed that Senate rule

xvi. was absolutely fatal to the incorporation of the Hawaiian cable amendment in the consular and diplomatic bill. But Senator Manderson cynically said that the "principal merit of the rules is that we can so quickly get rid of them when we desire," and so the Vice-President obligingly put it to the Senate whether the amendment was in order. It was voted, 36 to 25, that it was, and away went the rules. But they came back a moment later in full dignity. Senator Lodge proposed his consular-reform bill as an amendment to the same act. This certainly appeared as "germane" to a consular and diplomatic bill as a $3,000,000 cable line. But no, it was "new legislation," and a chorus of voices called for its rigid exclusion. The rules revived and the Lodge bill died.

Senator Hawley and others having referred in terms of extravagant praise to Senator Morgan's "luminous and wonderful" speech on the cable amendment, we turned with aroused anticipations to Saturday's *Congressional Record*, where the speech was printed in full. We agree with Senator Hawley that it was wonderful. It was even fearful and wonderful. Never were such moving truths uttered about "the focal point of the sea-power of the Pacific," never was more eloquently set forth the infernal power of Britain, not only "to dictate a gold policy to President Cleveland and our Government," but to deceive the very elect in America. The Alabama Senator is not fooled, however. He sees through the tricks and twists of British diplomacy. The other Jingoes, even the Jingo editors, have confessed, by their dead silence, that they were baffled by England's giving up her Mosquito protectorate. But Morgan sees through it unerringly. It means, he says, that "they have abandoned all hope and expectation of getting control of the transit through the Isthmus of Darien for a ship canal," and are starting "a quiet movement" for a Hawaiian cable "which will give them, largely, the control of the Pacific Ocean." Of course, if a cable will give control of the Pacific Ocean, it is cheap at $3,000,000, or $30,000,000, and no wonder the Senate voted to build it, after this luminous and wonderful demonstration, rules or no rules.

The Senate debate on the Hawaiian cable will go far towards restoring the reputation of that body for logic and statesmanship. No one can read it without gaining a wholly new view of the functions and possibilities of an ocean cable. Captain Mahan will have to revise his next edition, and explain, with the Republican Senators, how a cable, if only one end of it is on American soil, can make entirely nugatory the biggest fleet the British can collect anywhere along its line or at the other end. We must say, however, that Senator Palmer took unfair advantage of Senator Morgan in asking him, the chairman of the committee on foreign relations, by what cable lines despatches were now sent to our fleet in Chinese waters. Mr. Morgan said he did not know, thus delicately implying that state secrets could not be given away like that. Senator Sherman took occasion to deal a blow at England, wiping out on his bare assertion her cable connection with Australia, which, he said, did not exist. But, of course, men whose heads are full of war and naval strategy and annexing islands, and being great and glorious, cannot be expected to know the wretched details of the location of submarine telegraph lines.

It is an interesting fact that there are no States whose bankers cling more firmly to the gold standard than those which send to the Senate and House silver Senators and Representatives. Congressman Bryan of Nebraska has always been one of the loudest advocates of free coinage, but, during the recent financial flurry, the bankers of Omaha hoarded gold until they had nearly $3,000,000 of the metal locked up in their vaults. So, too, the bankers of Denver were among the worst gold misers in the country during the panic of 1893, when Senators Teller and Wolcott were sounding the praises of silver. It is not "Wall Street" or "the money power of the East" alone that clings to the money standard of the civilized world. Wherever there is an organization of business men whose commercial relations bring them into touch with the laws of trade, the financial lunatics and demagogues find a force resisting them which they cannot afford to disregard. Senator Vest of Missouri has already discovered that he made a bad blunder when he ridiculed the attitude of the trade organizations of his State in his recent speech.

Wherever the Populists secure control of a State on pledges of "reform," they proceed to outdo the old parties in extravagance and corruption. The new Populist-Republican Legislature in North Carolina, whose members were voluble on the stump last fall about the hordes of needless office-holders, began work by employing a much larger number of doorkeepers, laborers, and other attendants than was ever known before. Gov. Tillman's successor in South Carolina reports that nearly all the officials in charge of dispensaries in that State, under the new liquor law established by Tillman, are behind with their accounts, some of them in considerable sums. The Populist administration in Kansas went out in a cloud of scandals, its management of the benevolent institutions having been particularly disgraceful. The new Republican officials in Colorado found that a lot of furniture belonging to the State had been stolen by the Populists, and the Populist superintendent of education has been forced to confess to petty stealings by false entries in his expense account. Third parties have usually made a pretty bad showing for their brief existence, but we have never had anything to compare with the record of "the People's party" during the last four years.

The "dressed-stone law," passed by the last New York Legislature, is one of the most perfect specimens of Labor legislation seen in many a day. It requires that all stone of any description used in State or municipal works within this State shall be "worked, dressed, or carved on the grounds where such works are being carried on, or within the boundaries of the State, or within the boundaries of the municipality." The effect of this is to increase the cost of all public works using stone from 20 to 100 per cent. The cost of repaving Avenue A, it was discovered by the city authorities, would be increased $200,000 because of the requirement, and the work has been postponed in consequence. The rapid-transit commissioners say, if the law is not repealed it will be necessary for them to use brick instead of stone in constructing the proposed underground road. For some kinds of stone-cutting there are no facilities in the city, and special works would have to be established. Of course, the effect of the law is to increase the burdens of the laboring classes by increasing taxation, and at the same time there is not more but less work for the stone-cutters, for the enormously increased expense compels contractors to abandon a great deal of work which they would otherwise undertake. Yet in spite of all this it is very difficult to get support at Albany for a bill repealing the law. Fear of the Labor vote is so potent that nobody ventures to take up the case vigorously, and unless some powerful pressure is brought to bear upon the members, the absurd law will stand.

Col. Waring's replies to the questions and requests of the Drivers' and Hostlers' Union of his department were frank and to the point in all cases, but they were especially so in reference to two subjects of vital importance in the discipline of the street-cleaning force. The union asked him to do away with the "irresponsible spies" whom the former commissioner had employed, and Col. Waring replied that instead of abolishing this system he proposed to "extend it very largely," because "unfortunately there are many men among the drivers of ash-carts who cannot be trusted to do their duty, to keep out of liquor-saloons, or to take proper care of their horses." The union also asked him "to stamp out the merciless system of blackmail which is practised upon employees by superiors," and Col. Waring replied that he should do this "in the most relentless manner, remitting no effort to rid the service of every officer who has been guilty of the crime indicated." The employees ought to be satisfied with these

conditions. The spy system will serve to drive out of the service all the shirkers and incompetents, and the abolition of blackmail, which undoubtedly was almost universal under Brennan and Andrews, will give to every man on the force every penny that his own labor earns. Hardly a man of the old force was permitted to receive his full pay. Some of it was taken out by a boss, or a district leader, or some Tammany man with a "pull," before it reached his hand. If Col. Waring can stop this infamous but regular Tammany business, he will confer upon the laborers of his force a far greater boon than any other that they could ask.

A "symposium" on what is styled "the strife between labor and capital" appeared in last week's *Independent*, but the careful reader will not feel that he has gained much from its perusal. Bishop Huntington thinks that there should be a definite contract between the employer and the employed, and that "the contract should include a promise by both parties to abide by the award of a board of arbitration." But the Brooklyn strike has again illustrated the familiar fact that even a superior class of laborers, like the linemen, will not keep any of their promises. Brother Hollister of the New Lebanon Shakers has a great many partial remedies, among them a restriction of the rate of interest, prohibition of the liquor traffic, minority representation, and the issue by the Government of full legal-tender notes "sufficient to pay its debts"; but his "best and only complete remedy is for people to act from love of the neighbor, in lieu of supreme love to self." Bishop Newman thinks highly of profit-sharing for the laborer, but his "sympathies are not limited to the working classes," and go out to "the capitalist in his palace spending a sleepless night thinking how he can meet the obligations of the morrow"; and he comfortably concludes that the solution is not in trades-unions, arbitration, or legislation, "but in brotherly sympathy, common honesty, and to do as one would be done by." Rabbi Schlesinger of Chicago holds that "the coming solution of the social strife can be nothing else but religion," while the Rev. W. W. Fenn of the same city has great faith in boards of arbitration and conciliation. "The spirit of altruism," says a Baptist minister of Pittsfield, Mass.; "Establish the kingdom of heaven," says an Episcopal clergyman of Tacoma, Washington; "Arbitration is the simplest and most promising means," according to Cardinal Gibbons of Baltimore. President Eliot of Harvard makes the humiliating confession that he has little idea what the solution is going to be, but his impression is that "this strife, which has been developing for hundreds of years, will be removed only by gradual processes in operation through hundreds of years." Henry George humorously concludes the "symposium" by advertising his nostrum: "The only possible solution of what is called the social strife between capital and labor is the single tax."

The English ministry have opened Parliament with a very formidable programme, which will meet with obstinate resistance. Not to speak of home rule, their neglect of which has cost them the loss of the Parnellite votes, they are to disestablish the Welsh church, to "control" the liquor traffic, to abolish plural voting and to provide for the payment by the state of the expenses of elections, to unify the metropolis, and to arrange some mode of reinstating the evicted tenants in Ireland. The speech makes no mention of the reform of the Lords, but Lord Rosebery said a resolution on that subject would be introduced in the Commons by and by. It is safe to say that no part of this programme can be carried out, except the Irish evicted-tenants bill, on which both parties have agreed or nearly agreed. Every other bill will be certainly defeated in the Lords. The Welsh church fights with the English church at its back, and, in spite of Welsh fierceness, will make a desperate defence, and the plural vote has a powerful and yearly increasing number, even of "the philosophical Radicals," among its defenders. Property is more and more alarmed by numbers. All parties, however, will enjoy having election expenses paid by the Government. There was no mention of Irish home rule in the Queen's speech, but there will undoubtedly be much mention of it when Redmond settles down to work. On the whole, the thing which seems most likely is dissolution in the early spring, a Conservative triumph, the reception of Chamberlain into the Conservative fold with a seat in the cabinet and a peerage in the near by-and-by, and a strong Socialist programme to keep the masses quiet. In this field both parties are running a vigorous race, with the Conservatives slightly ahead.

We have more than once had occasion to point out a special advantage that Paris has to offer to the student of politics in having, within easy distance, so complete an exemplification of the delights of socialistic municipal government as is to be seen any day in the commune of St.-Denis. Just as the naturalist, or the animal-painter, may spend his mornings at the Jardin d'Acclimatation in the study of foxes or wolves, so the youthful publicist may go out to St.-Denis and watch the Socialists, uncaged and free as in a jungle, and so all the more fit to be observed. The present régime has lasted for three years. At the elections in 1892 the Republicans were so badly split into groups that they elected only eight members of the Municipal Council, while the Socialists won twenty-four seats, although they were in a minority. In order to demonstrate the fact that this was so, the Republican members of the Council, together with two repenting Socialists, resigned and sought reëlection, in the hope that, when the truth of the matter should appear, the Municipal Council would be dissolved by the prefecture of the Seine. They were reëlected by a large majority, resigned again and again, and were sent back each time by an ever-increasing number of votes. The prefecture of the Seine, however, has, so far, paid no attention to this demonstration of the electors, and the Municipal Council of St.-Denis remains undissolved, with the Socialists in full sway.

It has been, on the whole, a shade less grasping than Tammany—partly, perhaps, because there was less in sight to grasp—and it has indulged in priest-baiting, but otherwise its course has been of a sort to remind one of Tammany at every turn. Perhaps in some ways St.-Denis has surpassed the methods of the Wigwam. To seize upon the public charity fund, and distribute it secretly to individuals in order to promote strikes, was a fine touch. So also was the masterly management of the sinking-fund, which was muddled away completely, and the treasury emptied, so that a new loan of two millions of francs was required. But perhaps the very finest stroke of all was the instant resort to McKinley methods by the Council as soon as the public chest was empty. They began to double up the *octroi* all around. It is true that these taxes fell heaviest on the poor, as the councillors themselves admitted, but they fancied that, being indirect, they would not be felt.

The two big Chinese ironclads *Chen-Yuen* and *Ting-Yuen* have been sunk off Wei-Hai-Wei. These are the ships that escaped with little damage in the Yalu sea-fight, thereby giving so much comfort to Secretary Herbert. Wanting to build four such men-of-war himself, it was pleasant to point out, as he did in his annual report, that they had shown themselves invulnerable. He argued powerfully that it would never do to trust to cruisers, which might go to the bottom from a single shot. We must have some big fellows, like the Chinese ships, that could take a terrible pounding without harm. But the big fellows have now gone to join the little fellows at the bottom of the sea. Let no one imagine, however, that this affects the argument. What is the use, as Franklin said, of being a reasonable being if you cannot invent a reason for what you are bent on doing? That the Chinese battleships were not sunk in the Yalu fight was a convincing reason why we should have some like them. If anything were lacking to make the argument complete, it is now furnished by the sinking of the same ships. We are sure that we are only anticipating the logic of the forthcoming debate in the House on the proposition to build four new battle-ships, at $4,000,000 each.

THE OUTLOOK FOR SOUND MONEY.

THE silver-men had nothing to felicitate themselves upon in the voting on the Springer bill last Thursday, but they take great comfort in contemplating the Senate. A canvass of the voting strength of fiat money in that noble body was made and given out the week before, with the result that forty-eight Senators were for silver, or something equally bad, while but thirty-nine were for the money of the business and civilized world. With the changes in personnel since made and to be made, the preponderance of fifty-cent-dollar Senators will be even greater in the next Senate. We presume it is necessary to concede that a majority of ten to twelve can be reckoned upon as mulish opponents of sound financial legislation, even if not as reckless advocates of a depreciated currency. The silver-men are in great glee over this showing. They point back to the time when the repeal of the Sherman law was forced through the Senate by a majority of eleven, and assert that they are now stronger than they then were by at least twenty votes. These figures and claims cannot be disputed, yet the inference the silver-men make, namely, that this country is going to a silver basis, can be successfully disputed, and that by an analysis of the very voting strength which they boast of in the Senate.

According to the canvass made, which is no doubt reasonably accurate, the States, voting by their representatives in the Senate, stand as follows on the question of bonds and currency frankly payable in gold:

For.	Against.
Maine,	Alabama,
New Hampshire,	Arkansas,
Vermont,	California,
Massachusetts,	Colorado,
Connecticut,	Florida,
Rhode Island,	Georgia,
New York,	Idaho,
New Jersey,	Indiana,
Pennsylvania,	Kansas,
Delaware,	Missouri,
Maryland,	Mississippi,
Ohio,	Montana,
Michigan,	Nevada,
Illinois,	North Carolina,
Iowa,	North Dakota,
Minnesota,	South Carolina,
Wisconsin—17.	South Dakota,
	Tennessee,
	Virginia,
	Washington,
	Wyoming—21.

Six States—Kentucky, Louisiana, Nebraska, Oregon, Texas, and West Virginia—must be set down as doubtful, inasmuch as their Senators were, and doubtless will remain, divided, one for and one against.

This looks black enough, but we must not stop here. Further inquiries will show that the forces which ultimately make the laws and settle things in this country are enormously against the silverites and cheap-money men of all descriptions. Take the test of population. The seventeen States ready to go unequivocally and finally to the gold standard contain 34,415,000 inhabitants. In the twenty-one opposing States there are but 22,522,000. Now in the long run numbers count in this country. Preponderating numbers killed slavery, and will kill bad money. The majority rules, ultimately, even in the Senate. The Senate was once the stronghold of slavery just as it is now the stronghold of cheap money. What made the cheeks of Calhoun and Davis blanch, as they faced the future, was the swelling population of the free States. In that they saw the doom of slavery, and the 12,000,000 margin of population now in favor of honest money means, in like manner, the doom of a depreciated currency.

The test of wealth shows a preponderance still more striking in favor of sound currency. According to the census returns, the seventeen States which stand for a stable standard of value report capital of all kinds amounting to $5,065,000,000; the twenty-one opposing States return but $943,000,000. Can it be imagined that four-fifths of the property of any country would allow itself to be imperilled and cut in two in value at the demand of one-fifth? The thing is unthinkable. In fact, this great preponderating mass of property has already taken sure precautions against being caught in that way. Legislation may inconvenience and harass it, but cannot despoil it, as long as there are courts to enforce contracts. One of the cheering omens for the future is the fact that State after State in the West is learning the lesson that every blow they deliver at the security of property or the standard of value hurts them more than the hated capitalists they aim at. Whatever may be said about the weakened rights of property, it is still the strongest force in the political world. That it is so overpoweringly against degraded currency is pledge sufficient that the country will continue to be against it.

The political test, finally, is as encouraging to the friends of sound money as either of the others. The 17 States firm for the gold standard cast 223 electoral votes. The 21 others cast but 167, leaving 54 doubtful. Moreover, politically speaking, it is impossible to combine even those 167 electoral votes in any one party column, or for any one Presidential candidate. One-quarter of them is Republican, and may, in desperation, "flock by itself," as the silver Republicans threaten that it will, but cannot mix with the three-quarters Democratic. If the latter undertakes to absorb the Republican one-quarter, it will find itself whittled down to one-quarter or less. On the other hand, if the sound-money Republicanism of the East and North goes after the silver idols, it will lose the East and North in the act. What will it profit the Republican party to get the thirty-six electoral votes of the silver States, and lose as many in New York alone, to say nothing of the hundred or so that would be lost elsewhere? As the thing stands now, a sound-money President has a clear majority in the electoral college, and no other kind of a President can possibly get a majority in it. This is the strategic fact for the business world to tie to. It is also the fact for the Republican managers to tie to. Any alliance with the silver Republicans which means wavering for a hair's breadth on the money question, will be as fatal as an alliance with the Populists. The country, tried by every test, is for honest money, and any party that wants to carry the country must be for honest money.

THE CONGRESSIONAL REMEDY FOR RAILROAD STRIKES.

WE have now before us the bill pending in Congress for the regulation of the relations between railroad corporations and their employees. It is really a bill providing for voluntary arbitration, the award of which is to be binding in law. Its object is to prevent the interruption of the carrier business by labor strikes, like those of last summer. It begins by providing that the wages of all employees of railroads "shall be just and reasonable." But it contains no definition of "just and reasonable," although this definition is what the world is seeking everywhere with strong crying and tears. Clearly what is just and reasonable in a prosperous road would be unjust and unreasonable in a struggling or non-paying one. Moreover, the pay-roll of a railroad is so large a proportion of its operating expenses that its adjustment is one of the most important and difficult branches of railroad management. In fact, the man who can say what it ought to be, is the man who should manage the road. If the arbitrators could decide it, the railroad companies would certainly entice them away from the position of arbitrators by the offer of large salaries. The matter is of small importance, however, because the bill provides no sanction for the payment of such wages. It merely expresses a pious opinion on the part of Congress as to what the rate of wages ought to be, in which every rational person will agree. It is very like saying that every railroad manager should be a just and pure man.

After the award is made and has become binding by being filed in the clerk's office in the district court, if the employees do not like it, what is the remedy? Here comes the crucial point of all this railroad legislation. Railroad service, as every one knows, is continuous, needs to be prompt, accurate, and cheerful, and to be performed by willing, faithful men. On no service in the country does the safety of so much life and property depend. Well, how are these dissatisfied employees to be compelled to render such service? How are they to be restrained from evincing their dissatisfaction by assaulting "scabs," tearing up rails, destroying bridges, and burn-

ing freight-houses? Why, by a suit in equity for specific performance. They are expressly forbidden after the award to leave their employment by reason of such dissatisfaction without giving thirty days' notice. But if an employee gives thirty days' notice, he may go—subject, however, to pursuit by the company in a chancery suit. If the company should wish to get rid of him, it must not discharge him without thirty days' notice also, and should he, during the pendency of the arbitration, "unite in, aid, or abet strikes or boycotts" against the company, it is to have its action against him "on the case" for damages. What with the chancery suit for specific performance, and the "action on the case" for damages, the strikers would have reason to tremble in their boots. The provisions forbidding the companies to restrain employees from joining labor organizations we need not comment on. With the powers both of the Court of Chancery and of the common-law "action on the case" at their disposal, what need they care about labor combinations?

The original bill, as compounded by Mr. McGann and the "labor committee," contained a section providing that, whenever a railroad strike became of such magnitude as to obstruct or prevent the operation of the road, the attorney-general was to file a bill in the Circuit Court praying for the appointment of a receiver, who was to take possession of the property during the strike, and operate it for the benefit, the bill did not say of whom. The defendants in the suit were to be not only the corporation and employees engaged on strike, but "all known corporations, organizations, or individuals participating therein, or aiding or abetting them." When the bill was submitted to the chiefs of the railroad organizations, conductors, firemen, locomotive engineers, trainmen, and railroad telegraphers, they asked for the erasure of this section in the following most sensible language:

> "We object to the provisions of section 10 of the original bill in their entirety. We believe that it covers ground not contemplated by the preceding provisions of the bill. We believe it can be eliminated without affecting in any way the intent or effect of this proposed law. But we feel that it could easily be construed in such a way as to entirely defeat the object aimed at. We believe that it contemplates investing the representatives of the general Government with authority which is not consistent with the accepted understanding of the rights of property-owners or individual citizens. In short, we look upon it as a long step in the direction of Government paternalism, or eventual Government ownership of railways, or, to use a briefer and stronger term, state socialism, pure and simple."

So we see that members of Congress are actually ready to outrun the labor organizations in attacks on property and private rights for the satisfaction of a class which has never yet made known its grievances in a peaceable, orderly manner. Section 10 might well have been drawn by a boy at school, so much indifference does it display to the complication of public and private interests which in great commercial communities inevitably grow up around every service rendered to the public, whether by the state or by individuals.

This whole problem of railroad labor contains but two questions: One is, Can any corporation concede the right of an employee to stay indefinitely in its service on terms fixed by himself and his fellows? Is it possible to carry on any business on that basis?

The other is, Does the law owe protection to the thousands who are eager for the work which strikers abandon? On what principle can it be denied them?

It is obviously easy enough to negotiate and come to terms with a peaceable, reasonable man; nearly all the business of life is done through such negotiations. If, however, one of the parties in most negotiations were certain, if you differed with him, to hit you over the head, break your furniture, and try to set fire to your house, negotiation would cease, and civilization would perish, and mediæval barbarism would resume its sway. In this railroad matter, the roads are really struggling for civilization against large bands of barbarous men, into whose hands our legislators and officials are all the while trying to deliver us, and to prevent their learning the very first lesson of civilized life, which is that no dispute must be settled by violence.

THE HAWAIIAN NEWS.

The calm with which the Hawaiian news of the Queen's abdication was received both here and in Washington caused the public genuine surprise. We expected it to throw the whole missionary community into the violent agitation with which all previous intelligence from the island had been received. But the *Tribune* dismissed it in a small perfunctory paragraph, and Lodge, Frye, Boutelle & Company, far from expending any "dust and sweat" on it, passed it over in a sort of mournful silence. Yet, rightly considered, it was the most important "triumph of the Gospel" yet achieved in the lands of the heathen. In fifty years or thereabouts the missionaries have not only converted the natives to Christianity, and witnessed the reduction of their numbers by one-half, but their Sons, aided by other believers, have got hold of about two-thirds of the land of the island, and all the fertile portion of it. The folly of leaving the natives in possession of the Government, after the property had passed into the hands of foreigners, then became apparent to the humblest white Christian in the place, and it was determined to dethrone the Queen. It would have been difficult to dethrone her for want of title, or on account of her color—or on account of the poor quality of her government, considering the quality of that of some of our own States. So it was determined to dethrone her for unchastity and heathen practices. But to do this it was necessary that somebody should commit treason and expose himself to the loss of his head. So it was decided to get the United States minister to join in a righteous conspiracy to persuade the Queen that it was the United States that was deposing her, and to land sailors for that purpose. Accordingly she surrendered, and the Christians turned to Washington to get themselves annexed, taking care to get there before the Queen's people and secure this great triumph of righteousness before they arrived. They did not secure annexation, but they were successful in setting up a God-fearing, chaste, and self-sacrificing republic, in which every man was to have his vote and every child his school, and all money was to be made by the sale of Sunday books and newspapers.

After a few months of this happy and holy régime, which the wicked Cleveland and the blundering Gresham tried to upset by diabolical negligences, plots, and ignorances, some of the natives determined to commit treason by an armed rising against this good missionary-and-sugar Government. They failed, as wicked men are apt to fail, and all fell into the hands of the Christian police, after a brief residence in the extinct crater of a volcano. Of the atrocity of their offence we can hardly trust ourselves to speak. To employ heathen violence to overthrow what Christian violence and fraud have set up, is almost a crime against human nature. These misguided men are being tried by court-martial, and how good it is of the Sons of the Missionaries to try them even by court-martial, or to try them at all. Instant execution by their captors would have been too good for them. Why should they be tried when taken with arms in their hands? The one good reason for trying them that we see is, that the proper punishment of treason, which is decapitation, may be inflicted on them in the public square. We can recall no case in which treason has been committed under such circumstances of aggravation. A rising against any established government is an awful crime, but what shall we say of a rising against a government of good, wise, chaste men, who seek nothing through their rule except the elevation of the natives and the triumph of the true religion?

The Queen, however, has done worse than commit treason. Gladly would we pass over without comment her last outrage on the republic, but we have a duty to perform, and we will perform it. She knew well—she must have known—that in claiming the crown and pretending to consider herself wrongfully deposed, she was rendering the only service in her power to the men who, for her sake and that of her people, have set up a republic in their midst. As a centre of monarchical and especially British intrigue, as a person for conspirators to rally round and restore to the throne, she knew well how important she was not only to the republic and to the New York *Tribune* but to Lodge, Frye, Boutelle & Co., who are doing "the

work of the world" in Washington. Knowing this, however, she has formally, and in her prison, surrounded by cocoanut bombs, *abdicated*. She has signed away all claim to the throne in the most formal manner. She has left no one to furnish a centre for monarchical or British intrigues. There is now no one for the rebels to rally round. No wonder the news has created no excitement in Hawaiian circles in this country. It is too atrocious an offence for anything but silent sorrow. It justifies everything that the Missionaries have said of this wicked, wicked woman. A week ago we would have protested against her execution for treason. We would have said that although, by both human and divine law, she merited the fate of Charles I., yet, considering how much milder manners have become during the last two hundred years, considering the clemency of our own treatment of Jefferson Davis and other rebels, a plea should be entered for a gentler punishment—say for perpetual imprisonment, or banishment to a Populist State. But now we have not a word to say against her execution. Let her be beheaded, and her blood be on her own head.

We would we could stop here, but if we are not greatly mistaken, Dole—President Dole of the republic, our own Dole—is also a traitor. He is advocating the cession of Neckar Island to a British telegraph company for a station for an ocean cable, although he knows well that the British Government would fortify it and keep a garrison in it, and thus "dominate" the whole group of islands. Why does he do this? Alas! The answer to this reveals only too clearly the degeneracy of the times. What reason but one can there be for his conduct? What does Senator Lodge think it is? What does the ancient poet say about the influence of gold on human conduct? What do the British maintain the gold standard for? Need we go further into this painful subject?

WASHINGTON'S PURCHASE OF BRADDOCK'S FIELD.

NEW YORK, February 4, 1895.

IT has hardly attracted the notice of historians that Washington was the owner of "Braddock's Field," though it is mentioned in the schedule attached to his will:

"Great Meadows, 234 [acres], $6 [price per acre], $1,404 [value]. This land is valuable on account of its local situation and other properties. It affords an exceeding good stand on Braddock's Road from Fort Cumberland to Pittsburgh, and besides a fertile soil possesses a large quantity of natural meadow fit for the scythe.—It is distinguished by the appellation of the Great Meadows, where the first action with the French in the year 1754 was fought."

Ford ('Writings of Washington,' ii., p. 288) quotes a sentence from a letter of Capt. William Crawford to Washington, December 6, 1770, which says: "Agreeable to your desire, I have bought the Great Meadows from Mr. Harrison for thirty pistoles, to be paid to Mr. Jacob Hite." (This was Lawrence Harrison, whose son married a daughter of Crawford.) It appears, however, that there was a hitch in the transaction, for on April 15, 1771, Crawford writes to Washington:

"I received yours of March 11th, and am much surprised at Mr. Brooks' behavior in regard to that land. He never had the least claim or pretensions to the Meadows that I ever heard of. Mr. Harrison made use of the name of 'Wm. Brooks,' expecting that Wm. Brooks, his son-in-law, would do him the favor to give him an assignment at any time; but, as Mr. Harrison has got a permit, there was no occasion for an assignment, or for an order of survey; for any surveyor would have surveyed the land on the permit and returned it into the office, which would have been accepted, while any order of survey that he could have got would not do. Inclosed you have a bond from Mr. Harrison for settling the matter and making good the title. He says if you want it done, it shall be returned in your own name as soon as the survey is completed. He will settle all disputes in regard to it. There is one William Brooks here who has agreed to sign the bill of sale, which is sufficient; as any man of that name will do as well as he, he having no claim or right any more than any other man of that name. Mr. Harrison says it is all he can do at present. Anything more that is requested he will do if required; and if not, the bargain must be void, and he have his papers again; as he can sell it immediately to several people who will pay no regard to Brooks' claim—looking upon it as worth nothing." (Butterfield's 'Washington and Crawford Letters,' Cincinnati, 1877.)

On December 6, 1771, Washington wrote to Crawford: "As soon as the tract at the Great Meadows is enlarged, I should be glad to have the surveys returned to the office, and to get a plat of it to myself, as I am determined to take out a patent for it immediately."

The original deed of "William Brooks" is now in the collection of Mr. W. F. Havemeyer, New York. The following is a literal copy:

"Know all men by these Presents that I, William Brooks of Fredrick County in Virginia have Bargaind sold and maid over unto Colo George Washington of Fairfax County in Virginia a sartain Tract or Parsel of Land Lying and being in Bedford County in Pensilvania on Braddock's rood, and known by the name of they Great Medows whare Colo Washington had a batle with the french and Enduns in they year one thousand seven Hundred and fifty four and they same which was Located by Law Harrison in the Proprietors of Pensilvania office in the name of Wm. Brooks

for the Consideration of the sum of five shillings to me in hand by Colo George Washington the recpt wherof I do hereby Ackneledge and my self there with fully satisfied and do from me my heirs Executors Admrs and Esigns for Ever worrent and Defind the said Described Tract of Land unto the said Colo George Washington his heirs Executors Admrs and Esigns in Witness Wherof Do hereby set my hand and seal this 7th day of Octobr one thousand seven hundred and seventy-one.

"Test— William Brooks. *Seal.*"
Marcus Stephenson
R Orthington
Jno Stephenson.

The two Stephensons, witnesses, were half-brothers of Crawford. The assignment, so curiously combining good and bad spelling, is in a different handwriting from that of either of the witnesses, or of the signer, William Brooks. At first glance it looks as if Braddock's Field, where Washington built Fort Necessity, and from which he retreated in 1754, had been recaptured by stratagem seventeen years later. As Crawford was a justice of the peace in the county (Bedford) where the land lay, Washington might easily defer to him as to the questionable legality of the transaction. It looks, too, as if Harrison's son-in-law, William Brooks, finding his name used in the original claim (perhaps to escape creditors of Harrison), had resolved to get ahead of his father-in-law by insisting on his (nominal) claim. But the dates must be considered. Between Crawford's letter of April 15 and Washington's letter of December 6 enough time had elapsed, even allowing for the slowness of communication, for the son-in-law to recede from his useless claim. There being no further reference to either Brooks in subsequent correspondence, it may be that the signature is that of the bona-fide Brooks.

There is little doubt that it was partly a purchase of sentiment. Washington had visited the place with his friend Dr. Craik, October 13, 1770, and it may have been then that he lost a silver seal, with his initials in monogram, found there by Daniel Boone Logan in 1842, which was restored to the family, and is now in the State Library at Albany, New York.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

THE JAPANESE AND THE WAR.

TOKYO, January 12, 1895.

Now that China and Japan seem to be within measurable distance of peace, and to stand on better terms than at any time since the breaking out of hostilities, it is worth while reviewing some of the probable and actual results of the war upon the Japanese. What changes the war may produce upon the ultimate destinies of the East are at present impossible to foretell, but its influence upon the immediate temper of the Japanese people and upon the policy of the Government can be traced in many ways, and this influence must effect a permanent change in the country. Will the war prove a boon or a source of danger to this country, in spite of her victorious armies and navies?

In the first place Japan has scored a point in establishing, if not her sway, at least her methods of government, and, indeed, her civilization, in Corea. The whole programme of reform proposed by Count Inouye for the kingdom has perhaps more radical elements than Corea can learn to digest in a decade. There can be no doubt that the Coreans will benefit immensely if they accept these reforms and have sufficient capacity to carry them out. But it is more than likely that this whole programme, if it meets with success, will react upon the government of Japan. Count Inouye emphasizes the importance of establishing a responsible government in Corea; officials are to be held responsible for income and expenditure, and the heads of the ministries are to be answerable for the proper working of their departments. But it is not difficult to see that the popular parties in Japan will better the instruction, and use the same arguments against the Government in power in order to carry out their cherished scheme of government by party. As soon as Japan has once more quieted down, we may expect to see the old warfare between the Government and the popular parties break out in all its intensity.

Incidentally Japan has gained by the war what she has so long been struggling for, namely, the full recognition of foreign nations. Individually we may deplore the fact that she has gained her point by violence. But it is hardly fair for Western nations to point to Japan as the guilty party in this respect. In the most civilized countries of the West nothing better than war has been discovered to settle ultimately the disputes between nations, and success in the field of arms overrides all other forms of prestige. In the present struggle against China, Japan has obtained her full measure of eulogy, and even of adulation. Not twenty years of effort to promote commerce, industry, education, and justice have given her the standing among Western nations that

she has gained by the successful prosecution of a six months' campaign. There may be plenty of room for criticism in this state of things, but Japan, borrowing as she does her civilization from the West, can hardly be blamed if she borrows Western methods in their integrity.

The evil results of the war upon the country are not to be overlooked, and yet it is doubtful whether Japan has suffered more in this respect than any other nation would have under like circumstances. First and foremost we notice a tendency to brag and bluster in certain newspapers. One newspaper had it some time ago that Japan was the coming nation of the world, as the nations of Europe and America were already in their dotage. In another newspaper it was remarked that it was fortunate that Japan had attacked China rather than any European nation, as the latter must necessarily have yielded, like China, to the force of Japanese arms. Now and then the most silly and grandiose language is to be found regarding the future of the Japanese people, as though Japan had performed a miraculous feat in bringing China to terms. It is only fair, however, to point out that this is the talk of certain newspapers, presumably edited by very young men, and not the opinion of the more sober portion of the people or of the Government. The latter is fully aware what dangers beset the country, and how necessary it is at this crisis to exercise prudence and foresight.

In regard to the massacre at Port Arthur, little can be said to apologize for the conduct of the Japanese. It is indeed true that the Chinese treated all Japanese prisoners with every refinement of cruelty, and no one can blame the Japanese soldiers for the desire to take revenge upon their enemies on the day of the battle. But it is almost beyond dispute that the massacre was prolonged long after the feelings of the soldiers had cooled down and after Port Arthur was completely in the power of the Japanese. It is stated as an "open secret" that the massacre was perpetrated by the order of a particular general, whose name is given (Yamaji). Yet so far not a word has appeared in the Japanese press either in condemnation of or regret for the action. The great majority of the newspapers have adopted a defiant, we-are-no-worse-than-you tone, and have raked up passages in the annals of Western countries to show parallel instances. Other newspapers have still worse methods of defence. Says the *Jiyu* (*Radical*): "The Chinese refugees could easily procure garments to throw over their uniforms, thus instantly and easily transforming themselves into seemingly peaceful citizens. *Under these circumstances wholesale slaughter was necessarily the order of the day.*" The *Nichi-Nichi* (*Daily News*) ridicules the foreigners who find fault with the Japanese on this point. It calls them "mere imitators of Herbert Spencer, who lost his head in amazement at the immense number of killed and wounded in Napoleon's battles, and madly declaimed against the great European conqueror. War is by nature cruel. Circumstances must determine the number of lives lost." All this is rather melancholy reading in the light of the claims made by the Japanese previous to the attack on Port Arthur. Never were more definite orders issued not to injure the innocent or kill prisoners than those emanating from Marshal Oyama, who was in command. The massacre was perpetrated in the face of these orders, yet we find no one held answerable for disobedience, or a single sentence of disapproval in the press. If a guess could be hazarded at the real difficulty, it would be that the general responsible for the atrocity had acquired such popularity by his courage in various actions that his superior in command feared to stop him or censure him. The weakness of the present Government, too, is probably much greater than is suspected, and its only hope of success lies in following public sentiment as closely as possible.

The last point of importance is whether the present Government will conclude a peace on terms sufficiently generous to induce China to accept them. It is a vital point, not only to China, but to Japan herself, that the treaty should be concluded as soon as possible. I have already referred to the fact that the present Government of Japan has no political support whatever, but derives all its momentary strength from the circumstance that its war policy squares with the overwhelming sentiment of the country. There is still much bitter opposition to the Government, arising partly from the popular parties and partly from the extreme Satcho element, or, as it is commonly called, the military party. These two divisions represent the extreme tendencies in Japan to-day; and Count Ito's Government, which represents a conservative constitutionalism, is endeavoring to steer safely between the two extremes. The popular parties, however, who have no power in the Government outside of Parliament, where they are dominant, wish to establish party government at once, and are bitterly hostile to both Count Ito and the military party. The latter dominates the army and navy, and has but little regard for either the Constitution or the Parliament. Thus it becomes plain that if Count Ito makes a treaty that is not extremely favorable, he is sure to offend the military party, which then will probably succeed in overthrowing him, and ride to power on the tide of their recent military successes. On the contrary, should Count Ito not succeed in establishing peace, his position will gradually grow worse, as the military party will gain such power through the prolongation of the war that it can snap its fingers at his authority. Thus, whatever happens, whether peace is established or whether war continues, the present Government is but little likely to derive any advantage from either. Certainly Count Ito has won not a grain of gratitude from the country thus far through the war with China. All the gratitude has been lavished on the soldiers and individual leaders that have in some way distinguished themselves by courage or achievement.

From the point of view of Japan's general welfare it is of the greatest moment that peace should come quickly. At present Count Ito still commands the situation, and whatever he strongly and definitely recommends to the Emperor he can carry out. But let the war continue only six months longer, let the military party get control while war is still in progress, and it is hardly possible to foretell the consequences to Japan and to the entire East. All the European powers interested in the East might be drawn into the struggle, and then Count Ito would no longer have the restraining power which he now exercises. It is fortunate for Japan that she has so prudent a statesman at the helm. There can be no question of his sincere desire to put an end to the struggle as soon as possible. He sees the danger, to both himself and his country, of any further prolongation of the conflict; and while he will derive no particular credit from his successful conduct of the war, and may even become unpopular as soon as he concludes a treaty, yet any other course is fraught with even greater danger.

From these general outlines it will be seen that the war has not proved an unmixed blessing to Japan. Yet on the whole the benefits will probably outstrip the evils, and even to China the war may be a blessing in disguise. The utter corruption of the official class in China has been at last brought to light by her successive defeats as could have been possible in no other way. Like France under the Second Empire, China has been long suffering from internal dry-rot. It was the opinion, I believe, of Secretary Seward that "war is national discipline"; and if the present struggle should prove a goad to drive China out of her long lethargy, it would be an unexpected benefit not only to herself, but to the entire East.

G. D.

Correspondence.

A CLINCHER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Cleveland's last letter seems to me one of the finest things done by any President since Abraham Lincoln. In a quiet and dignified manner he informs Congress that he has negotiated a loan on the basis of three and three-quarters per cent. interest, but that he has reserved the right to substitute a three per cent. bond at par, provided Congress will make it payable expressly in *gold* coin, and that the difference saved to the Treasury thereby, to the maturity of the bond, would be upwards of sixteen millions of dollars.

Of course there is not the slightest prospect that Congress will do anything of the sort. That is clear enough from the voting on the 8th, when, in the words of a correspondent, "the propositions of Republicans, Democrats, and Populists, of gold-men, silver-men, and greenback-men, all went down in the general *débâcle*." Yet it does not follow that the President is a greater man even than the average Congressman. It merely means that he is one man, representing the nation and feeling his responsibility, while the House of Representatives consists of 356 men, representing 356 equal fractions of the nation, and feeling no responsibility to anybody except the private and party interests which have placed them where they are.

A confidential financial agent of the President taking a part, which from his position must have been a leading one, in the debate on Friday would have served as what in chemistry is called a "precipitate." One thing is certain, that till some such step is taken, Congress will never do anything of any kind for good.

G. B.

Boston, February 9, 1895.

FORTUNES IN LAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an editorial article in your issue of January 10, entitled "The Use of Great Fortunes," occurs this paragraph:

"But no income can come from large fortunes except through investment in some enterprise useful to the public, as is proved by the profits or interest; and the owner is apt to be a man skilful in finding out what the public wants, and therefore a good man to have control of large sums of money."

This remark, on the public advantage of frequent concentration of wealth in the hands of eminently successful men, is directed against a very prevalent and very important fallacy,

and it might, perhaps, have been given greater development, to the profit of many readers; but the form in which it appears, perhaps on account of the small space given to it, seems chargeable with error arising from the omission of a needed qualification.

In the interest of sound discussion, I would suggest that a very large exception to the general benefit arising from profitable investment of private fortunes is exhibited in the buying and holding of land. Leaving out all operations whereby bodies of real estate are brought to a better market by active enterprise, working through costly improvements, schemes of colonization or otherwise, we have still an enormous body of investment in which the money invested performs no public service, in which the investor's ability is exercised only in forecasting the probabilities of a rise in prices to which he does not propose to contribute. Only a reminder is needed of the great share which this sort of profit holds in the yearly increase of private fortunes in this country, and of the important modification hereby imposed on our view of the public beneficence of large private gains. It may be remarked, further, that this sort of investment is particularly hurtful through its direct interference with those active investments whose profits do indicate general advantage.

The answer to an inquiry about the source of a large fortune is apt to fall into two clauses. The first describes the useful activities by which ability first achieved success. The second gives the familiar explanation: "Then he invested in real estate." And too often the first success, earned by sound business service of the public, bears but a fractional ratio to the later gains, which have come from shrewdness so used as to benefit only the investor. And by the facility of the latter sort of profit a very great share of the most valuable business ability is diverted from useful activity, and so lost to the public.

The considerations here barely suggested must furnish a heavy item to the debit side of the account, when we undertake to sum up the beneficence of the present conditions of money-getting, and it seems to me important that advantages should be reckoned as nearly as possible at their real value, and drawbacks clearly acknowledged. E. S. THACHER.

NORDHOFF, CALIFORNIA, January 30, 1895.

[Interference with the use of land for business purposes is the only serious objection we see to the holding of large bodies of land for a rise. If it prevents better cultivation, or the erection of dwellings for producers, or of buildings for purposes of exchange or production, it is injurious. But how much of this is there? Very little, we are sure. As a rule, land enriches only the heirs of the original purchasers after having been held for long periods, and is sold for a price which does not cover interest, taxes, and assessments. Vastly more people in America are poor through holding land than rich through having held it. How capital is lost to the community through holding land for a rise, unless somebody wants it for productive purposes, we fail to see. And if anybody wants it for such purposes very badly, he almost always gets it, and the vendor is sure to put the money received for it into some profitable investment.—ED. NATION.]

WILLIAM AND MARY SIGNERS OF THE DECLARATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit a correction of Mr. Charles Forster Smith's letter on the subject of the "Influence of College-Bred Men," published in the *Nation* of January 31, 1895? He assigns to William and Mary College only three signers of the Declaration of Independence, viz., Thomas Jefferson, Carter Braxton, and George Wythe; whereas the college catalogue and Sanderson's Lives of the Signers call for five—Thomas Jefferson, Thomas Nelson, Benjamin Harrison, Carter Braxton, and George Wythe. But, in addition to this, William and Mary furnished the draughtsman of the paper, Thomas Jefferson, who surely was of more consequence than the large majority of the other signers.

It would seem from Mr. Smith's letter that William and Mary stood second or even third in the list of colleges affording a text for emphasizing the influence of college-bred men upon the origin of the Union. But she gave Peyton Randolph, first president of the Continental Congress; Thomas Jefferson, the draughtsman of the Declaration; Edmund Randolph, who proposed the first scheme of government for the Federal Convention in 1787; and John Tyler, who carried through the Virginia Legislature the first proposition calling the Annapolis Convention—the immediate predecessor of the celebrated convention at Philadelphia in 1787. One blast of Roderick Dhu's bugle-horn was "worth a thousand men"; and mere numbers can give no idea of the influence of a college.

Mr. Smith bases his deductions upon 'Appletons' Cyclopædia,' which does not mention that Nelson and Harrison were at William and Mary College. This was probably an oversight in the compilers of that work, but it may be said that the biographies of most Southern men in 'Appletons'' are open to objection. It may be also said, with truth, that thousands are omitted who are entitled to representation on the basis of the work. I do not blame the publishers for this, as their work is published in the North, and it was much easier for them to secure information of Northern men. Northern men of fourth or fifth-rate standing are noticed in 'Appletons',' while the South is fortunate to get representation as low as a third-rate person. I am sure there was nothing *intentional* in this.

I am truly yours, LYON G. TYLER.

WILLIAMSBURG, VA., February 6, 1895.

Notes.

ADDITIONAL announcements from Macmillan & Co. are 'The Paintings of Venice,' by Karl Károly; 'The Politics of Aristotle,' a revised text, with commentary, by Prof. Franz Susemihl and R. D. Hicks; Philo's 'About the Contemplative Life,' a critical edition by F. C. Conybeare; 'Summer Studies of Birds and Books,' by William Warde Fowler; 'Structure and Life of Birds,' by F. W. Headley; and the entire series of "English Men of Letters," to be reissued in thirteen monthly volumes, containing each three lives.

Allyn & Bacon, Boston, have in press a new Latin Grammar, by Prof. Charles E. Bennett of Cornell University.

'Prose Dictation Exercises from the English Classics,' by James H. Penniman, is to be issued by D. C. Heath & Co.

Hunt & Eaton have nearly ready 'The Literature of Theology,' by Bishop J. F. Hurst.

Fleming H. Revell Co. will publish next week 'Municipal Reform Movements,' by Wm. Howe Tolman, secretary of the City Vigilance League, New York.

As each successive volume reaches us of Mr. Larned's most painstaking compilation, 'History for Ready Reference and Topical Reading' (Springfield, Mass.: Nichols), we are increasingly impressed with a sense of its usefulness not only to journalists and the frequenters of public libraries, but also, on occasion, to more serious students. The fourth volume, for instance (Nicæa to Tunis), which has just appeared, calls for commendation for the original documents which it contains; under "Papacy," the Encyclical and Syllabus of 1864, the Constitution of 1870 promulgating the dogma of infallibility, and the Italian law of the papal guarantees; under "Scotland," the Covenant of 1638. The work is certainly a good piece of book-making, very systematically and thoroughly done. Still, readers must not take too literally the promise on the title-page of "a complete system of history" "from the *best* historians, biographers, and specialists," "representing the *better* and newer literature." A large part of the contents is, perhaps of necessity, taken from second-rate books, which have the merit, for the editor, of getting over the ground rapidly.

In John G. Alger's 'Glimpses of the French Revolution' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) there are many scraps of information about particular episodes of the Revolution, which may serve to correct earlier writers on certain points of detail and to furnish diverting anecdotes for moments of leisure. The most interesting pages are those which describe the fate of various Englishmen to whose part in the Revolution Mr. Alger has devoted a previous work. For the serious student the book can have merely the value which comes from its hints upon minor questions, since the writer's statements of the results of his special researches are not substantiated by either foot-notes or references. Moreover, it exhibits a strange carelessness here and there, especially in the use of names. For example, "Dannou" is printed for Daunou, "Dussieux" for Dusaulx, "Dutart" for Dutard; and, still worse, "Dumouriez" for Lafayette, "Constituent" for Legislative Assembly. Basire is spoken of as a member of the Committee of Public Safety, and perhaps Moïse Bayle also, unless Committee of Public Safety is printed where the author intended Committee of General Security, which in one place he calls Committee of General Safety.

Few books have as curious a history as the Memoirs of La Révellière-Lépeaux, the Girondin statesman and Director, which have just been published in Paris. His family, like those of other prominent Revolutionary leaders, do not seem to have looked back with satisfaction upon his part in the struggle. Indeed, it has been observed that the men of the second and third generations in these families have been more frequently found on the Right than on the Left of French legislative assemblies. But La Révellière-Lépeaux left strict orders that his Memoirs should be printed, and authorized his son only to revise their form if he believed this to be necessary. The son scrupulously obeyed the letter of the parental decree, even refusing to alter in any respect the manuscript, and then locked up the whole edition. In 1879 it was said to be in a cellar at Angers. The manuscript, however, had been used by Thiers about 1827, when he was writing upon

the Directory, and by Lamartine in his 'History of the Girondins.' As soon as it was printed a copy was, in accordance with French law, deposited at the National Library, which made the Memoirs accessible to other investigators. In 1879 Jean Destrem printed in the *Revue Historique* copious extracts, especially about the Directory, which is the chief subject of the Memoirs.

A new attempt to explain some of the curious objects sculptured on the Assyrian monuments has been made by Dr. E. Bonamia, and the results of his investigations appear in 'The Flora of the Assyrian Monuments and its Outcomes' (Westminster: A. Constable & Co.). He gives drawings from the ancient slabs, on which he finds representations of the date-tree, the vine, the pomegranate, the fig, the banana, the melon, the pine tree, the reed, the lily, some daisy-like plant, and the baobab. Some of these identifications are old. Layard figured pomegranates and reeds, and spoke unhesitatingly of dates, apples, and bunches of grapes. The cone like object so often seen in the hands of attendants is still a mystery. Layard wrote, of one such object, that he "would not hesitate to identify it with the pineapple unless there were every reason to believe that the Assyrians were unacquainted with that fruit. The leaves sprouting from the top proved that it was not the cone of a pine-tree or fir." The pineapple theory cannot stand, for the highest authority (De Candolle) has decided that the plant is American. Dr. Bonamia reviews several theories, and then advances his own, that the cones were cedar-cones used as sprinklers for holy water. The later chapters of the book contain, among other things, a very ingenious theory of the evolution of the fleur-de-lis of architecture and heraldry. The symbol is not the flower of an iris at all; it is a pair of horns tied to a date-tree to keep off evil spirits—"luck-horns" the writer calls them. He argues very fairly that the cross-band or ligature of the accepted emblem represents nothing in the iris-blossom, while it is easily explicable as the fillet by which the horns were attached to the tree.

Neither the "literature" nor the "art" of the fourth number of the *Yellow Book* shows much change from No. 3. Mr. Aubrey Beardsley's mannikins are even longer drawn out as to body and more ophidian as to head than usual, and Mr. Sickert and Mr. Steer are even uncommonly uninteresting. Unless Mr. George Moore really looks like Mr. Sickert's portrait of him, he should have good cause of libel. Perhaps it would be better for the reputation of the contributors with the world at large if they altogether left off doing portraits of each other.

Since Poor Richard, Americans cannot be said to have shown a genius for almanac-making; for novelties and successes in that line we must still look abroad. One of the latest candidates for favor is the *Almanach Hachette*, "petite encyclopédie populaire de la vie pratique," now in its second year. This is in its way a real addition to handy books of reference, whether one wishes the Republican Calendar brought down to date, or would recall the relative proportion of European armaments (here graphically shown also by figures of infantry and cavalry drawn to scale according to the ratios of the respective nations), the words and music of the Delphian Hymn to Apollo, Guénon's mode of choosing a cow by the escutcheon, French systems of stenography, etc., etc. A section exhibiting railroad routes and fares from Paris to the neighboring large cities is but one of many which make this almanac recommendable to every tourist in France. The telephone system is mapped, and of maps, plans, and illustrations there are more than we can enumerate. Portraits of the distinguished dead and of living monarchs and other rulers are further portions of the feast for 1895. The typography is clear and handsome. Those who complain of the fine letter pay the *Almanach* a compliment, says the editor; they would fain make of it a reading-book! The edition we have been describing is the smaller of two.

We are tardy in recording the birth of a new supernaturalist monthly — the *Metaphysical Magazine*, "devoted to Occult, Philosophic, and Scientific Research," issued by the Metaphysical Publishing Company, No. 503 Fifth Avenue, New York. In the first article in the January number, Dr. Elliott Coues propounds, to account for the movements without human contact of his own sitting-room table, and other similar phenomena, "a telekinetic theory of levitation," as he calls it. This "theory" simply asserts that there is a force of levitation or repulsion between bodies, which is the converse of the force of gravitation or attraction, but which, unlike the latter, requires for its conveyance some "imponderable medium connected with mental activities." The other articles in the number are of the optimistic, pantheistic type; those by Dr. A. Wilder defending reincarnation, by W. J. Colville on "Mental Healing," by Mrs. A. M. Diaz on "Teaching Religion to Children," and by Mrs. Le Plongeon on "Occultism among the Mayas," being the most noteworthy. On the whole, one notes with pleasure the way in which what one may call extra-academic philosophy and extra-ecclesiastic religion gradually put on less and less eccentric forms. This magazine promises to be a great improvement in this way on its predecessors.

Mr. William S. Baker returns to his useful diary of Washington's movements in the January number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*. He now follows the General and President day by day after the Revolution to the close of his life. This tracing, coupled with Mr. Baker's 'Itinerary' for the Revolution, will constitute a great service to history worthily rendered. A fine photogravure after Stuart's head of Washington in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts is a frontispiece to this number of the magazine.

A Virginia witch turns up in the January issue of the *William and Mary College Quarterly*. Mr. Edward R. James prints the documents leading up to and in connection with the "Suite for Suspition of witchcraft brought by Luke Hill ag^{t} Grace Sherwood." This widow of James Sherwood had already brought action against "Hill & Uxor" for assault by Mrs. Hill. She was now ordered "to be Searched according to y^{e} compl^{t} by a Jury of women to decide y^{e} s^{d} Differr"—that is, for witch-marks—and the jury reported that they had "found Two things like titts wth Severall other Spotts." But just here the tale breaks off, to be continued.

M. Charles Barneaud begins, in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for January 15 (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.), a long article on "Jefferson and Education in Virginia," in the course of which he affirms that, as he writes, "there is no *haut enseignement* in the country of Jefferson and Washington [he means the United States, not Virginia]. . . . There is nothing that even approaches the conception of our Collège de France." M. Barneaud has, of course, availed himself of Dr. Herbert B. Adams's brochure on 'Thomas Jefferson and the University of Virginia,' in the United States Bureau of Education's series of "Contributions to American Educational History." We have, by the way, to record several additions to this series, relating the history of education in Rhode Island (by Wm. Howe Tolman), Connecticut (by Bernard C. Steiner), Delaware (by Lyman P. Powell), Tennessee (by Lucius Salisbury Merriam), and Iowa (by Prof. Leonard F. Parker). They are all more or less provided with illustrations, chiefly views; and in the Iowa monograph is given a facsimile of President Grant's address at Des Moines in 1875, from which it appears that his views on State-popular education were completely perverted in the newspaper reports of the day.

The editors of the *Zeitschrift für die gesamte Strafrechtswissenschaft*, in furtherance of the efforts made by that periodical to promote uniformity in criminal legislation, are publishing a "Sammlung Ausserdeutscher Strafgesetzbücher in Deutscher Uebersetzung," intended to supply low-priced text translations of the criminal laws of the world. The last number issued contains the penal code of Mexico: 'Das Mexikanische Strafgesetzbuch vom 7. Dezember, 1871' (Berlin: J. Guttentag, 1894). The anonymous translation is from the hand of Mr. Ernest Eisenmann, a German lawyer living in Paris, whose practical knowledge of Mexican jurisprudence one could wish had been drawn upon for annotations. The previous seven numbers of this useful series have brought to the aid of German students the penal codes of Holland, Italy, and Finland; the laws of Denmark, and of Sweden governing military punishments; the Norwegian legislation concerning jury trials, and the chapter of the laws of New York for 1881 relating to crimes.

The *Monthly Weather Review* for October last, just issued, contains a unique record of a tornado that passed over an observer's station in Little Rock, Ark., at 8:28 P. M. October 2, 1894. It cut off the upper story of an adjacent building and threw it on the observer's office, but fortunately the self-recording barometer was not injured, and its tracing shows a sudden fall and rise of pressure amounting to 0 38 inch at the time of the tornado's passage. No such record as this has ever before been made. As the tornado went on to the northeast, it passed over the city gas-works, and at once all the gas-lights in the city went out. Prof. Abbe, editor of the *Review*, points out that the record of rapid fall and rise of pressure on the barograph may be due to the action of a strong wind on the building, first somewhat exhausting the air by suction through the chimney, and then raising the pressure by bursting in the windows; if so, the record might not indicate the low pressure believed to exist in the centre of the tornado-whirl.

Prof. G. Hellmann of Berlin has undertaken, with the aid of the German Meteorological Society, to reprint, sometimes in facsimile, a number of old and rare meteorological works of special interest (Berlin: Asher & Co.). The numbers already issued are Reynman's 'Wetterbuechlein,' printed originally in 1510; Pascal's 'Récit de la grande expérience de l'équilibre des liqueurs,' 1648; Howard's 'On the Modifications of Clouds,' 1803. Each number is accompanied by an introduction by Hellmann. These curious reprints may be obtained at publisher's prices in this country from A. Lawrence Rotch, Blue Hill Observatory, Readville, Mass.

Prof. E. Reyer of Vienna has for several years been conducting a series of geological experiments, illustrating fractures, folds, erup-

tions, and so on, and some accounts of his results have been published. He now issues an explanation of his methods and apparatus, which must prove of much service to college teachers in geology and physical geography. He describes his experiments as inexpensive and simple. His essay is entitled 'Geologische und Geographische Experimente' (Leipzig: Engelmann).

The Icelandic geologist Th. Thorodssen, who was created an honorary doctor of philosophy last summer by the University of Copenhagen, has concluded his investigations of Iceland for this year. These studies, which were begun in 1880, will be completed in three years, when for the first time full and exact data concerning the geology of Iceland will be accessible. The results already obtained serve to correct many false impressions and to present facts hitherto undreamed of. The principal subject of inquiry was the Vatnajökul, the largest field of ice in Europe, which has now been investigated in all its parts. The territory adjoining the eastern corner of Vatnajökul, which has hitherto been practically unexplored. was found to contain a number of lakes, and several other changes on the map will have to be made. On the east coast forty-six new deposits of liparites and granophyres were discovered, and near Lón a previously unknown mass of gabbro of considerable extent. Dr. Thorodssen's investigations are confined to the summer months, partly on account of his engagement during the rest of the year as teacher at the Latin school in Reykjavik, partly by reason of climatic conditions.

Sun and Shade for January (N. Y. Photogravure Co.) is noticeable for the beginning of specimens of the company's chrome gelatine process. The number is given up to reproductions of Dutch paintings, and the first (a Holy Family by Van der Weyden) is in color.

Not altogether unknown to the public, yet not certainly procurable, have been photographic copies of a very remarkable daguerreotype of Daniel Webster, which, following the mode of designation of works by the old masters, we should denominate "Webster with the stove-pipe hat," though the high stock and the blue coat and brass buttons are also a part of the costume. The eyes are the great feature, and the weight of the whole face is eminently Websterian. The original is now owned by Mr. F. De B. Richards, also the possessor of an equally characteristic daguerreotype of Clay, whose oratorical mouth is more the man than the eyes. Mr. Richards has permitted Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, to make enlarged phototypes of both in permanent ink, and they take rank among the most desirable nature-likenesses of these eminent men.

—President Eliot's annual report opens with those Harvard obituaries which are models of pithy and apt characterization. His anticipatory obituary of football we have already cited; but both his moral and his physical objections would be much mitigated if the game were confined to Harvard men on their own grounds. Cheating and slugging and intentional disabling would disappear like magic. But we have yet to enlist President Eliot's support of the abolition of intercollegiate athletic contests —the true seat of the evils. Dean Briggs, by the way, reports that "last year the monstrous methods of training and coaching for football rendered the low academic records of our football-players less blameworthy than pitiable." Is there, or is there not, a relation between overblown athletics and the fact that gifts and bequests to Harvard are in disregard of the crying need of the library for a brand-new commodious building? Matters have now reached such a pass that President Eliot can only bespeak a general contribution on the part of the alumni. This is surely a paradoxical situation. Perhaps a more taking opening for princely endowment is in the direction of new affiliated colleges for men, united to the university by the same tie which now binds Radcliffe College. President Eliot is prepared to welcome such foundations, and apparently he is of one mind with Prof. Peirce in regard to the happy strengthening of the Graduate School by the admission of Radcliffe College graduates to it on the same footing as men, even to a (logical) claim on the special degree of Ph.D. He looks hopefully on the diminishing ratio of College to University students, as surrounding the former with "a large body of mature and earnest students who have a serious purpose in view," and whose influence will tend to eliminate from the College "inconsistent survivals," "trivialities and crudities," such as hazing, pure and simple or in that disguised form called society initiation (*alias* "running") which, Dean Briggs tells us, makes it "often almost impossible for a newly elected member" to study while it is going on, so protracted is it, and in such "selfish disregard of the novice's welfare."

—When, some two years ago, the first volume of Mr. Russell M. Garnier's 'History of the English Landed Interest' (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan) was noticed in these columns, it was necessary to point out the incompetence of the author for the task he had undertaken. Some of his readers expected that when he came down to more recent centuries, his practical experience as a land agent would make itself apparent, and would cast into the background his defects as a scholar. These hopes have hardly been realized by the second volume, devoted to the "Modern Period," which has since appeared. Scattered here and there, indeed, there are passages where we hear the voice of the man of agricultural affairs, accustomed to look at the rural situation from the landlord's point of view, but with a kindly tolerance for the rest of mankind. Moreover, Mr. Russell has turned over a great deal of the agricultural literature of the last three centuries, and he renders a useful account of several little-known pamphlets—although we are surprised to see how small a space he gives to William Marshall, the indefatigable critic of Arthur Young. But when, seduced by the interest of passages here and there, we set about reading a chapter right through, we soon become too much annoyed with the author's desultoriness and inconclusiveness to give him credit even for his industry. Those who know a good deal about the subject already will be able to pick out some excellent bits, but it would be folly to turn to a book like this rather than to the treatises we already possess from Caird, Léonce de Lavergne, and Prothero.

—In 1887 a work appeared from the pen of the Rev. H. W. Clarke entitled, 'The History of Tithes from Abraham to Queen Victoria.' This was rewritten, and was published as a new work in 1891, under the title 'A History of Tithes,' of which a second edition or reprint has recently appeared (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners). The book states clearly most of the disputed questions in connection with the history of tithes, and is a good repertory of the views of leading writers on the whole subject, from Selden to Lord Selborne. Our author's tone is very categorical and polemical, and he pretends to considerable originality; but, with all his ostentatious parade of learning, he leans less frequently upon the original sources than upon Selden, Kemble, Stubbs, and other modern authorities. He cites Ingulph without any intimation that the latter's chronicle is a worthless fabrication. He defines folcland as the national property, or the property of the community, ignoring Vinogradoff's recent demonstration that folcland is simply family land, held by folk-right, or what most writers call ethel. He frequently speaks of Charlemagne's kingdom of "France." The proof-reading of the book and the arrangement of material leave much to be desired. There are some surprisingly abrupt transitions to new subjects; for example, in chapter ix. the author suddenly branches off into a general account of the monks, without showing the connection of this topic with what precedes or follows it. His computation of the population of England at various periods before 1066, in the same chapter, is equally perplexing. Most of his general conclusions are, however, correct, and he exhibits much industry in the collection of facts; hence, with all its defects, the book will be found useful.

—We have a new and elaborate study of the vexed question of the Cabot landfall, in 'The Voyages of the Cabots,' by Dr. Dawson, the Queen's printer of Ottawa, a brochure reprinted from the current Transactions of the Royal Society of Canada. Off the headland known as Cape Breton is a small and barren island called Scatari. This, in Dr. Dawson's opinion, is the island of St. John which John Cabot found contiguous to his landfall, and the neighboring headland is the "prima tierra vista." It has been generally held by those who accept the evidence of the Cabot mappemonde that Cape North, at the extreme upper end of Cape Breton, was the landfall, because the legend above quoted seemed to be attached in the map to that particular point; and this with such scholars has made Prince Edward Island the St. John of Cabot. Dr. Dawson's view is that the legend refers to the island of Cape Breton and not to any particular headland of it, and that the southeastern cape and Scatari Island best answer the description. Cape Breton, in his judgment, would be the natural landfall of a vessel which had cleared Cape Race, and which steered westward by compass, in ignorance of the magnetic variation then existing. He contends, further, that the existing cartography of the region previous to Champlain made no account of Prince Edward Island, but did represent Cabot's St. John as lying seaward and not in the gulf. Dr. Dawson examines a large number of maps to prove this, beginning with La Cosa. He regrets not having seen the Santa Cruz map of 1542 preserved at Stockholm. He would have found that also to make a part of the evidence as he arranges it. He seems not to consider that Scatari Island is of insignificant size, compared with the prominent character which this seaward island assumes in the early maps. It is constant in position no otherwise than in being always towards the open sea.

—The Chino-Japanese war has been the fertile cause of a new bloom in the periodical literature of Japan. The semi-monthly mail brings us a bundle of brilliantly covered and illustrated magazines, handy manuals of history, and gayly colored and white-and-black broadside pictures of men, scenery, architecture,

and events in Korea and China. Besides several periodicals especially devoted to the war, there has appeared in Tokyo a magazine as large and handsome as either the *Century* or *Harper's*, though the illustrations come out of the acid bath instead of from the block of the wood-engraver. The *Sun*, of which Vol. I., No. 1, is before us, is a monthly review of politics, economics, science, literature, and art, of 200 pages, of which twelve are in English. In the list of its contributors shine stars of first magnitude in the world of Japanese letters. Its divisions are biography and history, geology, politics, law, literature, fiction, fine arts, economics, miscellaneous, etc. Among the contributions are three on "The Influence of the War" upon education, upon science, and upon literature. Another competent writer treats of the advantages and disadvantages of Chinese Ideographs Another discusses future policy toward China. Out of the sixteen signed articles by men who occupy the first grades of ability in their specialties, the most remarkable piece is that by Prof. Kumé, who recently incurred the displeasure of the Government by the application of the higher criticism to the Japanese sacred documents. He writes of "a great revolution in the world of letters," and it is hard to say which should be most admired, his logic, rhetoric, almost entirely new method of using the Japanese language, or his argument.

—Briefly stated, the latter is as follows: China was once to the world of Eastern Asia what Rome was to the Western World. Now that this great world has, in the eyes of the Japanese, fallen, even Japanese boys despise China, and the doctrines of Confucius are contemned and rejected by all. Yet at such a time as this there is great danger of going too far in such contempt, for, as Prof. Kumé argues, the truth is not destroyed when the country in which it grew is ruined. Christianity survived the fall of Jerusalem; Buddhism lived when the followers of Gautama were driven from India; Rome, though dead, persists in European jurisprudence and civilization. What lingering respect for China the Japanese had has been destroyed by recent military prowess. Hence the Japanese people are now apt to think that they are pure, humane, and fully civilized, as China never was; but this idea is pure conceit and must be purged out. One has only to compare Old Japan with New Japan to see that in reality Japanese power is a borrowed one, and that "we beat China because we adopted Western civilization." China, on the contrary, refused to improve or reform; the Chinese had no division of labor in intellectual matters, they mixed things prehistoric and fossilized in hopeless confusion with things modern, and they kept in the old ruts, making political procedure also to depend on privilege and bribery rather than on justice and right for all. On the contrary, the Japanese intelligently borrowed and applied Western forces and methods. What is necessary now is that Japanese educated men should study the secrets of the real difference between the modern Chinese and Japanese, and the cause of success, in order to learn wisdom and permanently profit by it, rather than to fill themselves with conceit by thoughtless boasting. The article is profoundly philosophical and thoroughly appreciative of the real facts, and is a hopeful sign that Japan will be wise in the use of her present power. The general tone and outlook of the article show that, by entering upon this war, Japan has irrevocably committed herself to progress.

—The medical faculty of the University of Paris opened its doors to women in 1868, but at first only a very few availed themselves of the privileges thus offered. In 1878 the number in attendance was 32; during the next ten years (1878–'88) it increased to 114, and is at present 183, of whom the great majority (167) are Russians. The remainder are Poles, Rumanians, Servians, Greeks, and Scotch, and only one German, who also bears a Scotch name—Gertrude Gordon—and to whom we are indebted for our information. Many of them, chiefly Russians, have been through the gymnasium; others have acquired a more or less thorough knowledge of literature, history, the natural sciences, and philology in such secondary schools as were accessible to them. As foreigners they must all be examined in Latin and Greek before admission, and be able to translate passages from the easier classical writers, Cæsar and Xenophon, at sight, and to analyze them grammatically. The courses of study are pursued conjointly with the young men, and this association, so far from producing a demoralizing effect, tends to elevate and refine both sexes. Miss Gordon declares that during an experience of three years in the clinique, the auditory, and the dissecting-room she has never observed that the presence of young ladies occasioned the slightest improper word or act on the part of their male colleagues. Most of the women who practise medicine in Paris are married. "Model wives and happy mothers, they nevertheless find time to devote to their profession." The professors and directors of the hospitals praise the conscientiousness and diligence of the women, and acknowledge them to be, both in general intelligence and in special knowledge, fully equal to the men. The latter also admit the truth of this statement, and assert that they ought to be even superior in these respects, since they are not compelled to waste their time in cafés and cabarets. It is still difficult for some of the older members of the faculty to reconcile themselves to the new state of things; and on one occasion, during an examination for a degree, the late Prof. Charcot exclaimed: "Mademoiselle, you are young and beautiful. Why did you not prefer to marry?" The candidate blushed, but declined to answer the question as irrelevant.

THIERS REDIVIVUS.—II.

History of the Consulate and the Empire of France under Napoleon. By L. A. Thiers. 12 vols. London: Chatto & Windus; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1894.

History of the French Revolution. By L. A. Thiers. 5 vols. London: Richard Bentley & Son; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1894.

THIERS the historian of the Revolution stood in the way of Thiers the historian of the Consulate and the Empire. In a speech delivered at Mâcon, Lamartine called the latter period "the counter-revolution of Glory." To champion at the same time the Revolution and the counter-revolution, without laying one's self open to the charge of inconsistency, is, however, somewhat difficult. "I am conscious of loving liberty and the glory of France as much as I did before." With this sentence Thiers bridged over the chasm between his two works. He had not himself, in fact, renounced his allegiance to the principles and ideas of the Revolution, nor did he want the people to do so. Very far from it. Still, the 'History of the Consulate and the Empire' was conceived as a political manifesto, which, while not intended to supplant that of his previous work, should be coupled with it. The ideas of the Revolution and the revolutionary policy of the heir of the Revolution were to be linked together, not to say joined in indissoluble wedlock. As "minister of the 1st of March" (1840), Thiers had put his shoulder with a will to the wheels of the chariot of "glory," which, with the exception of the little airing of Angoulême's easy victory over the Spanish Revolution, the campaigns in Algeria, and the battle of Navarino, had been allowed to rust. He had succeeded in getting up such an excitement that for a moment Europe was believed to be on the eve of a great war. Happily, Louis Philippe preferred safety to uncertain glory. The minister whose hobby it was to make Paris the strongest fortress in the realm, and whose night's rest was disturbed by dreams of the "natural" boundaries of France, had to go. Then it was that he set to instilling into the minds of the people as historian what he had preached as minister from the tribune of the Legislative Chamber. His success was great—much greater than he desired, as the future was to prove. His fellow-bourgeois had fought shy of engaging in military ventures, principally because these were too apt to affect their tills injuriously. But what harm could there be in reading of the wondrous deeds of the past? They had all been a reality so short a time ago that tens of thousands were still alive who had lived through all of them. To read of them involved no risk, and yet was eminently gratifying to the national egotism; for had it not the right to assume that the nation needed but the will to have a part at least of the miracles wrought by the fathers repeated by the sons? Well, every café in France could furnish every day in the year an object-lesson proving this reasoning to be dangerously fallacious. The habitual sipping of absinthe is not harmless, though one addicted to it will seldom, if ever, exhibit the grosser symptoms of intoxication. Physicians have declared that the alcoholism it is capable of producing is of a most malignant type, as being especially hard to cure. The 'History of the Consulate and the Empire' was a systematic effort to work the nation, in a similar manner, into a similar kind of moral alcoholism.

Still, if a poisonous drug, it contained also its own antidote—provided full credence can be given to Thiers as a witness testifying in his own behalf. We are assured in the preface mentioned in the first article, that he is animated by an irrepressible passion for uncompromising truth. Time is no object with him; no pains or trouble does he shun to get at the truth; he experiences "a kind of shame at the mere idea of stating an inaccurate fact." Fortunately, he never has occasion to blush for shame, for he has "seized and reproduced that absolute truth of facts themselves" revealed by authentic sources. If so, his philosophizing about the facts, however deceptive and insidious, could do no serious harm. But there is more than one way of being untruthful. A hundred ways are open to the historian to falsify the truth without uttering a single lie, and with some of these Thiers was very familiar—for instance, that of simply leaving untold what did not suit his purposes. If that could not be done because the facts were too notorious, there was the other way of disposing of them in as few and indifferent words as possible, while to whatever suited his purposes any amount of space was devoted, and the art of the fascinating writer exercised with the utmost care. The description of ceremonies fills

pages, but we are not told *how* Bonaparte became president of the Italian republic; Toussaint's terrible end in the Fort of Joux is passed over in silence, after the villanous treachery which led to his capture has been declared necessary dissimulation; and seven lines (iv, 205) suffice for the atrocious and absolutely purposeless murder of Palm. To guard still more against "this deplorable act" impressing itself upon the reader's mind, even the name of the unfortunate man is withheld from him. Two of the seven lines are, however, occupied in pretending that it was merely the application of "the severity of the military laws"—an assertion as unwarranted by the facts as if applied to the execution of the Duc d'Enghien.

As truth can be concealed by silence and a wrong perspective, so can it be falsified by the color of the light in which the facts are made to appear. By the master-stroke of substituting Providence for the fatality which had stood him in such good stead in the History of the Revolution, Thiers cleared the field of all obstacles in this respect. Bonaparte once set up as the man of Providence (i., 32), the author is at liberty to turn all contention against him into a conflict with Providence, and on the strength of that to quash every indictment that must be quashed if his general thesis is to stand. So far as the earlier years of Bonaparte's power are concerned, to arraign him smacks, indeed, of sacrilege. Only "some detractors have taken the liberty of saying" that "ambition" was his sole motive in "reëstablishing, on its ancient basis, the Catholic religion." We are asked to believe that the man who, in his earlier encounters with Rome, had called the cardinals "drivelling babblers," on the Nile tried to palm himself off as a good Mussulman, and in the Alps ordered a purposeless skirmish because his mistress wished to see some fighting, was now prompted by the desire "of supplying the moral want of souls." "Doubtless," remarks Thiers, "Napoleon is to be excused if he foresaw that an augmentation of power would reward the accomplishment of this good work" (ii., 121, 122). Yet he reports the First Consul as declaring:

> "Yes, doubtless, a Pope I must have. . . . With the French armies and some deference I shall always be sufficiently his master. When I shall raise up the altars again, when I shall protect the priests, when I shall feed them and treat them as ministers of religion deserve to be treated in every country, he will do what I shall ask of him, through the interest which he will have in the general tranquillity."

Besides, we have the direct testimony of Thiers to the fact that, when Napoleon was just beginning to make himself the man of Providence, he was open to other motives than that of "doing good in all things." "When in 1796 he went into Italy," we are told, "finding it in his interest (!), he protected the priests" (xii., 392).

In other particulars, Thiers's passion for "the absolute truth of facts" cannot stand examination. Every-day morality is wont to distinguish between fibs and lies. Our historian never stoops to lie, but he is far from being above fibs. His military figures abound with inaccuracies, which invariably redound to the glory of the French and their great captain. His later volumes are much less objectionable on this score. In them he speaks quite freely of the "exaggerations" of the bulletins; and in other and more important respects they compare very favorably with the earlier ones. He is still not, as he claims to be, strictly just to the adversaries of France, but he is markedly juster towards them than most of his French predecessors had been; his truthfulness has so much improved as to excite astonishment. Part of the self-contradictions with which the work is replete are due to this, and therefore reflect honor upon the writer. For instance, he first assures us that there was no "perfidy" on the part of France in the events at Bayonne and what led up to them, but that it was all the outcome of a concatenation of regrettable circumstances. When he afterwards comes to tell the story, however, he bluntly accuses Napoleon of "cynicism of ambition and lust of power"; nay, he charges the French policy with having been guilty of "fourberies." His doing so deserved all the more praise because he was the first to lay bare, by irrefutable documentary evidence, the whole atrocious plot in all its revolting details. The earlier volumes did comparatively little to enrich, deepen, and correct our historical knowledge; the later ones, however, really rank among the great historical works. They teem with new and valuable information derived principally from the correspondence of Napoleon, to which Thiers was the first to gain unrestricted access. This correspondence, and all the other sources which he was the first to utilize, have now been for many years common property, for which reason there was no call for the republication of the 'History of the Consulate and the Empire,' though in its time it was a long stride forward. Like the History of the Revolution, it is now out of date, and in many respects it was out of date even at the time it was published. If Thiers had been as truthful as an angel, he could not have got at the "absolute truth of facts" available in his day, simply because he attempted to extract it from French sources alone.* Not only where a rigorous cross-examination is required to elicit the truth, but also where merely the situation in the opposite camp must be known to gain a correct view of the field, Thiers often signally fails to portray correctly, because he lacks the necessary knowledge. Occasionally he betrays such gross ignorance that one can hardly trust one's eyes. Thus he names in the same breath Stein and Kotzebue as patriotic leaders (viii., 322), and (in this sentence) beside the great baron only the contemptible shallow writer of comedies.

The most remarkable thing in the growth of the historian Thiers is that it is, in the main, not gradual but sudden. He continues to grow after his frame of mind has undergone a change, but this change is abrupt. It is announced to the reader on the third page of the fifth volume in these words: "My reason, tempered by time, enlightened by experience, is well aware of all the dangers concealed beneath this immeasurable greatness" (July, 1807). The explanation of this is, that between this volume and the preceding one lay the Revolution of 1848 and part of what it was leading up to. The historian is getting purified by the hard lesson taught to the politician. The seed he more than any one else has sown broadcast by the creation and propagation of the Napoleonic legend, has sprung up only too luxuriously, and is fast ripening into a bitter crop. A new revolution, in which he has no part or parcel, has swept over the country. It has come without him; for him there has been no place in it; it has rushed over him; and its outcome—? Another Napoleon is making himself its heir, but that renders it all the bitterer for him, who had contributed perhaps more than any other man towards putting the crown on the head of Louis Philippe. For Napoleon Bonaparte had, in fact, never been his real idol; what he had indeed worshipped was the aggressive, conquering genius, the "glory" of France, whose incarnation Napoleon Bonaparte had happened to be. Was there any reason to expect that his nephew would become its second incarnation? Thiers had got more than he had bargained for, and that had a powerfully sobering effect upon him. But the intoxication was inborn, and therefore neither this nor anything else could effect a real cure.

"Let me be allowed a moment of enthusiasm for so many wonders, which did not last, but which might have lasted, and to relate them with an entire forgetfulness of the calamities which followed." That is the keynote to the later volumes. The political creed of one who, after nearly half a century, had still an irrepressible craving for enthusiasm in fixing his gaze on the summer of 1807, rested upon a slender and brittle moral foundation. That Napoleon's deeds were damnable, and that he was prompted to them by damnable motives, is not what constitutes in the eyes of Thiers primarily and principally the guilt of Napoleon: his real crime consists in overacting his part of the man of Providence so as to render impossible the perpetuation of what, in the opinion of Thiers, could have been consolidated and perpetuated. In other words, the true arraignment is not his ruthlessness, but that he allowed his ruthlessness to betray him into such blunders that France lost what might have been permanently secured to her of the spoils. His Napoleonic enthusiasm is now greatly tempered, but this inconsolable regret that the man of Providence took more than could be kept, and thereby precipitated the loss of everything, breaks forth again and again with undiminished force up to the last page. Therefore up to the last page we look in vain for *that* truthfulness which, at least with the historian of such times, can be found only where moral conceptions and convictions are not vitiated. Thiers relegates these to the second place. With him they are, and remain to the end, pages made to carry in due humility the train of the royal robe of Queen Glory. Only "the slanderers of his glory and of ours," "foreigners," or "parties associated with foreigners," raised hue and cry about Napoleon's spoliations and extortions and the use he made of the money for the benefit of his lieutenants. "These treasures were not taken from the people, but from emperors, kings, princes, convents, leagued against France ever since 1792." In spite of the sobering and purifying influences of the February Revolution, it costs Thiers nothing to pen these audacious sophisms (v., 79), and in the last pages of the last volume (xii., 393) he who has had the correspondence of Napoleon, with all its brazen avowals, before his eyes, still has the hardihood to write that the general, in his first campaign, laid "a discreet, just, and economical hand on the riches of Italy." Nor is he more thoroughly cured of his infatuation in regard to the grievances of French liberty against Napoleon. To hear him ask in the second volume (182)—speaking of the end of 1801—"Who would believe that, notwithstanding so much good, either already done or on the point of being done, an opposition, and a warm one too, could be raised?" cannot surprise us. Having noticed with satisfaction the new spirit which has gained a lodgment in his mind after the downfall of the July monarchy, we note, however, with dismay and some astonishment that he speaks in the fifth volume (86) of the nation's "having

*For the later volumes he did consult, or had others consult for him, part of the more important foreign publications.

on a day of fatigue relinquished to him [Napoleon] the trouble of willing, ordering, thinking for all," in a way strongly calculated to suggest the inference that he rather glories in it. But our astonishment vanishes long before we are through with the work. At the end of the last volume (xii., 394) we read that "the friends of liberty" unjustly "blame Napoleon for not having" given "a political constitution to the country," for, France not knowing her own mind as to what kind of government she wanted, he "could not be the legislator of France in a political sense."

Though sobered down and purified, yet only probe his mind and his heart deep enough and you will find that he is after all still the original Thiers, who in all sincerity professed to be a friend of liberty, but who prized above everything "glory"—glory, whether it was moral or immoral, whether it was a curse or a blessing to the world, whether it wrought the happiness or the ruin of his own country. Is that too harsh a judgment? The closing sentences of the preface, written on the 10th of October, 1855, read thus:

"I am convinced that in these later volumes will be recognized an historian who is an ardent admirer of the great Napoleon, the most ardent friend to France, who, while deploring that this remarkable man was so unfettered in action, even to his own destruction, is immensely grateful to him that he left us, in leaving us glory, that seed of heroes, that precious seed, which has sprung forth again in our land and given to us the conquerors of Sebastopol. Yes, even without him, our soldiers, his pupils, have been as great, as victorious, as they were of yore under him! May they ever be so, and may our armies, whatever be the government directing them, be ever triumphant! The best compensation for being of no account in one's country is to see that country taking the place in the world to which it is entitled."

What a terrible awakening, fifteen years later, from the delusion that from the seeds sown by the kind of glory he was "immensely grateful" for, a different crop would spring from that reaped by France in 1813 and 1815. Speaking of the summer of 1802, he writes (ii., 373):

"Nothing could be more judicious, more admirable, than the views of the First Consul at this happy epoch of his life. . . . While purposing to ally himself with Prussia, the First Consul concluded, with rare sagacity, that he ought not to make her so strong as to crush Austria, for then she would become, in her turn, the dangerous power, instead of being the useful ally, . . . that, to sacrifice at once to Prussia all the petty hereditary, ecclesiastical, republican States would be favoring the realization of that German unity more dangerous to the equilibrium of Europe, if it were ever accomplished, than the power of Austria had ever been."

Did Napoleon III. not act in 1870 upon this advice of the historian of Napoleon I.? All that Thiers had a right to reproach him with on this head was that he had not acted upon it sooner. Though Thiers, in 1870, opposed the war, because he justly doubted if France was at the time in a condition to wage it successfully, it was he upon whom a fearful share of the responsibility for it rested. And he was the last man who had a right to contest Germany's right to impose the cession of Alsace and Lorraine upon vanquished France. "Prussia and Austria had dragged Germany into an unjust war against the French Revolution, and they had been vanquished. France, by the right of victory, an incontestable right when the victorious power has been provoked, had conquered the left bank of the Rhine" (ii., 372). The man who went with Jules Favre to Versailles to treat with Bismarck, had penned these lines, and at the time they were published there was not a single Frenchman to protest against the doctrine laid down in them. Is there to-day a Frenchman bold enough to deny that in 1871 there would not have been a single Frenchman to protest against it if Bismarck had had to go to Thiers and Jules Favre to sue for peace?

MISS EDGEWORTH'S LETTERS.

The Life and Letters of Maria Edgeworth. Edited by Augustus J. C. Hare. Two volumes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

THOSE who are well read in the literary biography of the century will find but little that is new or strange in these two beautiful volumes, for the reason that a large collection of Miss Edgeworth's letters was privately printed, soon after her death, by her third stepmother and devoted friend. Long since, everything most significant in that collection found its way into this or that Life of Miss Edgeworth or some piece of contemporary biography. Mr. Hare's work has been one of selection mainly. His own contribution is a thread so slight that sometimes he seems to have forgotten his promise to give us the connection of events. There are many places where we crave additional information. A notable example is that of Miss Edgeworth's immediate guess that Scott was the author of 'Waverley': *Aut Scotus, aut Diabolus.* She writes a letter of elaborate criticism and commendation "To the author of 'Waverley.'" Every reader would like to know if it elicited any response. There is none given in Scott's letters of the time, but from Lockhart's 'Life of Scott' we learn that James Ballantyne answered the letter. No other letter received by Miss Edgeworth was such a feather in her cap, and Lockhart's Life is not so universally read and remembered that Mr. Hare should have disdained to mention it. "Positively this *is* equal to Miss Edgeworth" was, writes Ballantyne of Scott, the praise that gratified him most.

Mr. Hare's selection might have been much more exclusive without injury to the impression that he wished to make. Half as many details of domestic life and ordinary social intercourse would have given us a sufficiently clear idea of Miss Edgeworth's practical activities and the goodness of her heart. The lack of headaches and dyspepsia and other ailments is in happy contrast with some other biographies of distinguished persons. There is as little emphasis on others' illness as on her own. Given a predilection for pathology, it is terrible to think what an inundation of it we should have had, for her father was a much married man and had twenty-one children by his four wives. All these had their sisters and their cousins and their aunts, with such ills as the natural flesh is heir to, and a faithful catalogue of these would have been a burden greater than we could bear.

Mr. Edgeworth's marrying habit is notorious, but some few particulars may not be amiss. His first marriage was at Gretna Green, when he was an Oxford student, aged nineteen. Maria was the second child of this marriage, which proved unhappy. Heping to do better, immediately after the death of his first wife he married Honora Sneyd, who had rejected both Major André and Thomas Day, the author of 'Sandford and Merton,' a book suggested by Edgeworth. Miss Sneyd was one of the Lichfield set which numbered Dr. Erasmus Darwin and Anna Seward, "the Swan of Lichfield," among its celebrities. Mr. Edgeworth's unhappiness at home with his first wife "exposed him to the danger of being too happy elsewhere," and he applied the wisdom of those who fight and run away to those who love. He fled to France, and was shortly rewarded for his prudence by the death of his wife and the willingness of Miss Sneyd to be her successor. The happiness of this marriage instigated a third as immediately as the unhappiness of the first had instigated a second. It was with a sister of Honora Sneyd, in accordance with her advice—with the sister he cared for least; but this marriage proved extremely happy, and a fourth, equally precipitate, the happiest of all. So many marriages meant, as time went on, a household strangely mixed but singularly harmonious. Her father spurred Maria's intellectual activity, and had a hand in all her earlier works, aggravating, no doubt, the directness of their moral purpose. An upright man, he sought out many inventions of which the household conveniences bore ample evidence. Sometimes his guests were troubled by his patent locks, fearing they might lock themselves in and be forgotten—an event not unlikely in a family which sometimes numbered a full score and had as many guests. Cæsar's simultaneous dictation to several amanuenses was nothing to Miss Edgworth's writing her stories in the general sitting-room. She gauged the interest of her stories by their effect upon her younger brothers and sisters.

The narrowness of her range in fiction does not prepare us for the extent of her travels on the Continent and the breadth of her culture, which did not, however, extend to classical studies; for these her father's drastic theories of education had no place. We are assured that she was no politician, but seem to have here more a reflection of her biographer's sense of propriety than of her own. Certainly her allusions to political matters are frequent, and marked by an intelligence that we do not often find surpassed by the women of our own time. And it is a noticeable fact that 'The Absentee,' which Macaulay admired so much and compared at one point to the 'Odyssey,' was a document central to the misery of Irish politics and industry for many centuries. These volumes, in their least salient aspects, contain many things that will serve the historian of manners and opinions hereafter. The letters reflect, while at the same time they criticise, some of the follies of their time. Now that we are in the midst of a Napoleonic revival of much natural and some artificial vehemence, it is interesting to read a series of letters that bear the marks of the curiosity excited by Napoleon's name and fame during his entire career. They pick up many anecdotes concerning him, some of which are good enough to keep.

The friendships of the Edgeworths allied them with a set on which a splendid light is reflected back from Charles Darwin's life and work. It makes Maria seem extremely modern when we find her reading one of his books, but it was the 'Journal of a Voyage' (1839). She found it delightful. It is difficult for us to enter into her enthusiasm for the genius of Dr. Erasmus Darwin, but he was a faithful friend, and death found him in the act of writing the Edgeworths a letter. Josiah Wedgwood, whose daughter was Charles Darwin's mother, whose granddaughter was his wife, was another valued friend. Still another was Sir Humphry Davy, and on the list are the Herschels, Joanna Baillie, Mrs. Barbauld, Mrs.

Somerville, Malthus, Ricardo, and many others, the best the period could afford; and we have some account of them, always the kindliest possible, for, without being effusive, Miss Edgeworth was very liberal with her admiration and very loyal to her friends. Of these Scott was preëminent. Her visit to him and his to her were the two greatest events of her life, and nowhere does he shine more pleasantly than in the light of her admiring eyes. Of her acquaintances whom she could not call her friends, Mme. de Staël is the chief figure. It is a pity that Miss Edgeworth and Jane Austen never met. The index gives but one mention of the latter (p. 249), but there is a second, much more important (p. 260), criticising details of 'Northanger Abbey' as "quite outrageously out of drawing and out of nature," and praising 'Persuasion' with much ardor "except the tangled, useless histories of the family in the first fifty pages."

One naturally craves some mention of the rising generation of workers in the literary field, but what we get is very scant; not a word of Tennyson or Browning, though Miss Edgeworth lived in full possession of her faculties till 1849; not a word of Thackeray, though 'Vanity Fair' was written in 1846-'48. For Dickens there is only a sharp rebuke for his 'American Notes'; for Bulwer a sharper for his 'Eugene Aram,' while Macaulay is ill paid for his great admiration by a severe characterization of his essay on Warren Hastings in the *Edinburgh Review*. It is, however, on record that Miss Edgeworth enjoyed his 'History' very much. She was not unaware, in her own writings, of the besetting sin her father had so fondly nourished. Of 'Helen,' her last book, she says:

"It has always been my fault to let the moral I had in view appear too soon and too clearly, and I am not surprised that my old fault, notwithstanding some pains which I certainly *thought* I took to correct it, should still abide by me."

The financial success of her work is not obtruded—it is barely mentioned; but it was such as to enable her, when her brother became insolvent, to buy the estate and keep the family unbroken and the usual hospitality unspoiled. Several of those who enjoyed this hospitality wrote pleasantly about it, and Mr. Hare gives their reports—Mr. George Ticknor's as intelligent and dignified as we should expect. One publisher could not die in peace until he had arranged to give her ten or twelve hundred pounds more for one of her books than he had promised. Much lionized, she bore the infliction meekly, though she could not understand how Scott could "come out and stand on his hind legs so good-naturedly" when the lion hunters "rattled his chain." Quite different from notoriety was the subscription of Boston children who loved her books, for rice and flour to feed the starving Irish peasantry. No other tribute pleased her so much as that in her long life. It was a very happy one. "Old as I am," she wrote, "and imaginative as I am thought to be, I have really always found that the pleasures I have expected would be great, have actually been greater in the enjoyment than in the anticipation." An admirable temperament and the well-ordered and industrious habit of her life made such things possible.

The Life and Correspondence of William Buckland, D.D., F.R.S., sometime Dean of Westminster, twice President of the Geological Society, and first President of the British Association. By his daughter, Mrs. Gordon. D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp. xvi, 288. 1894.

ALL those who are interested in the history of geology, and many who are not concerned with that science, will welcome this memoir of Dr. Buckland. Coming as it does more than thirty years after his death, it might not unreasonably be supposed that a story so long delayed in the telling could well be left untold. It is easy, however, to see that on the contrary this delay has resulted in a decided gain by affording that element of perspective to the deeds of the man which is lacking in biographies that follow close upon the funeral.

Dean Buckland's career is especially noteworthy for the reason that he, next after William Smith, is to be regarded as the founder of British geology. To him, perhaps more than to any other of the early masters of the science, is to be ascribed the admirable spirit which has generally characterized the work of the geologists of Great Britain. Moreover, he was the first of the leaders who, by taste and opportunity, was from early youth led into this walk of learning: the others came to their work rather late in life. Born in Devon, a county abounding in fossil-bearing rocks, the son of a clergyman who, though blind, was intensely interested in natural history, Buckland naturally acquired the collector's habit which was thereafter to be the foundation of his eminent success as a naturalist. At Winchester School, and in due time at Corpus Christi College, Oxford, his development in the direction of geology was favored by the conditions of his environment. At the school he had about him the chalk, on many accounts a most attractive field; and at college Broderip and Kidd confirmed his tastes. At twenty-five he was a fellow of his college in holy orders, and in a fair way to the good fortune which led him through sundry livings to the Deanship of Westminster Abbey.

In a long service as geologist and clergyman, Buckland succeeded admirably in combining those very diverse functions; his easy success in a task which seems never to have cost him any endeavor is perhaps the best of the many proofs of his singular largeness of mind, and was in a measure due to his remarkable sense of humor. The part of his biography which deals with his term of service as professor of geology at Oxford abounds in rather grotesque fun—gambols in which the university don, his German fellow-workers, and the fossil creatures of other ages were curiously mingled. Mrs. Gordon has wisely put aside all notions of academic solemnity, and given us the funny doggerel and preposterous caricatures which were characteristic of the men and the period.

Although Dean Buckland, at the time of his death in 1856, was reckoned among the foremost geologists, as is shown by the fact that he was an honorary member of some sixty learned societies, the catalogue of his published works indicates that he was not a voluminous writer; in fact, the list of his titles exceeds that of his printed contributions to science. In the half-hundred papers and the three volumes of his independently published books, there is not much of permanent scientific value; nevertheless, there are few men who have left a more enduring impress on the science of geology. This impress proceeded largely from his qualities as a man—from his high-mindedness, his generosity, and his well-guided enthusiasm. His intense interest in vertebrate fossils led to the discovery of many of the most important reptilian remains; his studies of these, though never carried very far in the manner of the comparative anatomist, were set forth in his writings, and yet more in his lectures, in a way to attract the public. He was, indeed, the first great popularizer of science in his country. His place in the church did much to make the passage of geology through the trials of clerical disfavor comparatively easy.

Buckland's attitude towards the theory of a glacial period is interesting, and gives us a clear idea of his fine nature. When Agassiz first put forth his views, he found in the Oxford professor an energetic opponent. No sooner, however, had Buckland studied the facts exhibited in the northern part of Great Britain than he became a convert to the glacial hypothesis and the heartiest supporter of the new view. The notes of his relations to the great Swiss savant, though scanty, are among the most interesting features of this book. The most important, however, or at least the most visible result of Buckland's labors as a geologist, consists of his discovery of the fertilizing value of the so-called "coprolites." This led not only to a large production of artificial manures from test beds, but also laid the foundations of the modern mining industry in the earth phosphates. The work was simple, but its results to agriculture, already great, promise to be of vast importance in the time to come.

Although this memoir of Buckland is not well wrought out, is often discursive, and at many points needs revision by some one who is familiar with the geological part of the matter, it is a charming picture of a very notable man.

Ways and Works in India: Being an Account of the Public Works in that Country from the Earliest Times to the Present Day. By G. H. MacGeorge, M.I.C.E., late Officiating Consulting Engineer to the Government of India for Railways. Westminster: Archibald Constable & Co. 1894.

IN the early part of the century the charge was made that the Government of the East India Company could show nothing done in India for the permanent good of the country; it had simply plundered the wealth of an ancient people for its own profit, and, while preying on an ancient civilization, had given no return for what it had taken. The effects of the early work of the East India Company still remain in India, and the English rule of to-day is perhaps the most extraordinary government to be found anywhere in the world. It is an absolute despotism: in other words, it is a government in which the governed take no part. But this is not all; it is a government in which the rulers are separated from the governed by distinctions of caste and residence so great that the relation of the Government to the people is like that of the engine which drives a steamer to the passengers on board: the power of the machine is almighty, but, as every man considers himself superior to a steam engine, so every Hindu considers himself superior to his rulers.

The result of these conditions is very strange. In spite of the circumstances in which it originated and its early rapacity, there is probably no government in the world whose administration is more honestly conducted, or which is now doing more for the material good of the governed, than the present English Government of India. Even in early days it respected the religions of the native people, and it has never abused its position in the interests of sectarian or proselyting schemes. During the

last half-century it has done an immense amount of work to improve the physical condition of all India. In spite of all this, it is doubtful whether any government has ever existed towards which less loyalty was felt by its subjects.

The book before us gives an account, in rather a general way, of the various public works which have been executed in India under English direction. The author's work is not specially well done. In his preface he states that such a work can be of only limited interest to the ordinary English public, and of no interest whatever to the professional engineer; if this admission be taken as strictly true, it is hard to see why the book should have been written. While it would have been much more valuable, as well as more interesting, if written in a more systematic manner and with more regard to rhetorical effect, it will interest any one who watches, as every one should, the great changes which are now taking place in the world, and it is by no means without interest to the professional engineer. The first sixty pages are devoted to the Great Trigonometrical Survey of the country, the description of which is of rather an elementary character. The next forty pages treat of the Public or Dak Roads, which, before the construction of railroads, were of very great importance. The last ninety pages treat of Local Water Supply, the Telegraph, and Harbor Works. The two principal subjects, however, are Irrigation Works and Railways; these occupy more than 300 pages in the middle of the volume. The Indian irrigation system is a subject possessing no little interest, and the development which has taken place in the way of irrigation canals, both under the native rulers and under the English, is well worthy of study. The brief and popular account contained in this book does little more than indicate the magnitude of the subject and the careful attention which it has received; but it is a very interesting introduction to a study in greater detail. The climatic conditions of India are those of an extremely hot country with very great variations of rainfall, but the silt-bearing rivers of India have much in common with the silt-bearing rivers of North America, and the lessons of Indian irrigation should not be lost to the American irrigating engineer.

Much more space is devoted to railways than to any other one subject. The author has made the mistake of assuming too low an order of intelligence among his readers, and has devoted five chapters to explaining what a railroad is, beginning with the origin of railways in England, and ending with a description of a standard railroad track; it is hard to see what particular place this has in a book about India. There follow eight chapters which relate properly to the Indian railway system, and these are appropriate, interesting, and well worth reading, though a railroad in India does not differ very much from a railroad elsewhere, and the study of the Indian railway system is of more interest from a political and economical than from an engineering point of view. The special conditions which make the irrigation system interesting to study do not exist in the railroad system. Altogether the book contains a great deal of information, and is one which a visitor to the East would do well to take with him.

The Empire of the Tsars and the Russians. By Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu. Translated from the third French edition, with annotations, by Zénaïde A. Ragozin. Part II. The Institutions. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894.

TIME only confirms our conviction that in scope, intelligence, and execution M. Leroy-Beaulieu's book leaves little or nothing to be desired. If he occasionally falls into a slight error, the fact remains that to only one man in a century or more is it granted to understand and picture a foreign nation as the author has understood and pictured Russia—her government, mental, moral, and physical habits, institutions and religions. The changes and additions which the author has been obliged to make in order to bring the last edition up to date are more numerous and extensive than those required in the revised edition of Part I, already noticed by us. Of especial interest and importance is the description of the new and much-discussed institution of the "rural chiefs" (*zemskiye natchalniki*), which went into force in 1890, because at the root of the reform lay the failure of the local self-government from which such great results were confidently expected. The object of this local self-government was to train the communes, the cities, the provinces to take care of themselves. "An impartial observer," says M. Leroy-Beaulieu, "does not need the experience of a quarter of a century to discover how deceptive was the ambitious programme." He describes the village communes, in which alone the local self-government was really carried out, as "Liliputian ultra-democratic republics. Neither the townships of young America," he adds, "nor the *Landesgemeinden* of the old Swiss cantons could boast a more democratic constitution. The *muzhik* was king in his *mir*. As in all extreme democracies, it would sometimes happen that the commune would show itself both tyrannical and inclined to anarchy. There were complaints against abuse of power and complaints against lawlessness To remedy these evils the Emperor Alexander III. placed the communes under the control—one might better say 'tutelage'—of the new 'rural chiefs,' whom the law invests with functions at once administrative and judicial" These "rural chiefs" must, by law, belong to the nobility, must be appointed in a certain way, and are salaried state officials. They are judges who have swept the elective class of magistrates from the greater part of the em pire. As administrators they have charge of all that concerns the village commune, their police, even their financial affairs. "In short, the free Russian communes that Slavophils and democrats have raved over so, are declared legal minors under the control of guardians." The autonomy of the peasant communes, which was secured by the emancipation, the enforced isolation and deprivation of all influence or coöperation from the enlightened class, is thought to be the cause of the abuses in peasant administration, though the peasant has acquired two important aptitudes thereby: that of taking care of his own affairs, and of association.

In another addition to the original text, the author describes the curiously contradictory banks established in 1883 and 1885, namely: the rural bank, which lends money to the peasants below the market rates, to enable them to buy land, and the real-estate bank, established for the express purpose of lending to noble landowners on similar favorable terms, in order that need may not compel these nobles to alienate their land to the peasants! Another addition is a brief but sufficient comment on the new law of 1889, which allots salaries to the humble elected judges of the peasants' courts, who decide in questions of customary law.

We may deal with this translation more briefly than we did with the translation of Part I. It is not only good, but elegant. The translator appears to have heeded our advice to have her work revised by an American, and to have exercised more care in general. A little more care would have eliminated such blemishes as, for example, "*near on* three-fifths of the land tax"; "one of these zealots was saying [*disait*] to me," in place of *said*, in the usual defective Russian style; "incapable of taking up a protocol," instead of "drawing up," and so forth. Heedless omissions occasionally interfere with the sense. On page 6, for instance, the statement that "the power is left in the hands of the tribe or clan" does not indicate that it is a question of patriarchal government, as it would had it read "chief of the tribe," as in the original. It would have been better, on page 5, to retain the expression of the original, "male souls." Very few foreigners understand that "souls" in Russia are exclusively men, women never being reckoned in that way. Hence the omission of "male" is misleading.

The translator has also been more moderate in her addition of foot-notes to those which the author has provided than in Part I., and this is a distinct gain to the reader. On the other hand, what notes she does give are of value, almost without exception. Her appendix concerning the Artél, or Russian peasant guilds (the substance of information derived from a Cossack scientist of the Ural who came to America for the Chicago Exposition), is of particular interest. So is the note to p. 99, which explains and excuses the notorious practice of giving and taking bribes, with which Russian officials are always taunted. The public and individual complaint, she says, is never of officials "taking," but only of their "taking too much"; or of taking in cases where they should not take; or of their taking and then not doing what they promised to do and were paid for doing. M. Leroy-Beaulieu has already explained that officials are driven to take bribes by the inadequateness of their salaries. The translator adds that when an employee gives you information about your business or case, he is right in doing it, but is not bound to do it; therefore, why should he do it for nothing? If he hurries your case through out of its rightful order, it is at the cost of labor over hours, for which he is not otherwise remunerated. He is paid only for examining it in due turn.

The mere list of "Books," each containing from three to eight chapters, will suffice to show what a mine of information is this instalment of M. Leroy-Beaulieu's magnificent work: The Rural Commune and the Self-Government of the Peasants; Administration, Bureaucracy and Police; Local Self-Government; Provincial Assemblies and Urban Municipalities; Justice and the Judicial Reform; The Press and Censure; Revolutionary Agitation and Political Reforms.

New Light on the Bible and the Holy Land, being an account of some recent discoveries in the East. By Basil T. A. Evetts. Cassell Publishing Co. 8vo. Pp. xxiii, 469. Illustrated.

THE scope of this work is not precisely indicated by the title. The object of the author is to give an account of the origin of the science of Assyriology and its progress in recent years, and, incidentally, to point out where Biblical history and geography are elucidated by the cuneiform inscriptions. It ought to be said, also, that it does not represent the very latest

knowledge, since it is the reissue, with an undated title-page, of a work originally published in 1892. No reference seems to be made, for instance, to the results of the excavations at Niffer of the "Babylonian Exploration Fund" under the direction of Dr. Peters and Prof. Hilpricht of the University of Pennsylvania. It is, nevertheless, a valuable and suggestive book for the glimpses which it gives of the civilization and enlightenment that prevailed when man was in his infancy, as well as for the aid which it gives to the intelligent study of the Old Testament records.

The first of the two parts into which Mr. Evetts divides his work contains a brief account of the gradual identification of the sites of the great Mesopotamian cities during the past three centuries, and of the decipherment of the inscriptions. The story of the patience and ingenuity of the scholars who devoted themselves to this task, and whose remarkable success may almost be said to be due to two or three happy guesses, is somewhat dryly told, though it is not without a touch of romance. The description of the recent discoveries begins with those of M. de Sarzec in the mounds of Tello in the swampy region near the junction of the Tigris with the Euphrates. The buildings, sculptures, bronzes, and inscriptions found here are the products of a Chaldean civilization, "the beginnings of which belong to a period of culture probably exceeding in antiquity that of any other region." The interest in these monuments to the Biblical student lies in the fact that this is now generally believed to be the fatherland of the Hebrew race, the birthplace of Abraham. Some of the inscriptions are far older than the patriarch's time, and it is not impossible that there may yet be found contemporaneous records of the great Chaldean invasion of Syria narrated in the fourteenth chapter of Genesis, in which he took so prominent a part.

The author naturally gives considerable space to an account of the Tel el-Amarna tablets, "the most remarkable archæological discovery of the past few years." These are letters written in the cuneiform character and Babylonian language to an Egyptian king who reigned about fifteen centuries before the Christian era. A few are from allied or vassal kings of western Asia, but the most are from the native governors of Syrian and Canaanitish cities subject to Egypt. That the Babylonian language was a *lingua franca* in Egypt and Asia at this early date, and that in so many places there were scribes capable of writing the cuneiform characters, are facts as surprising as they are interesting. The correspondence shows that Syria and Canaan, in the century previous to that usually ascribed to the Israelitish conquest, were in a disorganized condition and about to throw off the Egyptian yoke. Terms are used, however, suggesting the possibility that Joshua's campaign was then in progress. Certain "Robbers" or "Marauders," who are the cause of frequent ineffectual appeals for aid by the royal governors, recall the Phœnician inscription at Tangier, mentioned by Procopius, which said that it had been made by men who had been driven out of Canaan by the "Robber," Joshua the son of Nun. The governor of Jerusalem reports that the king's land had been plundered by the Khabiri (Leaguers), a word which "might on philological grounds be conceived to be identical with the word Hebrew." Extracts are given from two of the letters of this Abdi-Khiba, in both of which he refers to the fact that "it was not my father or my mother who set me in this place, but it was the arm of the mighty king." But Mr. Evetts does not assert, as Prof. Sayce, apparently without sufficient reason, does in his recent book on 'The Higher Criticism,' that this man was a priest as well as ruler of Jerusalem; nor does he suggest that the words quoted throw any light on the mysterious personality of Melchizedek.

An interesting account is given of M. Dieulafoy's excavations at Susa, especially of the palace of Xerxes, who is now identified with the Ahasuerus of the Book of Esther. Other chapters describe the astrological and chronological records and legal deeds of the Babylonians. There is also a useful summary of earlier discoveries, as the Assyrian epics of the Creation and the Flood, the various allusions to the Assyrian campaigns in Syria and Palestine during the latter days of the Jewish monarchy, and the full identification of Tiglath-Pileser with Pul. The closing chapters give some account of the culture, religion, and language of Assyria and Babylonia.

Mr. Evetts occupies a conservative position in regard to the critical controversies of the present day, evidently (in this work at least) following the traditional method of interpreting the Biblical records where the "monuments" give no aid. The general impression left by his book is that the results of Assyriological research confirm the truth of the history narrated by the Old Testament writers in important particulars, and that we have every reason to expect, with further and more thorough explorations, a very great increase of this secular evidence to the truth of the Biblical history. It is to be greatly regretted, as seriously diminishing the value of a very useful book, that there is no index. There should have been two—a general one of subjects, and one of passages in the Bible referred to in the text, together with a condensed chronological table of Assyrian and Babylonian history.

Synnövé Solbakken. By Björnstjerne Björnson. Given in English by Julie Sutter. A new edition, with an Essay on the Writings of Björnson by Edmund Gosse. Macmillan. 1895.

For the first volume of this, a new English edition of Björnson's novels, the editor has appropriately chosen 'Synnöve Solbakken,' the first romance, though not the first story, and the real beginning for us, outside of Norway, of the author's literary career. The volume is noteworthy, too, in that it contains a long study of the writings of Björnson by Mr. Gosse. At the beginning of the book is an excellent late likeness of the author, "the most breezy and turbulent," says the editor, "the most agitated and agitating of modern men of letters."

The new translation is neither better nor worse than others that have preceded it; it is, however, not yet good enough. What we need in all the translations is more of Björnson and less of the translator. The very first sentence of the book will sufficiently illustrate the point. Word for word it reads: "In a large valley it may happen that there is a high spot, lying free on all sides, upon which the sun sheds its beams from the time it rises until it sets." Anderson's version says: "In a large valley it often happens that there is a high spot, open on every side, which the sun paints with his pencils from early dawn until twilight has faded away." The present edition has: "Amid the Norwegian valleys there are favored spots of lowlands rising into gentle eminence, lying open to the sunlight from the first of the ruddy dawn to the last beam gilding the west." There are instances of this sort innumerable, and while we do not necessarily demand a literal translation, it seems a pity either to read out of the text its original inherent simplicity, or, what is ultimately much the same thing, to read into it new refinements that have grown in quite a different soil. Even through the disturbing medium of the translations there is, nevertheless, no denying the charm of this early work, the freshness of the whole of it and the perfect verisimilitude of the language and life. Mr. Gosse justly sees in 'Synnöve' and in 'Arne,' its immediate successor, the highest development of the peasant-novel in Norway; with him we are struck, too, with their peculiar lyrical quality, and like him we gladly miss the "hortatory optimism" of much of the later work.

Mr. Gosse's introductory study is like all of his essay-writing. It has by no means a few characterizations of Björnson and his books that are as felicitous as they are facile, and that is saying a good deal of a writer whose greatest charm perhaps lies in his lightness of touch. One of these remarks is particularly worthy of quotation. "Norway," he says, "supplies the oldest and the youngest-hearted of the authors of our time, the weary Ibsen huddled above the sinking embers of existence, and the schoolboy Björnson climbing trees for mare's-nests and flinging up his bonnet in the sunshine."

In shape and make-up this initial volume leaves little to be desired. The use of the accent in Synnövé to insure the pronunciation of the final vowel is, however, a blemish, and will fail of the effect desired. The diæresis would have been better. English readers will now inevitably pronounce the word on the model of, we will say, *naïveté*, which appropriately occurs several times in Mr. Gosse's introductory study.

Pictures of Swedish Life; or, Svea and her Children. By Mrs. Woods Baker. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. 1894.

The author, in a prefatory note, informs us that she "has lived many years in Svea's dominions, and is well acquainted with her fireside doings, and so ventures to chat about them with well-loved friends over the water"; and "chattiness" in fact characterizes this volume, which is made up of a number of sketches, apparently combined without much effort at systematic treatment. It is evident, however, that Mrs. Baker has had excellent opportunities for observing. What she tells shows great, often intimate, familiarity with life in Sweden, and a kindly appreciation which leads her sometimes to pass over, perhaps too lightly, what she is unable to approve. She sketches mostly the pleasant side of the home of Svea's children, and some of her pictures are charming. There are delineations of life in Stockholm and in the country, of public ceremonies, of Christmas festivities, of charitable and educational institutions, etc., and, in conclusion, about one hundred pages of tales from the history of Sweden; care being taken to disarm criticism by the remark that "this is no solid and scholarly bit of Swedish history, nor is it even a hasty outline of its most important events. It is rather as if one were with an American friend in a Swedish picture-gallery, and, pausing now and then before a striking portrait, should tell in an informal and familiar way the story of the original."

The few specimens of Swedish literature are printed so correctly that it is surprising, as

well as annoying, to find so many typographical errors where the attractive appearance of the volume would lead us to expect greater care in the proof-reading. To give a few instances only: "tak" instead of tack (p. 11), "föscuing" for förening (p. 26), "Lödumanland" for Södermanland (p. 99), "Fou" for Fru (p. 116), "Farboor" for Farbror (p. 117), "Arbetstagor" for Arbetsstugor (p. 191), "Arbtoga" for Arboga (p. 333). The statesman, and author of the present Swedish Constitution, Louis de Geer, is disguised as "de Gen" (p. 95), although the name is printed correctly on page 408. "Lützen," not Leutzen (p. 251), was the scene of the great battle of the Thirty Years' War. Students at the University of Lund might be surprised to hear their Alma Mater called "Sünd" (p. 249), and the English reader would, doubtless, not understand that by "upland law," on page 318, is meant the law of (the province of) Upland. What would Chaucer say to "French of Stratford Atte Browe" (p. 132)? Queen-*Consul* is the rather novel designation (p. 380) of Ulrika Eleonora, who abdicated the crown in favor of her husband. Gustavus the Fourth was dethroned in 1809, not 1792 (p. 394). Bernadotte, referred to, correctly, as Crown Prince of Sweden on page 402, is called the new King of Sweden a few lines further down on the same page, although he did not ascend the throne until several years after the events narrated. Mention is made (p. 395) of "the poems of Finn Runeberg," meaning Johan Ludvig Runeberg, a native of Finland. The reader is not informed that many, if not all, of the full-page illustrations (no reference is made to them in the text) are reproductions of paintings in the National Museum at Stockholm.

To those who have visited Sweden Mrs. Baker's book will be a pleasant and entertaining reminder of an interesting country, and will, doubtless, tell them some things which they did not know.

In the Dozy Hours, and Other Papers. By Agnes Repplier. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

It is soothing to the reader's sensitiveness to foreign criticism to know that this volume of Miss Repplier's essays, collected from her contributions to the *Atlantic*, is meeting with appreciative and even enthusiastic notice from the English reviews. Here, once again, is a writer of our own nurture for whom the ordinary standards of criticism need not be readjusted or adapted to scale; who does not employ dialect; whose idiom is not even "racy of the soil"; who interprets no "phases," and has no care to express the inarticulate; who, on the contrary, gives utterance to only the most clearly defined thoughts, in admirably definite, clear, and well-turned sentences; whose mental background is filled with the literary imagery that is the common inheritance of the English-speaking race, and who fortunately did not begin, when childhood and youth were over, to consciously strain after, and all as unconsciously fail of, "culture." Miss Repplier's point of view, as is well known, is as free from utilitarianism or partisanship as it is from provincialism. Her sense of humor spares neither "reforms" nor her own sex; neither the over-enlightened parents of "these exacting days," who feel that "even a young child is deeply wronged by subjection," nor the attitude of those "impetuous creatures" who seem to assume that "the seven deadly sins grow less malignant in woman's hands." Her pages can claim no merits of newer invention than those perennial graces of style and imagination that have charmed readers in the past, and must, apparently, be depended on to relieve the dulness of emancipated humanity in the future.

The sources of Miss Repplier's strength as an essayist are, however, also the sources of her weakness. Her mind is so well stored that her own individuality is oftentimes pushed, as it were, into the background; between her own intelligence and the reader there constantly flit, like unwelcome intruders upon a tête-à-tête, the opinions of this and that remembered favorite of the world of letters. Thus, in the characteristic essay on "Lectures," leading one on, by its witty and ironical protest against contemporary fads, to hope for the personal equation of the writer to its end, it is a trifle tantalizing to be finally put off with an "as for Lamb," however graceful the account which follows of that prime favorite's attitude towards the subject. If ten years hence Miss Repplier should read herself, and comment on herself as she appears in print, it is easy to fancy how charming the comment might be. For life to her is like wine: to thoroughly please her palate, it must have been bottled in works of the imagination. If there has been time for some dust and cobwebs to gather on the vessels, so much the better. "The old order passeth," she writes, "and we are sorry in our hearts, having loved it well for years, and feeling no absolute confidence in its successor." When it is fresh from the press, she does not test the flavor of existence with the same degree of connoisseurship.

It is pleasant to speculate what the result might be if Miss Repplier's intimacy with human nature were as close as her intimacy with books—her interest in the world at large as sympathetic as her interest in the world in the library; or if the prejudices of the men and women of her own day and generation had seemed to her as natural, their foibles as amiable, their inconsistencies as endearing, as those of the heroes and heroines of the days of Cervantes, Richardson, or Scott. Her essay on "A Kitten" proves her power of throwing the fascination of the living thing into a few brief pages; one would fain see it exercised on higher types—in presenting more clearly the individual features of her own mind. As it is, a certain second-handedness of view, and even a suggestion of too constant reference to the note-book, mar the fine quality of her work.

Woman's Share in Primitive Culture. By O. T. Mason, A.M., Ph.D. New York: Appletons. 1894. pp. 295.

This book is written in exemplification of the fact that the beginnings of all the great industrial arts are due to women. If we divide historic periods into those of militarism and industrialism, we may with equal appropriateness distinguish the two sexes in early times as the military and the industrial sex. Division of labor between the sexes began with the invention of fire-making: the woman stayed by the fire to keep it alive, while the man went abroad to fight the enemy and to bring home wild beasts for food. Man has been the inventor in every murderous art; woman, at the fireside, became the preparer and the preserver of food, the weaver, the skin-dresser, the potter, the basket-maker, the domesticator of animals, and later the agriculturist—in a word, the inventor of all the peaceful arts of life. It was the gradual pressure of her insistence upon the value of the product of her first planted food-grains which turned mankind from the nomadic savage into the settled tiller of the soil. Only after the necessity for warfare had grown less urgent, and at the same time the development of the industrial arts had reached such a stage that the labor of many hands could advantageously be applied to a single piece of work, did the arts of peace become the province of men. Co-operation and the division of labor which it permits were not possible for "her who presides at the hearthstone," and hence the later developments of the arts of which she had laid the foundation passed into the hands of the other sex.

This is a thesis which a scanty knowledge of the history of primeval times enables one to perceive to be true, and which has been frequently distinctly stated, if somewhat too grudgingly, by the unfair sex. Prof. Mason deserves great credit for the cordiality and enthusiasm with which he here sets it forth. He dedicates his book "to all good women, living or dead, who with their brains or by their toil have aided the progress of the world," and he is of the opinion that "whether we regard the history of the remotest past or the diverse civilizations of the present, the emancipation and exaltation of women are the synonyms of progress." The reproduction of the numerous accounts of travellers describing primitive processes of manufacture among the women of savage tribes of low and lowest degree makes a very interesting volume.

The more than equal share played by women in the invention and spread of language has not been elsewhere set forth with so much clearness. Savage men in hunting and fishing are much alone, and have to be quiet, hence their taciturnity. Women remain together all day long, and have constant occasion for comparing the results of their experiments in the manifold problems which occupy them. Prof. Mason quotes this passage from Payne's 'History of America':

> "The steps by which language was developed are still obscure; but it may reasonably be concluded that the food-quest had a considerable share in the process, and that not long after emotional exclamations and demonstrative names came primitive adjectives signifying 'good' and 'evil,' applied to animal and vegetable species with reference to the purpose of food, in the sense in which the African guide classes all plants into 'bush' and 'good for nyam' (the latter including the eatable ones and the former the residue). In the discovery of the qualities of plants, women had the largest share, the males being occupied in hunting"

And Prof. Mason points out that what is here said concerning the food-quest would be equally true of all the substantial occupations of savage woman's life. The Mexicans have a proverb which says "A woman is the best dictionary"; a confession based upon an induction made by the aborigines of that country centuries ago. With the exception, perhaps, of the classes of society in which men have had access to special means of training denied to them, women are still the best dictionaries, talkers, and letter-writers. The fact that silly women talk too much has made woman in general a butt for ridicule, and has obscured the fact that women who are not silly have far greater facility than men in clothing the contents of their minds in fluent, graceful, and expressive speech.

Aside from the merits which we have dwelt upon, this book leaves much to be desired—in point of style, of argument, and even of grammar. It is the first volume of "The Anthropological Series," edited by Prof. Frederick Starr of the University of Chicago. The illustrations are admirable.

Essays by Joseph Mazzini, most of them translated for the first time by Thomas Okey. Edited with an introduction by Bolton King. London: Dent.

No better proof of the vitality of Mazzini's doctrines could be had than the fact that very recently a new six-volume edition of his works and two separate single-volume editions of select essays have been printed in English. And yet Mazzini has been more than twenty years dead, and much of his most characteristic work was written before 1840. It would be interesting to investigate the sources of this vitality, and to show how far Mazzini's views could be used to combat and correct the exorbitant theories of latter-day Socialists; but our present purpose is simply to call attention to this latest volume, in which readers who have not hitherto known Mazzini will find much that fairly represents him. The selection embraces only essays on political and social topics, and none of his critical essays; so that a stranger could hardly infer from it how admirable a critic of literature Mazzini was. His review of Carlyle's 'French Revolution,' for instance, establishes his right to rank among the half-dozen original and penetrative critics of his time. But since the social question is to-day the most absorbing question, it was not improper to mass in a single volume Mazzini's utterances thereon. The student of the intellectual processes of genius will see in the essay on "Interests and Principles" how early Mazzini formulated his system, resembling in that respect two other men of very diverse genius—Calvin and Berkeley.

The translations merit the praise of not reading like translations, and, so far as we have observed, they are accurate. But Mr. Bolton King's introduction is only half satisfactory. His general remarks on Mazzini's importance in recent European history may be commended, but his references to Mazzini's participation in Italy's struggle for independence are singularly superficial and inaccurate. It would be hard to pack more misstatements into two short pages than Mr. King has done on pp. xxiii, xxiv. To imply that the present lamentable condition of Italy may be due to the policy originated by Cavour, is like implying that McKinleyism and all the later corruptions fostered by the Blaine-Republican party should be charged against Abraham Lincoln. A novice need not be told that since 1861 the politicians who have governed Italy have persistently disregarded the spirit of the great traditions bequeathed to them by Cavour. But, after all, it is not the editor, but Mazzini himself, with whom the reader of this volume will spend his time. The book is daintily printed and bound, in significant contrast to the rude type and paper which served for the first surreptitious edition of many of Mazzini's tracts.

Concise Anglo Saxon Dictionary. By J. R. Clark Hall. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

THE dolorous condition of Anglo-Saxon lexicography makes anything in the way of a new glossary welcome, and accordingly we extend our resigned greetings to Dr. Hall's Dictionary. It is impossible to give a quite enthusiastic reception to a work which laboriously announces itself, in an extended preface, as published in a hurry, before the compiler was ready, in order to anticipate the wants of the Oxford School of English, and which, in its very prospectus, proclaims the necessity, as well as the hope, of a revised edition. Dictionaries (except Dr. Johnson's) are not commonly resorted to for amusement; but there is one article, well settled in our Anglo-Saxon lexicons, which has already contributed much to the gayety of scholars. We refer to *leso*, entered as an indeclinable feminine noun, and defined by the Latin *numen*, with a citation of the proper page and line of the Wright-Wülcker 'Glossaries.' In the millennium, Anglo-Saxon lexicographers may spoil our fun by discovering—what has been the common property of other scholars for a dozen years—that this supposed Anglo-Saxon noun is but the ablative singular neuter of the Latin participle *laesus* (spelled in mediæval fashion, *leso* for *laeso*), and that the *numine leso* on which the entry in Wright-Wülcker is founded is but Virgil's (*quo*) *numine læso*, from the beginning of the 'Æneid.' The Saxon glossator who entered these two Latin words in his list as a lemma, and either gave up the puzzle (small blame to him!) or else wrote an explanation which has perished, little suspected that he was tempting his successors to set up a Latin neuter participle as an Anglo-Saxon feminine noun. From the fact that Dr. Hall has been too conservative or too careless to disestablish this venerable blunder, our readers may judge of his vigilance in the nice questions of Saxon lexicography. To speak plainly, though he has attempted to exploit Wright-Wülcker, he has given little heed to what has been done to rectify and emend the corruptions and other errors of that work, so that *laeso* is not the only Latin word that does duty as Anglo-Saxon in his dictionary. We hope that the second edition will come quickly, and will be prepared with greater care than the first.

Yet we are loath to carp at this dictionary, even in its present vastly imperfect form. The plan is a good one, and junior students and amateurs will find the copious vocabulary offered them, with its brief definitions, all printed in legible type and compressed within a moderate compass, a valuable addition to their stock of guide-books, while even specialists, however vexed at oversights, will be grateful to the compiler for having registered many words ignored by his predecessors. The book will be very useful. Let Dr. Hall revise it as soon as the destinies decree!

Natural Rights: A Criticism of Some Political and Ethical Conceptions. By David G. Ritchie, Professor of Logic and Metaphysics in the University of St. Andrews. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. Pp. xvi, 304.

PROF. RITCHIE'S apology for setting his teeth to a well-gnawed bone is not necessary: he has found some shreds of meat on it yet. Indeed, to stick to the figure as a dog would to the bone, not a little marrow is laid bare for the first time under his crunching. Leaving to Bentham the work of logical dissection, to Burke that of passionate and thrilling denunciation, to Sir Henry Maine that of showing what that ancient law really was which the French theorists identified with the flights of their metaphysic wit, Prof. Ritchie takes for his own the humbler task of tracing the historic evolution and significance of the theory, and of each of the leading examples, of natural right—that prime article of the political creed of a hundred years ago in France and America. Following the lead of M. Charles Borgeaud, he finds in the theological jargon of the English "Levellers" of the seventeenth century the main root of the "principles of '89"; itself a growth in the soil of the Reformation, it was not transplanted to France until Locke had given it philosophic cultivation. In Rousseau's garden it grew to what we know. Prof. Ritchie remarks with much justice:

"No great writer perhaps has suffered more than Rousseau from having his views judged by his weakest writings. The 'Contrat Social' is a book much more talked about than read, and the prevalent opinion about Rousseau's social theories is derived from the paradoxes of his early prize essays. . . . But even in the 'Discourse on Inequality' he recognizes that the state of nature 'has perhaps never existed, and probably never will exist,' and that when he speaks of it he is using a hypothetical argument and not attempting to describe the actual original state of mankind."

Prof. Ritchie does not take leave of the historic evolution of the natural-rights doctrine in '89; he shows its existing vitality to be in the form of contemporary socialism. In fact, with only some slight changes in form—such as the transition of the *droit du travail* into the *droit au travail*—the old asseverations of the rights which nature, as opposed to society, gives to man are to-day urged by socialists with as much passion, if not with the same aim, as by revolutionaries and republicans a hundred years ago. All these rights may be summed up in the single "Right of Pursuing and Obtaining Happiness," which might be taken as a good definition of the aims of socialism—that "large order on the bank of Providence," as Prof. Ritchie calls it. In his criticisms on the modern applications of the natural-rights theory he is generally acute and satisfying. His turn for happy characterization may be inferred from his reference to "those two scholastic theologians, Mr. Henry George and Pope Leo XIII." As a final citation, with some painful local bearings for New Yorkers just now, we give the following: "Reformers are always apt to look forward to 'living happily ever afterwards' when once the great crisis is over. But it is only in old-fashioned stories that trouble ends with the wedding-bells."

Amphioxus and the Ancestry of the Vertebrates. By Arthur Willey, B.Sc. [Columbia University Biological Series. II.] Macmillan. 8vo, pp. 316, illustrated.

THE high degree of excellence attained by the first volume of this series obtains likewise in the second. Both are very creditable to American science, and will exert a beneficent influence on subsequent attempts in behalf of thoughtful readers. Branchiostoma (Amphioxus by a later name), though in the average hardly larger than a wooden match, is one of the most important creatures known to scientists, as is sufficiently evident from the mass of literature devoted to it. In systematic position it lies lower than the Vertebrates, near the Ascidians and the Annelids. Some authorities consider it to be a connecting link, an ancestral form of Vertebrate. A safer position is that adopted by this author, making it a very ancient offshoot from the actual vertebrate ancestor, or a close relative. Parallelism in evolution is here given a prominence unusual in these days of search for genetic affinities. A much greater external resemblance between Ammocœtes (the larva of the lamprey) and Branchiostoma notwithstanding, the author would make the relationship between the latter and the Ascidians to be the closer. He defines these last as more or less Branchiostoma-like animals, adapted to a sessile habit of existence. Comparing the Annelids and the Vertebrates, it is found that the closer the su-

perficial resemblance, in somites, segmental organs, etc., the more perfect the parallelism in evolution and the more remote the genetic affinity. It is decided to be most likely that its organization would place the proximate ancestor of the Vertebrate between the Ascidian tadpole and Branchiostoma, while the organization of the primordial ancestor would be worm-like, approximately on a level with that of the bilateral ancestors of Echinoderms. Clear and comprehensive in descriptions, well illustrated, and cautious in conclusions, the book forms an excellent monograph for the student. Embryology and anatomy are brought together from all sources, the author himself making substantial contributions, and, besides Branchiostoma, Annelids, Ascidians, and Vertebrates are included.

In the historical matter the date of Pallas's discovery of the first species should be 1774 instead of 1778. As the author mentions, the name Branchiostoma was bestowed two years earlier than Amphioxus; individual preference is apparently the reason for present use of the latter. The confusion arising from this use is illustrated on p. 40, where, after the heading "Species and Distribution of Amphioxus," that title is displaced by Branchiostoma throughout the synopsis. The account of distribution and habits is to be criticised, because it takes no notice of the remarkable species, B. pelagicum, secured by the *Challenger* expedition, described and figured by Günther in 1889, from thousand-fathom water, in the open ocean, a few degrees north of Honolulu. That species is the more worthy of remark as it differs so radically from the others in dwelling-place, and because the lack of buccal cirri attests wide differences in habits.

A Treatise on Industrial Photometry, with special applications to Electric Lighting. By A. Palaz, Sc.D., Professor of Industrial Electricity in the Science Faculty of the University of Lausanne. Translated from the French by George W. Patterson, jr., Assistant Professor in the University of Michigan, and Merit Rowley Patterson, B.A. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. 1894.

ELECTRIC lighting has given a great stimulus to the study of the efficiency of various methods of illumination. In the new methods of distributing light from central stations, electricity was brought into forcible contrast with gas, and standards of illumination immediately assumed an important commercial value. Incandescent lights and arc lights are rated as so many candle-power; and the subject of photometry, instead of being treated in a few paragraphs in text-books of physics, as it was twenty years ago, has now this voluminous treatise of 318 pages devoted to it. Indeed, there is enough theory and practice in this treatise to warrant months of study in a technical school. The author has collected the large number of researches on this important subject which have appeared in the various technical journals, and has moulded them into a valuable treatise. The photometers of Rumford and Bunsen were once the principal and indeed the only important photometers; there are now at least twenty forms of photometers, and in place of two or three standard lamps there are now as many as there are standard photometers. The untechnical reader will find much interesting information in Mr. Palaz's treatise. On the subject of our extravagant methods of illumination the author remarks that the efficiency of an incandescent lamp is only about 1 per cent. of the energy of the coal which drives the dynamo machine.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Grant. The Woman Who Did. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Bacon, Susie L. A Siren's Son. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 25 cents.
Beck, Mme. Berthe. French Verb Form. W. R. Jenkins. 50 cents.
Bercy, Paul. Simples Notions de Français. W. R. Jenkins. 75 cents.
Bouton, J. B. Uncle Sam's Church: His Creed, Bible and Hymn-Book. Cambridge, Mass.: University Press.
Brorup, R. P. Christianity and Our Times. Chicago: International Book Co. 25 cents.
Burn, Robert. Ancient Rome and its Neighborhood. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2 25.
Burger, Andreas. Thistledown and Mustard Seed. London: Elliot Stock.
Caine, Hall. A Son of Hagar. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.
Chapple, J. M. The Minor Chord: A Story of a Prima Donna. F. T. Neely. $1.
Cobbe, W. R. Doctor Judas: A Portrayal of the Opium Habit. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.50.
Daudet, Alphonse. La Petite Paroisse. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer; Brentano's. $1.
Eames, F. L. The New York Stock Exchange. T. G. Hall.
Edgeworth, Maria. Castle Rackrent, and the Absentee. Macmillan. $1.25.
Edgren, Prof. A. H. Jules Verne's Le Tour du Monde en Quatre-Vingts Jours. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35 cents.
Ethical Addresses. First Series. Philadelphia: S. Burns Weston.
Fonda, A. I. Honest Money. Macmillan. $1.
Halévy, Ludovic. Un Mariage d'Amour. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 25 cents.
Hammond, B. E. The Political Institutions of the Ancient Greeks. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Hancock, Herbert. A Text-Book of Mechanics and Hydrostatics. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Harper's Bazar. 1894. Harpers.
Harper's Magazine. 1894. 2 vols. Harpers.
Harper's Weekly. 1894. Harpers.
Hatch, Mrs. Mary R. P. The Strange Disappearance of Eugene Comstocks. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Higgins, C. E. Street Railway Investments: A Study in Values. Street Railway Publishing Co. $2.
Hope, Anthony. The Dolly Dialogues. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Houfe, C. A. The Question of the Houses. London: Archibald Constable & Co.
Hume, Fergus. The Gates of Dawn. F. T. Neely. $1.25.
Jacobs, Esther. Love and Law. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Jordan, Leopold. Drilby Re-versed. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Knowles, E. R. The Supremacy of the Spiritual. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Le Gallienne, Richard. The Book-Bills of Narcissus. Putnams. $1.
Le Vatican: Les Papes et la Civilisation. Paris: Firmin-Didot; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Life and Adventures of John Gladwyn Jebb. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Loti, Pierre. Le Désert. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Brentano's. $1.
Lowe, Charles. Alexander III. of Russia. Macmillan. $1.75.
Mackie, John. The Devil's Playground. F. A. Stokes Co.
Macquoid, Katharine S. Berris. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Mamreov, P. F., Anna F., and B. A. F. Iesät Nassar: The Story of the Life of Jesus the Nazarene. Sunrise Publishing Co.
Martin, T. C., and Sachs, Joseph. Electrical Boats and Navigation. C. C. Shelley. $2.50.
McCarthy, J. H. A Woman of Impulse. Putnams. 50 cents.
Memorial Biographies of the New England Historic-Genealogical Society. Vol. V. Boston: Published by the Society.
Norton, Lord. Socialism. London: Rivington, Percival & Co.
Parkhurst, Rev. C. H. Our Fight with Tammany. Scribners. $1.25.
Patterson, Rev. George. Sable Island, its History and Phenomena. Montreal: W. Drysdale & Co.
Paulsen, Prof. Friedrich. The German Universities: Their Character and Historical Development. Macmillan. $2.
Pease, Howard. The Mark o' the Deil, and Other Northumbrian Tales. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Potts, William. From a New England Hillside. Macmillan.
Preliminary French Drill. W. R. Jenkins. 50 cents.
Proceedings of the International Conference on Aerial Navigation. *American Engineer*. $2.50.
Riehl, W. H. Die Werke der Barmherzigkeit. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 25 cents.
Russell, Thomas. Meteorology: Weather and Methods of Forecasting. Macmillan. $4.
Stevenson, R. L. The Amateur Emigrant. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
Stokes, A. P. Joint-Metallism. 3d ed. Putnams. $1.
Susemihl, Prof. Franz, and Hicks, R. D. The Politics of Aristotle: A Revised Text with Introduction, Analysis and Commentary. Books I.—V. Macmillan. $6.
Sutton, Elizabeth M. Céleste. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Swing, Rev. David. Old Pictures of Life. 2 vols. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
The Income-Tax Law. Brentanos. 10 cents.
The Life and Adventures of George Augustus Sala. Written by Himself. 2 vols. Scribners. $5.
The Plays of Maurice Maeterlinck. Translated by Richard Hovey. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
The Poems of Henry Abbey. 3d ed., enlarged. Kingston, N. Y.: The Author. $1.25.
Watkins, Rev. O. D. Holy Matrimony. A Treatise on the Divine Laws of Marriage. Macmillan. $5.
Watson, Prof. John. Comte, Mill and Spencer: An Outline of Philosophy. Glasgow: James Maclehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Wheatley, H. B. The Diary of Samuel Pepys. Vol. V. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan $1.50.
Wheeler, W. W. Rest. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Wright, W. H. On the Hurricane Deck. Mascot Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Young, Rosalind A. Mutiny of the *Bounty*, and Story of Pitcairn Island, 1790—1894. Oakland, Cal.: Pacific Press Publishing Co. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 21, 1895.

The Week.

THE vote in the House on Thursday on the gold-bond resolution was primarily and essentially a heavy blow to the public credit; yet it has been treated as if it were merely a rebuff for President Cleveland. "Beaten again!" cries the exultant *Tribune*, dancing with the other wreckers on the shore where they hope to see the national credit dashed to pieces. No matter if we turn out a nation of defaulters, provided Cleveland is not allowed to have his way. Reduced to its simplest terms, that seems to have been the main motive in the minds of the members who voted to throw away $16,000,000 and further shock and estrange the confidence of the financial world. If the President urged them to be sane and honest, that made plain their duty to play the harlequin and the cheat. This is really about the greatest compliment that could be paid to Mr. Cleveland. Scarce another President has had the good fortune so to identify his own personality with national honor and financial stability as to make all enemies of the public credit *ipso facto* his enemies. Nor has he any reason whatever to care for their raging. He is master of the situation, and all the howling of the jackals cannot alter the fact that he is both able and determined to maintain the Government's plighted faith. While his personal enemies and the bat-eyed partisans are shrieking out "Beaten Again," the country is thanking its stars that he is not beaten, and that its honor and stability are safe in his hands.

Politically, Thursday's vote was chiefly significant as revealing an alarming division in the Republican party. Even under Mr. Reed's urging, but 31 Republican votes were secured for the bill, while 63 were cast against it. With 89 Democrats voting in the affirmative and 94 against, little is left to choose between parties. When the Duke of Kent visited the Dey of Algiers in 1818, the latter potentate, in an effort to be complimentary, said: "Your father is the greatest pirate in the world, but I am the next." The Western Republicans in like manner admit that the Democrats have gone further than they have for cheap money and broken credit, but they are doing their best to come in a close second. But, says Presidential candidate Reed, the Republicans of the East and the West have always found some way to get along together, and they will now. Not until some way of making fifty cents equal a dollar shall be discovered. There is now every sign of an irrepressible conflict in the Republican party on the money question. The bold talk and votes of the Western Republicans on Thursday are the first move in an aggressive campaign to nominate, if not an outright free-silver Republican candidate for the Presidency, at least a flabby and wabbling candidate. Mr. Reed will find himself consumed between two fires. The Western men will not have a leader whom a telegram from Boston bankers can make turn a complete summersault in two weeks. The Eastern men will not have him if, as the next Speaker, he appoints a shaky committee on coinage. There can be no good-Lord good-devil leadership in this currency matter.

We do not think that American history records the existence of a more brutish Congress than the one now sitting at Washington, or one that the people will be more glad to see dispersed till the day of judgment. The majority of its members are utterly at variance with public opinion touching the recent loan by which a suspension of specie payments was averted. They do not know what the people are saying and thinking about them. The truth is, that the President is sustained by nine-tenths of the business men and of the thinking men throughout the country. These men make public opinion. They constitute public opinion. If there was any way by which the vote of Massachusetts, for example, could be taken to-day on the question of sustaining the President, he would receive an enormous majority. It is only because no such vote can be taken that the wretched Lodge dares to throw *camouflets* at him, and the wretched Gorman to insult him by introducing a bill to annul a clause of the contract which he has made with the bond syndicate. This is the clause which gives the syndicate the first chance until next October to subscribe for a new issue if another one should be necessary. Gorman's amendment proposes to authorize the issue of 3 per cent. exchequer bills to the amount of $100,000,000, to meet temporary deficiencies of revenue—a measure entirely proper in itself, but he has added a provision that all future bond sales shall be made in pursuance of public advertisement, in the teeth of an existing contract made by the secretary of the treasury with the President's approval, and officially communicated to Congress. In other words, Gorman wants the President to cancel and repudiate his own contract. Of course he will not do so, even at the risk of losing an appropriation bill.

Senator Sherman exhibited himself on Monday as a stickler for forms, when he insisted that the negotiation of loans was the work of the secretary of the treasury and not of the President. This question involves an interpretation of the Constitution. There is nothing which takes the management of the finances out of the scope of the clause of the Constitution which says that the President shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed. Every law of Congress must be interpreted with this provision in view. This whole question was fought out during Jackson's administration and was decided in the forum of public opinion, then and since, in favor of the President's power to direct what the secretary of the treasury shall do—not to compel him to violate the law, but to control him within the limits of the law. The law at that time authorized the secretary, in his discretion, to remove the public deposits from the Bank of the United States, requiring him merely to give his reasons for doing so to Congress. President Jackson desired that Secretary Duane should remove the deposits, but he refused to do so. He also refused to resign his office. Accordingly the President removed him and appointed another secretary who did remove them. It was the great question of the day. It overshadowed everything else in politics for the space of six years. It was not a question that could come before the courts in any way. It was one to be decided by the people at the polls, and they decided it in favor of the President at every opportunity they had for voting upon it until the other side abandoned the field. If there were any such opportunity now, they would vote as they did then. It stands to reason that if the President has the power to remove a secretary (which is not denied), he has the power to direct what the secretary shall do within the limits of the law.

Secretary Carlisle's statement regarding the condition of the Treasury reveals the fact that there has been an actual contraction of the currency during the past twelve months of nearly $80,000,000. On January 1, 1894, the amount of United States notes and Treasury notes held in the Treasury was $6,289,086; on January 31, 1895, the amount was $85,627,989. All these millions of the people's precious money locked up out of their reach! Why, this is twice the amount of greenbacks that Secretary McCulloch retired. It was something terrible for him to do it, and the law authorizing it had to be repealed. A contraction of the currency could not be thought of without shivers. It cannot now by the *Tribune*. But here is a contraction of $80,000,000 which has gone on unperceived and unfelt, while the really great financiers of Congress and the newspapers have been straining every nerve to prevent anything of the kind. Yet these men will go on just as firm as ever in the belief that their mothers bore Solons.

The Alabama lawmakers have finally concluded that it is better to save the State $100,000 a year in interest on the public debt than to "vindicate" silver. The lower branch of the Legislature recently insisted upon striking out from a Senate refunding bill a clause providing that the new bonds should be made payable in gold instead of coin, although it was conceded by all that 1 per cent. in interest could thus be saved, and although it was found two years ago that new bonds could not be placed at a lower rate than the old ones without this provision. The only excuse given for their attitude by the Representatives who opposed the gold clause was the assertion that it would "put the people of Alabama in gold shackles." The Senators were not moved by this plea, and insisted upon the gold provision, and the House on Friday, on second thought, concurred by the close vote of 42 to 40. The Alabama Legislature thus puts to shame the example of Congress, which has just refused to save the nation half a million dollars a year for the next thirty years in the same way.

The House members of the conference committee on the diplomatic appropriation bill refuse to accede to the demand of the Senate for the insertion of an item appropriating $500,000 to begin work on a cable between the United States and the Hawaiian Islands. It is to be hoped that they will stand firm. The advocates of the scheme ask only $500,000 now, but they estimate that the total cost of the line would be at least $3,000,000, and all experience goes to indicate that it would turn out to be a great deal more. The reason they are urgent about the $500,000 is that the appropriation of this sum would commit the Government to carrying the project through. There is no possible excuse for borrowing money to lay a cable that we do not need, and there is no public sentiment in favor of such foolish extravagance. The people will sustain the House in blocking this job.

The Senate committee on the subject has again made an unfavorable report on the resolution which has passed the House for the submission of a constitutional amendment providing that Senators shall be elected by the people, instead of by the Legislatures. No matter how large a majority such a proposition may secure in the lower branch, most of the Senators will oppose it, although it is not without advocates in that branch. Two motives conspire to array the Senate in the negative. One is the natural conservatism of that body, which prejudices it against any change of methods, and especially so radical a change as is here proposed. The whole force of tradition and precedent is on the side of the existing system. The strong argument which may be made for it by high constitutional authorities, like ex-Senator Edmunds in his recent article in the *Forum*, is reinforced by the practical objections to a change of not a few Senators, who have succeeded in getting elected by a Legislature, but doubt whether they would be as fortunate if they submitted their claims directly to the people, as a man must do who asks a nomination from the State convention of his party.

Mr. Everett made a brief but eloquent appeal to the House at Washington on Friday, the 15th inst., to pay the just claims on us—adjudged to be just by the Court of Claims and the committee on claims—to increase the absurdly small salaries of our higher officials, especially of our ambassadors and ministers abroad, and of our cabinet ministers and our judges, before spending an enormous sum in battle-ships. He pointed out further that the enemy that is lying in wait for us "is not Great Britain or France; it is not Austria or Chili. That enemy—that foreign enemy, that un-American enemy—is in our great cities. The foreign enemy we have to dread is planted in the streets of our great cities—your city and mine. There is the problem for us. There is what demands the expenditure of our surplus." He spoke also of the way in which the public mind is being familiarized with the idea of war by the constant use by our public men of such phrases as "in case of war," "in the event of war." From hearing them talk, one might get the idea that we were a little state like Switzerland or Denmark, surrounded by mighty enemies eager to dismember us or get a whack at us, or had, like Germany, a powerful enemy on our border burning for revenge, by launching half a million of men across our frontier. So far has this gone that many people now think of the expansion of our commerce as chiefly interesting as a probable cause of war. Even the Nicaragua Canal attracts many solely as something to fight England about. They would not care a straw for it as a neutral highway of commerce, but as a probable cause of hostilities with some European power they chuckle over it. The cause of this strange, semi-barbaric state of mind is undoubtedly—apart from the love of combats and fights which always prevails among youths—the tendency of patriotism, like everything else, to move in the line of least resistance or trouble. True and large patriotism would demand a diligent, unflinching solution of all the tremendous domestic problems which beset us, in finance, in administration, and in legislation. But such solution would make heavy inroads on the time, patience, labor, self-restaint, and money of every man of us. Consequently, we naturally prefer to show our patriotism by hiring men, mostly foreigners, to get up spectacular fights for us in big ships on the sea, which will make us glow without risk and sell our "extras."

Ex-Senator Edmunds made some excellent points in his argument against the constitutionality of the income tax before the United States Court of Appeals in the District of Columbia on Thursday. He said the tax divided the community into two classes, one of which paid and the other did not. But if Congress had the power to tax people with incomes of over $4,000, and let those who had incomes under that amount escape, why had it not the power to tax people with incomes under $4,000, and let those who had more escape? If Congress did this, what should we say? Also, would a tariff act be constitutional which allowed persons to import goods worth less than $100,000 in the aggregate free of duty, while making all who imported more than that amount pay heavily? The want of uniformity is, in fact, the most serious objection to the tax on which the highest court has not yet passed. The Supreme Court has, however, found that at the foundation of the Government the only direct taxes known were the land tax and the capitation tax. The income tax was not thought of until long after. It has, therefore, concluded that these were the only direct taxes that could be known to the Constitution, and that any other direct tax that might be concocted must, for constitutional purposes, be called by some other name, and be treated as indirect. The question, it says, is one of nomenclature, not of fact. The income tax is the directest direct tax the wit of man could devise. Every tax that a man has to pay which he cannot evade by failure or refusal to do or leave undone, to purchase or to use, is a direct tax. So say the lexicographers, so say the economists, so say the people who invented the language and express themselves in it. But the Supreme Court says—Not so; that may be the meaning of "direct" for all other purposes of life; for the purpose of taxation in the United States, "direct" must be held to mean "indirect." Those who think differently have not "legal minds." Every government has and must have the power, not only to issue paper money, but to stamp words with a legal as distinguished from the popular meaning, and raise money thereunder.

A correspondent writes to us:

"Supposing the predatory income tax to be declared constitutional, will you kindly tell your readers what steps the Government would be obliged to take to collect it, and what you think its success would be if persons liable to pay the tax generally possessed enough of the old tea-party spirit to ignore it? I understand that a great many propose to try the experiment."

There is no doubt that the income tax has been imposed for predatory purposes, that is, for the purpose of compelling one set of people to bear the burdens of another set of people. But nevertheless it is law, and consequently a general refusal to pay it would be anarchical and a direct encouragement to anarchy. It is true it is

an attack on property, but then the only guarantee we have for the security of any property at all is the readiness of the people to obey even laws of which they disapprove. If we were to allow ourselves to select from the statute-book the enactments which we would treat as binding, and disregard the others, the confusion would be frightful and the state would not long hold together. It is quite true that occasions may arise when disobedience to law becomes a duty, but they can arise in a free country only when there is no hope of repeal or legal redress. When we see how frequently popular opinions vary and power passes from one party to another in America, we should have to be very despondent indeed in order to conclude that the income tax would be perpetual. We, too, who voted to put the Democrats in power must stand up like men and take our medicine. Nobody in this part of the country who voted for them had the smallest idea that they had an income tax in their pockets, for they took care not to mention it. They played a trick on us, but we have no right now to upset the Government to atone for our own credulity. The work before us is to try to get the Republicans to abolish the tax, as the most effective tool ever put in the hands of anarchists, socialists, Populists, and money cranks of every description. We say all this on the supposition that the Supreme Court will again declare it constitutional. It has already declared it constitutional by using the term "direct tax" in a sense unknown to the philologists, to the people, and to economists, which is in itself a dangerous thing. If we cannot tie courts up to the dictionary, we are at the mercy of judges.

Accounts differ as to the number of brave men who obeyed Platt's call for a council of war at the Fifth Avenue Hotel on Sunday, but we are disposed to be liberal and accept the highest number given, thirteen, including Platt and his son, as the accurate total. There were some notable absences, but the determined spirit of those who were present atoned for the poverty in numbers. "Every voice was for war," we are assured by Mr. Platt's favorite organ, and "it was agreed that the time for conciliatory measures with Mayor Strong had passed." The causes of the war were clearly stated. Mr. Lauterbach, chairman of the Platt Republican county committee, informed the council of war that he had in person twice asked the mayor to appoint a certain man to office, stating each time that the candidate was endorsed by the county committee, and that the mayor had replied each time that he could not appoint the man, because he had some one else for the place. Mr. Lauterbach said it was evident from this conduct that the mayor did not intend to "recognize" the Republican county committee, and every man of the thirteen said to himself through closed teeth when he heard the story, "This means war." What form the war should take was settled upon without delay. The war cry is to be: "No more reform till we get some offices!" The plan of war is for Mr. Platt to go in person to Albany and take charge of the Legislature. Every bill which embodies reform for New York city is to be "held up," and its passage refused, till the mayor consents to give some offices to the Platt men.

Nothing is more remarkable among the crowds who surround Mayor Strong in the city hall every day than their simplicity. They are evidently largely from the country, are much more respectable in appearance than the old Tammany gang, and are all in dead earnest. But the mayor's promise of non-partisanship has evidently made no impression on them. They rely as much as ever on good Republican work and fidelity, and believe he will recognize all such claims. But what is oddest in their beliefs is the notion that the mayor gives offices to people he knows nothing about, without much inquiry or consideration, on applications made in this way in the chair at his side. They suppose that if they can see him with a good introduction, they will probably get something that has not been promised to any one else. No better illustration of the way the spoils system has worked into the popular mind could be given than the scene in his room on the receipt of the power-of-removal bill. The attraction of a public place even on a small salary is evidently very great. Why it is so great would furnish an interesting topic for sociological speculation.

The Harvard faculty have followed President Eliot's lead in voting that intercollegiate football ought to be abolished. This action will be communicated to the athletic committee, a university body in its composition, and may or may not be given effect by them. Three out of the nine members being undergraduates, it would seem as if a majority in favor of the existing custom were more probable than the reverse. In that case, we shall be likely to witness another futile attempt to "reform" the game. There is, however, a strong disposition on the part of football-players of distinction at Harvard to confine the game to college grounds, with only college people for spectators; and this would be a decided gain on the moral side. Nevertheless, we adhere to our oft-repeated conviction that the simple solution of the whole athletic problem lies in concentrating the interest of each college upon home sports, without regard to, or competition or contact with, any other college. We do not separate football from other team play when we condemn all intercollegiate contests as demoralizing, and as tending to substitute physical for spiritual ideals in the aim and intent of college discipline. Football is simply more brutal and more perilous.

The announcement that the Yale "*Lit.*" prize would not be awarded this year because not one of the essays handed in was worthy of such recognition, must give something of a shock to the older graduates of that institution, coming, too, so soon after the comments made on Yale's uninterrupted defeats in the debating contests with Harvard. In the early sixties, a freshman on entering Yale had pointed out to him as the college heroes the great debaters of the two old open societies. To-day even those societies are dead, and the freshman has pointed out to him the champion slugger at football, the highest jumper, and the furthest thrower of the hammer. Even the champion oarsman takes a second place in these days of higher athletics. Friends of the college who protest against this state of things, however, are "jumped on."

An English paper lately published what it called an "Ambassadorial Number," consisting largely of interviews with the diplomats residing near the Court of St. James's. The theme upon which their views were solicited was international peace. Diverse opinions were discovered as to its possibility and its foundations. Mr. Bayard spoke at some length upon the many reasons why the closest friendship should exist between his country and England, and thought commerce afforded the best and firmest basis for peaceful international relations. This shows what antiquated and absurd ideas our minister to England is still afflicted with. True, he agrees with the fathers of the republic and the framers of the Constitution, he has the same idyllic notions as Franklin and Paine and Jefferson and Hamilton; but it is pitiful to find him unaware how we have changed all that. One Senate debate, one lecture before a "war college," one editorial in a really great newspaper, would have been enough to inform him that, in the modern world, commerce is the greatest and direst promoter of war. Every cargo of foreign goods landed here is little better than an insult, while buying wheat or mutton of Argentina is practically tantamount to a declaration of war. Has Mr. Bayard never heard of the impending great war and its cause? Doesn't he know that our foreign commerce is going to provoke England to such insensate fury that she will begin firing on our merchantmen, and that, therefore, we, on our part, must have some big ships ready and begin firing on her merchantmen first? All our schoolboys know these elementary truths of statecraft, and it is depressing to find Mr. Bayard ignorant of them. The Brazilian minister showed to great advantage, compared with him, by roundly saying of international peace that it was "a myth." The Chinese ambassador seemed to agree with the American, that peace is to the mutual benefit of nations; but *his* reasons for praising peace are a little too obvious just now.

MR. SHERMAN'S BLACK CONTRACTS.

SENATOR LODGE proved again, on Saturday, the easy superiority of an educated man over blatherskites in their own specialty. After the mining-camp Senators had poured out their vituperation on the President for saving the public credit, the cultured son of Harvard distanced them all by saying of the bond-contract: "It is on its face the blackest public contract ever made by the Government of the United States." On Monday the cry was taken up by Senator Sherman. He left the blackness and the blackguardism to Lodge, and contented himself with calling the contract "faulty and improvident." This suggests an inquiry as to the nature of the contracts which he himself made as secretary of the treasury. What were they and what was said of them at the time?

The details are all set forth in the volume published by the Government in 1880 on 'Specie Resumption and Refunding of the National Debt.' One has only to read it to discover that essentially the same difficulties confronted the Treasury then as embarrass it now, and that essentially the same measures were chosen to surmount them. The arguments that make out Carlisle's contract black, make out Sherman's blacker.

The first argument which Lodge and his fellows use is, that the Treasury has put itself in the power of foreigners. The Jews have us on the hip. But then what are the names of the "parties of the second part" in the contracts made by Secretary Morrill in 1876 and Secretary Sherman in 1877 and 1878? Why, they are the dreadful names at the sound of which every true American starts in horror, unless he is in a position where he must get a loan—the names of Rothschild, Seligman, Raphael, Kuhn, Loeb, Hoffmann, and others as ominous. On April 12, 1878, the following cable message was received at the Treasury in Washington, than which, as the orators say, nothing more damning ever appeared in a Government publication:

> "Very pleased we have entered into relations again with American Government. Shall do our best to make the business successful.
> "ROTHSCHILDS."

What a splitting of throats and cracking of ear-drums there would be over such a message now—the Jew firm gloating over a victimized secretary!

The second argument to show the exceeding blackness of the Carlisle contract is the fact that it gives the syndicate an option on all bonds that may be issued up to next October. If this makes the Carlisle contract black, it makes the Morrill and Sherman contracts blacker. Those documents gave the wicked foreign syndicate not an option, but an "exclusive right" to subscribe for further bonds. As a matter of fact, on two occasions Mr. Sherman had offers for several millions of bonds at better figures than the syndicate would give. He was obliged to decline them on the ground that the syndicate had a monopoly. This makes a mere option look positively white.

Finally, say or shriek the blatherskites, the syndicate is going to make an enormous amount of money. This is what worries Mr. Sherman. Selling a bond at 104 which may soon be placed at 118 or 120 is too much for him. Senator Gray forcibly retorts that the great Ohio trimmer really makes the favorable situation created by the prompt action of the Treasury the ground for condemning it. If the action had not been taken, no bonds could have been sold at any price. The nation was only three days away from bankruptcy. Owing to that emergency, and by surmounting it, the bankers were able to make a profit out of their investment. This is a sufficient answer on general principles. But a better answer to Senator Sherman is of the *tu quoque* sort. If it is "faulty and improvident" to sell a 4 bond at 104, with the prospect of seeing it quoted at 118, what is it to sell a 4 per cent. bond at 100, only to have it quoted in a few years at 126?

Senator Sherman dwells in an even more fragile glass house than this. He admits that the motives and the character of Secretary Carlisle are beyond suspicion. Was the same said of him in 1877–'79? Has he forgotten the ugly talk in those years about "Fort Sherman"? Has he no memory for congressional inquiries, for demands for a list of commissions paid (and they mounted up into the millions), for the complaints about double interest allowed favored banks, and, in particular, for the charge that he had practically handed over a clean $1,000,000 of profits to a single bank in this city? Has he no recollection of the talk of indicting or impeaching him? In an interview in the *Tribune* of December 25, 1878, Mr. Sherman admitted that the banks had made huge profits out of the exercise of his discretion in making them refunding agents. Is he the man to lead off in railing accusations against his successor in office? It is safe to say that no charges of personal dishonesty will be made against Secretary Carlisle in the New York Republican platform of 1895, such as were made against Senator Sherman, by implication, in the New York Democratic platform of 1879.

For our part, we never credited those charges for an instant. We saw in Senator Sherman's resumption and refunding operations a great service to the country performed with great skill and in the face of great difficulties. But those operations were substantially similar to the one just closed by the present Administration. The Treasury was in urgent need of gold, and had then as now to turn to the men who had it. The gold had to be taken then as now on the terms of the men who were asked to part with it, not on the terms of the men who were in desperate straits for lack of it. Then as now contracts had to be made which were onerous, which yielded a good profit to the bankers, but which also resulted in great savings to the Government, and which secured the aid of the financial world in sustaining the good faith of this nation. In 1877 and in 1878 the syndicate undertook to control the rates of sterling exchange just as they do now.

In all this we see nothing but what is proper and patriotic. Nor is it surprising that the wolves should open in full cry on the contract of 1895 just as they did on those of 1877 and 1878. But the thing that is surprising, that is outrageous and intolerable, is to find this particular old gray wolf now leading the pack. Blackguardism must needs come, and blatherskites there will always be; but to see the blackguarded of 1878 turn blackguards in 1895, to find Lodge, Sherman, and the *Tribune* among the blatherskites—these things cannot overcome us without our special wonder.

A NEW SILVER CONFERENCE.

IT is the common belief of those who are not making as much money as they have made at some time heretofore, that the trouble is in the currency, and that if the money question could be overhauled and rearranged, good times would return. The half-truths of the silverites on this subject are very specious. They tell us that one-half of the money in the world has been struck out of existence since 1873, and that the great decline in prices must be due to that circumstance. It is assumed without argument that a resolution passed by an international monetary conference would restore the other half and put prices up again; that an advance of prices would be a good thing for the human race; and that it is possible to get an international agreement of this kind, although three attempts have been made and have failed.

During recent years there has been a great deal of unrest in Germany, especially in the Agrarian party (the land-owning class), in consequence of the decline in the prices of wheat and rye. The decline has been really due to very large crops produced in the United States, Russia, and Argentina, and to the commercial treaties with Germany's eastern and southern neighbors which have admitted their cereals at reduced rates of duty. But the silverites ignore all these things, and tell the exasperated land-owners that it is all due to the demonetization of silver. The Government, which has incurred savage hostility by reason of the relaxation of tariffs against Russia and Austria, is not sorry to see the blame shifted to some other quarter for a while. For this reason it fell in with the proposal of the Agrarians last year to have a commission to make a fresh inquiry into the silver question. When a government is in trouble on the bread-and-butter conditions of life, a commission is always in order. It takes time, it gives

a chance for some new excitement to swamp the old one, and it lets off superfluous steam.

The silver commission of last year made a report which was not satisfactory to the Agrarians, and they have now made a push for a new international silver conference. As this will fill up the time for a year or two, and give a chance for something else to happen, the Government does not oppose it, and even favors it in a guarded way. Accordingly the Reichstag votes for it by a large majority. The Socialists, the Catholics, and the small remnant of the German Liberals oppose the movement because they consider it a "false scent," but they are not sufficiently numerous to stop it. So we may assume that the fourth silver conference is in prospect. At all events, it is in shape to be talked about. A few words on the subject of the previous ones are therefore in order.

The first was called at the instance of the United States, and met at Paris August 16, 1878. All the great Powers of Europe except Germany, and most of the lesser ones, took part in it. The conference remained in session till August 29. On the day before the adjournment the European delegates, except those of Italy, joined in a collective answer to the propositions of the United States saying: (1) that it is necessary to maintain in the world the monetary function of silver as well as of gold, but that the selection of one or the other, or both simultaneously, should be governed by the special situation of each state or group of states; (2) that the question of the restriction of the coinage of silver should be equally left to the discretion of each state or group of states; (3) that the differences of opinion which have appeared exclude the discussion of the adoption of a common ratio between the two metals. The representatives of the United States dissented from these conclusions. Thereupon the conference adjourned *sine die*.

The second conference was held at the instance of France and the United States. It met in Paris, April 19, 1881. In this conference Germany and British India participated, in addition to the countries represented in that of 1878. It remained in session till July 8, having taken one intermission from May 19 to June 30. No conclusion was reached and no vote was taken on the main question. The conference adjourned to April 12, 1882, but never reassembled.

The third conference assembled at the instance of the President (not of the Congress) of the United States, at the city of Brussels, November 22, 1892. The same powers were represented as before, with Turkey, Rumania, and Mexico added. It remained in session till December 17, when it adjourned, without taking any action, to May 30, 1893, but did not reassemble at that date or at any other time. In this it followed the valuable precedent of the conference of 1881.

Of course, if there is to be another conference, we shall take part in it, but we hope that President Cleveland will not join in calling it. We have taken the initiative in three conferences, and have been punished by seeing them dissolve in vapor and "pass noiseless out of sight." Now let some other country take the head of the class, or stand on the dunce-block, as the case may be. There is no reason to suppose that a new conference would result differently from the three that have gone before; but if the Powers of Europe want to take silver into their currencies again, we shall be very glad to supply them with all they need.

WEBSTER AND THE WAR SPIRIT.

Of all the addresses made in Congress at the recent presentation of Webster's statue, none was more effective, oratorically, than that of Representative Everett. If the note of eulogy was too unqualified, this might be forgiven one who spoke, as he admitted he did, "to pay a debt of hereditary gratitude." What he said of Webster's services in the peaceful settlement of international difficulties was most just and timely, and a tribute to a great man which needs no color from personal friendship. He referred particularly to the dispute over the Maine boundary, when the hotheads were calling for war. "Throughout the country and all along the frontier fiery spirits were eager to rush to arms." Said Mr. Everett:

> "Suppose Mr. Webster had caught up that sentiment; suppose that, when Sir Robert Peel suggested the hope of a compromise line and sent a special envoy, Mr. Webster had refused the proposal; had defied Sir Robert Peel and Lord Ashburton; had appealed to the war spirit of the country from Maine to Louisiana; had launched the yeomanry and chivalry of the Union simultaneously across the St. Croix, the St. Lawrence, the Columbia, and the Sabine; had sent the *Princeton* on her first cruise to open against the English that deep-mouthed ordnance which was to prove so fatal to his own successor. Why, at the end of Mr. Tyler's administration, he might have floated into the White House, triumphantly borne on waves of blood, as the great war secretary! A more brilliant prospect of glory rarely offers itself to Republican statesmen. Mr. Webster knew better. He knew that the torch of war as it sweeps over kindred nations, however it may dazzle or may warm at the moment, leaves behind it a terrible train of woe. Not merely the wounds and deaths of thousands who can ill be spared to their country; not merely blasted fields and ruined families; not merely the cost of millions, which a peace of tenfold duration can hardly repair, but the rankling passions and unsatiated vengeance of mighty nations, which God made to live together in unity, peace, and concord."

Webster negotiated a treaty and accepted a boundary line which brought upon him the denunciations of all that was ignorant and base in the land. His successors in the State Department have heard the like. With it he obtained the first extradition treaty, and gained the force of precedent for methods of peace, which has been an incalculable blessing to our country.

This was all the greater a service and triumph from the fact that Webster himself had a little of the Jingo in him. His famous letter to Austria, in the Hülsemann case, had a good deal of the Philistine snort about it. He reminded Francis Joseph that the possessions of the house of Hapsburg were "but as a patch on the earth's surface" compared to the region over which the power of the United States extended. To his friend Ticknor he privately confessed that the letter was "boastful and rough," but gave as his excuse that he wanted to "tell the people of Europe who and what we are," and "to write a paper which should touch the national pride and make a man feel sheepish and look silly who should speak of disunion." But in the crisis of the boundary dispute he stood firm for diplomatic adjustment and mutual concessions, despite the craze for war which was sweeping through the States.

Mr. Everett mentioned no contemporary names or tendencies, leaving it to his hearers and readers to make their own comparisons. But there is little doubt that he was moved to his eloquent account of Webster's services to the cause of peace by the reviving and senseless war spirit of our own day. The number of men in private or public life who are now mad to fight somebody is appalling. Navy officers dream of war and talk and lecture about it incessantly. The Senate debates are filled with predictions of impending war and with talk of preparing for it at once. With the country under the necessity of the most stringent economy, appropriations of $12,000,000 for battle-ships are urged upon Congress, not because we need them now, but because we shall need them "in the next great war." Most truculent and bloodthirsty of all, the Jingo editors keep up a din, day after day, about the way we could cripple one country's fleet and destroy another's commerce, and fill the heads of boys and silly men with the idea that war is the normal state of a civilized country.

The only qualification these warriors of the pen make in their praise of war is that it must be defensive. Somebody is to try to get the better of us, or impose upon us, or bully us, and then we are to rise in the majesty of a free people and sup full on horrors. But the curious thing is, that this is precisely what all fighting nations say. Not one of them would think for an instant of an aggressive or unjust war. Not one of them would be guilty of violating a single principle of international law or even courtesy. They are all perfect gentlemen, and it is the other fellow who is going to act like a rowdy and get a good drubbing for it. Now, if they were all honest in these professions, there would be no need of building another man-of-war. If no international aggression is to be committed, or act of injustice done, there will never be a war. As M. Novikoff forcibly points out in his vivacious little book on 'La Guerre et ses Prétendus Bienfaits,' this praise of a purely defensive war and determination to embark in no other is suicidal. If that

were all that was contemplated, modern armaments would be unknown; they are really got together for use in making might equal right. If the aggression of the other party is not forthcoming, it will be imagined, and that will do as well.

But, even for a defensive war, it is as little worth the while of a civilized nation to prepare as it is for a civilized man to prepare to equal at fisticuffs the ruffian who, for all he knows, may tread on his toes or pull his beard in the next street. It is, indeed, significant that all the arguments in favor of war used to be employed in favor of duelling and preparing for the duello. A man must not be helpless when insulted. He must give as good as he got, and learn to be handy with pistol and sword. Everybody knows that such training simply multiplied insults and encounters, and anybody can see that the same effects will follow the habit of preparing for an international duello. The civilized man does not, as Lord Brougham did, step out into the street and fight with a navvy who insults him; he hands the man over to the police. A civilized nation may do the same. International law, peaceful arbitration, the growth of the moral sense in nations, constitute the police to which a quarrelsome and aggressive country may be turned over. They make up a power which no nation can safely defy, and in which a dignified and self-respecting people may as securely trust as may the individual in the protection of the courts.

ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

It is but little more than a year since a committee of ten, with President Eliot of Harvard at their head, submitted to the National Educational Association a report dealing with secondary-school studies, and with the relations which ought to exist between the schools and the colleges. The good effects of that report, and of the study and discussion that it stimulated, are still being felt throughout the country. Perhaps no single educational document has ever excited so much attention, and provoked so much controversy, as that now famous report of the Committee of Ten.

But it covered only a portion of the field of education, and the most pressing problems that grow out of the needs of the vast system of elementary schools remained for separate treatment. These were referred to a second committee, of fifteen members, presided over by Superintendent Maxwell of Brooklyn. This committee was constituted early in 1893, and its report has just been published. The members of the committee were the superintendents of schools in the cities of Brooklyn, Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago, Kansas City, St. Paul, Cleveland (O.), Providence (R. I.), Springfield (Mass.), Peoria, Galveston, and Washington, together with the State superintendent of schools in New Jersey, President Draper of the University of Illinois, and Dr. William T. Harris, the United States commissioner of education. A committee of more experienced and representative men could hardly be found.

This Committee of Fifteen, after two years of investigation and deliberation, has submitted an elaborate report on three topics: the training of teachers, the correlation of studies in elementary education, and the organization of city school systems. This report was laid before the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, in session at Cleveland on February 19–21, and there discussed. It will now take the same course as the report of the Committee of Ten, and become matter of debate among teachers, boards of education, and intelligent citizens in all parts of the country.

On the subject of the training of teachers the committee speaks with no uncertain sound. It is insisted that a high-school education is an essential part of the equipment of an elementary-school teacher, and that a college education is necessary to fit a high-school teacher for his work. On the basis of the scholarship thus gained the strictly professional training must be carried on. This is held to include the study of psychology as a basis for principles and methods, of methodology as a guide to instruction; of school economy, which adjusts the conditions of work; and of the history of education, which gives breadth of view. The training is to include also observation of good teaching, and practice-teaching under supervision and criticism. It may perhaps be objected that all this is a matter of course. It ought to be, but unfortunately it is not. Even in New York city and in Brooklyn hundreds of teachers are given licenses and appointments on the basis of an examination alone, no professional training being necessary. In other and better-governed cities it has become customary for progressive schoolboards to put into their by-laws a provision requiring that all applicants for teachers' licenses must have spent some time in a normal school, city training-school, or pedagogical department of a college. It is hardly conceivable that so clear and logically reasoned a statement as the Committee of Fifteen makes on this point, will not lead to a general improvement throughout the country in this vital matter of professionally trained teachers.

The second part of the report treats of the correlation of studies, and is from the pen of Dr. Harris. While very valuable in many ways, and susceptible of being used to great advantage, it is disappointing in that it almost completely ignores what many teachers believe to be the really important element in correlation. The practical situation in which the elementary school finds itself is this: The rapid and increasingly complex development of the demands of modern life has added largely to the burdens of the school. More must be taught, both in quality and in quantity, than was formerly the case. The time remains as limited as it ever was. The real problem of correlation lies in the possibility of so treating the several school studies that they will become mutually dependent, occupy less time than when treated as independent wholes, and coöperate together to make what the followers of Herbart are fond of calling educative, or character-building, instruction. This point of view is evidently not acceptable to Dr. Harris, but a strong plea is made for it in the dissenting statements of Superintendent Gilbert of St. Paul and Superintendent Jones of Cleveland. The value of this portion of the report consists in its full and careful analysis of the studies of the elementary school and of their respective values as educational instruments. Dr. Harris performs this task with skill and great learning, although assent to all of his propositions is impossible. Six years is ample time for the strictly elementary course, and to insist upon eight years is simply to yield to the influence of a bad but prevailing custom. Written English is more useful and more important than the report admits, and the arguments adduced for postponing the use of the simpler algebraic processes and the study of plane geometry—the *Raumlehre* of the German schools—are in flat contradiction to the actual experience of many of the best teachers. As the discussion of this part of the report proceeds, many other shortcomings and defects, due largely to its point of view, will appear.

The final portion of the report, written by President Andrew S. Draper, may be unreservedly commended. During his six years of service as a State superintendent in New York and two years as city superintendent in Cleveland, Mr. Draper had ample opportunity to perceive the defects of the ordinary school administration in cities. On all questions of principle his views are in full accord with those of the framers of the bill designed to place the school systems of New York and Brooklyn on a proper footing. The report lays down two fundamental principles, which will at once be agreed to. The first is, that there must be complete separation of legislative and executive functions; the second is, that the business administration of the schools must be kept distinct from the educational administration. Full authority and responsibility must be conferred upon the head of each of these departments. The detailed plan that the committee recommends is substantially that adopted in Cleveland, O., in 1892, and now known generally as the "Cleveland plan." Its essential features are a small, unpaid school board, appointed by the mayor without regard to political belief or local political divisions; a commissioner of education, who is at the head of the business department, and who appoints the superintendent; and a superintendent of schools, appointed to serve during good behavior or for a long term, under whose

direct control the educational administration of the schools is put. There is fair ground for a difference of opinion as to that feature of the plan which provides for the appointment of the superintendent of schools by the commissioner of education, and the dissentients from the report —Superintendents Seaver of Boston and Lane of Chicago—will find much support for their position. Notwithstanding this fact, President Draper's discussion of city school systems is clear and exhaustive, and it would be a capital document to put into the hands of mayors, superintendents of schools, members of school boards, and members of the Legislature generally.

The entire report is a scholarly and stimulating treatment of its subjects. Its authors are men of large practical experience in dealing with the problems that it discusses. It may properly take its place by the side of the report of the Committee of Ten; and the two papers together may well increase our respect for the men who are directing the development of education in the United States.

FRENEAU'S *NATIONAL GAZETTE.*

BROOKLYN, February 15, 1895.

ON Monday, October 31, 1791, the first number of the above-named paper was issued in Philadelphia. Even in its earliest issues it began a criticism of certain acts of the executive of the United States, which became more and more bitter and sweeping as time went on. This partisanship merited special notice from the rather striking circumstance that Philip Freneau, the editor of the *Gazette*, was an office-holder under the very Government he was so persistently attacking, having been appointed translating clerk in the Department of State but a few weeks before the commencement of his paper. When to this fact was added the quickly developed circumstance that the paper attacked only the Treasury and War Departments, with some few acts of the President, and had nothing but praise for the department presided over by Jefferson, the inference was clear that the Secretary of State, by his appointment, had, in modern vernacular, "muzzled" this particular paper—if, indeed, he had not deliberately subsidized an editor to attack his fellow-secretaries and the President under whom he served.

This latter view was taken by Hamilton, and as Freneau's attacks rose in crescendo, Hamilton's irritation finally led him, under a pseudonym, to print the following query (*U. S. Gazette*, July 25, 1792):

"The Editor of the *National Gazette* receives a salary from Government:

"Quere—Whether this salary is paid him for *translations;* or for *publications*, the design of which is to vilify those to whom the voice of the people has committed the administration of our public affairs—to oppose the measures of Government, and, by false insinuations, to disturb the public peace?

"In common life it is thought ungrateful for a man to bite the hand that puts bread in his mouth; but if the man is hired to do it, the case is altered. T. L."

Nor was it only Hamilton, and the host of scribblers the above note produced, who took this view of it. Jefferson himself records (Writings, i., 231) of Washington, that—

"He adverted to a piece in Freneau's paper of yesterday, he said he despised all their attacks on him personally, but that there never had been an act of the government, not meaning in the Executive line only, but in any line, which that paper had not abused. . . . He was evidently sore & warm, and I took his intention to be that I should interpose in some way with Freneau; perhaps withdraw his appointment of translating clerk in my office. But I will not do it."

This incident has been the subject of much discussion in the biographies of Jefferson and Hamilton, varying views being taken by their respective partisans. Whether a journalist is not as morally disqualified from salaried public office as a lawyer is from the jury panel, will probably ever be a question of elasticity of conscience rather than of accepted convention. But in this particular case the chief importance turns on the doubt whether Freneau was subsidized with an office to encourage him to start the *Gazette* in order that he might attack what Jefferson disapproved in the course of the Government, or was merely given the office without regard to his opinions or paper, because he could perform its duties satisfactorily. Despite Hamilton's failure at the time to obtain proof of his contention, his partisans have, from obvious inference, maintained the former view. Jefferson himself, in a letter to Washington (September 9, 1792), claimed that the appointment was solely one of merit, and not with expectation that it would lead "to any criticism on the proceedings of Government." This was supported by an affidavit of Freneau, made in consequence of the above anonymous note of Hamilton, and printed at the time (*U. S. Gazette*, August 8, 1792):

"Personally appeared before me, Matthew Clarkson, Mayor of the City of Philadelphia, Philip Freneau, of the City of Philadelphia, who, being duly sworn, doth depose and say, That no negociation was ever opened with him by Thomas Jefferson, Secretary of State, for the establishment or institution of the *National Gazette;* that the deponent's coming to the City of Philadelphia, as publisher of a Newspaper, was at no time urged, advised, or influenced by the above officer, but that it was his own voluntary act; and that the said Gazette, nor the Editor thereof, was ever directed, controuled, or attempted to be influenced, in any manner, either by the Secretary of State, or any of his friends; nor was a line ever, directly or indirectly, written, dictated, or composed for it by that officer, but that the Editor has consulted his own judgment alone in the conducting of it—free—unfettered—and uninfluenced.

"PHILIP FRENEAU.

"Sworn the 6th August, 1792, before
"MATTHEW CLARKSON, Mayor."

This double testimony was so strong as to furnish a satisfactory denial to Hamilton's charge. Yet the situation was so delicate a one at best that both sets of biographers have carefully dodged discussing the ethics involved. Perhaps had a little more attention been paid to the existing evidence, the affair might have been made clear enough to receive more definite treatment.

On February 28, 1791, or a fortnight after the appearance of "the little rift within the lute" in Washington's Cabinet, caused by the disagreement over the Bank Bill, Jefferson wrote Freneau:

"The clerkship for foreign languages in my office is vacant. The salary indeed is very low, being but two hundred & fifty dollars a year. But also it gives so little to do as not to interfere with any other calling the person may chuse, which would not absent him from the seat of government. I was told a few days ago that it might perhaps be convenient to you to accept it. If so, it is at your service. It requires no other qualification than a moderate knowledge of the French. Should anything better turn up within my department, that might suit you, I should be very happy to be able to bestow it as well. Should you conclude to accept the present, you may consider it as engaged to you, only be so good as to drop me a line informing me of your resolution."

This offer, so Jefferson stated, was made at the suggestion of Henry Lee and Madison. Freneau's reply is not extant, but can be gathered from a letter from Madison to Jefferson (May 1, 1791):

"I have seen Freneau also and given him a line to you. He sets out for Philada. today or tomorrow, though it is not improbable that he may halt in N. Jersey. He is in the habit, I find, of translating the Leyden *Gazette* and consequently must be fully equal to the task you have alloted for him. He had supposed that besides this degree of skill, it might be expected that he should be able to translate with equal propriety into French: and under this idea, his delicacy had taken an insuperable objection to the undertaking. Being now set right as to this particular and being made sensible of the advantages of Philada. over N. Jersey for his private undertaking, his mind is taking another turn; and if the scantiness of his capital should not be a bar, I think he will establish himself in the former. At all events he will give his friends there an opportunity of aiding his decision by their information & counsel. The more I learn of his character, talents and principles, the more I should regret his burying himself in the obscurity he had chosen in N. Jersey. It is certain that there is not to be found in the whole catalogue of American Printers, a single name that can approach towards a rivalship."

To this Jefferson replied (May 9, 1791):

"Your favor of the 1st came to hand on the 3d. Mr. Freneau has not followed it. I suppose therefore he has changed his mind back again, for which I am really sorry."

Even more definite as to the project was a letter Jefferson wrote to his son-in-law, Randolph, on May 15, 1791:

"I enclose you Bache's as well as Fenno's papers. You will have perceived that the latter is a paper of pure Toryism, disseminating the doctrines of Monarchy, aristocracy, & the exclusion of the people. We have been trying to get another *weekly* or *half weekly* set up, excluding advertisements, so that it might go through the states & furnish a *whig vehicle* of intelligence. We hoped at one time to have persuaded Freneau to set up here, but failed."

The scheme, however, was not abandoned with this failure, for on July 21, 1791, Jefferson wrote to Madison:

"I am sincerely sorry that Freneau has declined coming here. Tho' the printing business be sufficiently full here, yet I think he would have set out on such advantageous ground as to have been sure of success. His own genius in the first place is so superior to that of his competitors. I should have given him the perusal of all my letters of foreign intelligence & all foreign newspapers; the publication of all proclamations & other public notices within my department, & the printing of the laws, which added to his salary would have been a considerable aid. Besides this, Fenno's being the only weekly, or half weekly paper, & under general condemnation for its toryism & its incessant efforts to overturn the government, Freneau would have found that ground as good as unoccupied."

Thus urged, Freneau reconsidered his refusal, and wrote (July 25, 1791) to Madison:

"Some business detains me here a day or two longer from returning to New York. When I come, which I expect will be on Thursday, if you should not have left the City I will give you a decisive answer relative to printing my paper at the Seat of Govt. instead of in N. York. If I can get Mr. Childs to be connected with me on a tolerable plan, I believe I shall sacrifice other considerations and transfer myself to Philadelphia."

Childs agreeing to join Freneau, the next move is disclosed in the following paper:

"DEPARTMENT OF STATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

"Philip Freneau is hereby appointed Clerk for foreign languages in the office of Secretary of State, with a salary of two hundred &

fifty dollars a year, to commence from the time he shall take the requisite oaths of qualification. Given under my hand and seal this 16th day of August, 1791. "TH. JEFFERSON."

A few weeks later the paper was started. It met with apparent success, till Genet's threat to "appeal" from Washington to the people so enraged the national spirit that it struck at "Republicanism," whether French or American. The *National Gazette* had been too conspicuous to escape from this "tidal wave"; subscriptions were withdrawn, and subscribers refused to pay, to such an extent that its notes went to protest and Freneau was compelled to abandon it, the last issue being made October 13, 1793. How close was the relation between the newspaper and the office is revealed in the following document:

"The within contains the appointment of Philip Freneau to the office of clerkship of Foreign Languages in the department of State—by Mr. Jefferson.

"I hereby resign the same appointment, from October 1st, 1793.

"PHILIP FRENEAU.

"PHILADELPHIA, October 11th, 1793."

On this Jefferson noted "rec'd. Nov. 7." Only a few weeks later he himself likewise retired from office. It was his first experiment in partisan appointments, and had resulted only in bad feeling and untruths, while certain to bring discredit to him later. But he did not learn from it, any more than his successors have done, the danger of party patronage or the folly of a "muzzled press."

PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

MEMOIRS OF THE DIRECTORY—I.

PARIS, January 31, 1895.

THE period of the French Revolution which separates the tragedies of the Terror from the epic years of the Empire is in reality less known to us than many less interesting parts of our history. The Directory loses too much in comparison with what preceded it and what followed. But the student of history who sees a development, an evolution, in the formation of society and the creation of all political institutions, ought, perhaps, to pay special attention to those years of the Directory which marked the transition between the old régime and the new one. The confusion of that period, the mediocrity of the leaders who survived the Robespierres and the Dantons, their meanness and often their infamy, their petty struggles, and, finally, their half-willing and half-forced abdication before a military Dictator who had become the armed representative of the principles of the Revolution—all these traits would form an admirable subject for an expert and profound historian; but the time is not yet come when such a history can be well written, according to the principles of the modern historical school, as many documents concerning that period have not yet come to light.

Not till a week ago have we been able to read the Memoirs of Larévellière-Lépeaux, who was one of the members of the Executive Directory of the French Republic. These memoirs are edited by his son from the autograph manuscript. The Director died on the 27th of March, 1824, having ordered that his manuscripts should not become accessible to anybody before 1873. The only persons who were allowed to take a partial survey of them after 1824 were M. de Lamartine and M. Thiers. Larévellière-Lépeaux had written his memoirs hastily and loosely, and he recommended that they should be revised and completed, with the help of some notes and papers which he left. Unfortunately, some of these notes, which were kept in a country house near Montmorency, disappeared during the first invasion of France, when the house was occupied by Hanoverian troops. Among the documents which were then burned or subtracted were the letters of Gen. Bonaparte to the Director during the campaigns of Italy. Long afterwards, the son of the Director left Paris to live in Anjou, leaving many papers in Paris in a box which was subsequently lost. It is fortunate that the manuscript of the memoirs was more carefully kept. It is not surprising that the Director wished his manuscript to be revised, but it is better that it should not have been, as the reader can easily make a sort of revision in his own mind, and it is always best to have what we call the *premier jet* of a writer. Larévellière speaks very harshly of some of the men with whom he had to associate; in some "Essential Observations on my Memoirs," he carefully advises his future editor to tone down some of his opinions and judgments.

Larévellière-Lépeaux was born on the 24th of August, 1753, at Montaigu, in Poitou. His father was of a family of "bourgeois de campagne," to use his own expression—he might have said of well-to-do peasants. If he had remembered the words of Pascal, "le moi est haïssable," he would have spared us many uninteresting details on his education and his youth. He really becomes interesting only when he becomes a public man. He was elected in Anjou a deputy to the States-General for the Tiers-État. He played no part in the great debates of the Constituent Assembly; he was afterwards appointed deputy of the Convention, and became a witness of and obscure actor in the great struggles of the Girondins and the Jacobins. He had, he says, taken the resolution "to attach himself to no party, to no chief of party, to vote always according to his conscience." He was a member of the Plain, so called in contradistinction to the Mountain. In the trial of Louis XVI. he voted for the death of the King. In a conference which he had during the trial with the members of the Gironde, Vergniaud, Pétion, and others, he made a speech which is found in the memoirs: he said that if the Convention absolved Louis XVI., the municipality of Paris, the sections, the populace, would surely murder the King and his family in the Temple, dissolve the Convention, and proclaim the Commune. "On the other hand, if you vote for condemnation—the only thing that you can do in our unhappy circumstances—your adversaries will not have the faintest pretext for suspecting your patriotism and for becoming popular at your expense; you will preserve such a moral force and such an influence that, with courage and with perseverance, you will break down the detestable projects of the anarchists."

Such arguments will recur in every great political crisis, and they are too often found convincing. The Girondins who sacrificed the King in order to keep the moral force and the popularity Larévellière-Lépeaux speaks of, lost, on the contrary, all their force and their popularity, and became the victims of Danton, who became himself the victim of Robespierre, who, in his turn, became the victim of the men of Thermidor. The Revolution, like Saturn, devoured its children; the survivors were the men of the Plain who were saved by their subserviency to the dominant party, by their silence and their obscurity. Larévellière had at times some glimpses of courage—he dared once or twice to oppose at the tribune the motions of the Jacobins; but, as he says, "a majority, however great it may be, becomes by degrees a small minority when its most important members imprudently become unpopular and allow themselves to be subjugated by a turbulent and tenacious minority." "Every day a concession is made, in the hope that the minority will be grateful to you and will abandon its unjust pretensions—nothing is more fatal than such a calculation"; such words are applicable to all times and to all assemblies.

Larévellière-Lépeaux dared to speak against the creation of the famous revolutionary tribunal. Some of his friends resigned because the decisions of the Convention were always proclaimed officially to have been unanimous, though they had opposed them. "My friends Pilastre and Leclerc resigned so as not to seem to take part in the extravagant and atrocious measures which were adopted every day. . . . As for myself, who was accustomed to speak, I did not think that I ought to resign; I wished to struggle to the end." He could not stay long, however, in the Convention; he was informed that a warrant had been issued against him, and he took flight to a sort of hermitage in the Forest of Montmorency, where Bosc had received already Roland and others. (The Memoirs of Mme. Roland were hidden for a long time in that little hermitage of Sainte-Radegonde.) Bosc and Larévellière had to live there on a little bread, potatoes, and milk. The latter travelled on foot for twelve days, in constant fear of being recognized, from Sainte-Radegonde to the house of M. de Buire, whom he had known in the States-General, near Péronne. He there learned the news of the arrest of Robespierre and of his execution, and returned to Paris. The party which was afterwards called the party of Thermidor, had at its head Tallien, Barras, Fouché, Fréron, Legendre. It was formed of the remains of the party of the Duc d'Orléans and of the party of Danton, and some of its members were secretly allied with the royalists and with the agents of the princes in exile. Cambacérès and Boissy d'Anglas had joined it.

It would be tedious to dwell on the divisions of the Assembly which was preparing the constitution that goes under the name of the Constitution of the Year iii. Larévellière was one of the members of the committee of eleven which framed this constitution. Except Daunou, Lanjuinais, and Boissy d'Anglas, all the other members are now absolutely forgotten. The executive power was confided to a committee or directory of five members, elected by two Legislative Councils—the Council of the Ancients and the Council of the Five Hundred. The Committee of Public Safety was still in existence, and Larévellière was appointed a member of it along with Daunou. But the Convention and the famous committee were no longer what they had been.

"The Convention was no longer the assembly of which the chiefs of factions, with the help of the execrable arms of the Terror, had made a unit with a terrible activity. It was now a mob without consistence, a mass without adhesion, formed of the incoherent remains of all the parties which had in succession destroyed each other. The state of the Convention was the faithful image of the state of France. The Committee of Public Safety, the real heart of the state, the only centre to which everything could have been attached, which could give movement to all, had fallen into complete dissolution."

Cambacérès was president of the committee. When he arrived at ten o'clock in the morning, his first care was to order a good *pot-au-feu*, and to have on the table excellent bread and wine—two things which could hardly be

found anywhere at the time but there. The other members arrived. "'President, is there anything new?' 'Why, no,' was generally the answer. The newcomers approached the *pot-au-feu*, took a bouillon, helped themselves to a slice of the beef, which they ate with good white bread and excellent Burgundy, *tarde venientibus ossa*." The chief preoccupation was the question of food and the question of paper money. The whole night was spent in printing the assignats which were necessary for the next day. Sometimes a deputation of women came asking for bread. There was a deputy, named Roux, who had the specialty of receiving them. His bureau was in the attic of the Tuileries; the way to it was a very long, narrow and steep staircase.

"When the head of the column arrived at the top, Roux went out of his office, asked them to stop and be silent, and, whether they were so or not, from this tribune he began a speech the duration of which was three, four, six hours or more, if necessary, according to the obstinacy of the petitioners. Interruptions, clamor, threats, nothing could stop this torrent of eloquence, full of all the commonplaces which everybody repeated in those times. At last, exhausted and overfed with vain words instead of bread, these unfortunate women marched off one by one, and when they were reduced to a small number, Roux took leave of them, recommending them to carry peace and hope to their families. . . . On a certain day in Germinal he perorated before a numberless multitude from eight or nine o'clock in the morning till towards five or six o'clock at night. He several times saved the Convention in this way from rather serious insurrections."

The conversations between Roux and Cambacérès are very amusing; they always ended in the preparation of a good repast for Cambacérès and the committees; the suppers often lasted till three or four o'clock in the morning. "Daunou and I," says the virtuous Larévellière, "have not to reproach ourselves with having ever taken a part in these sacrilegious repasts, either in the morning or in the evening." He is indignant at the "insane joy, the scandalous *bombance*, of the members of the committees, but is willing to admit that some relaxation was sure to follow the ferocity of the Terrorist Committee of Public Safety.

The Convention died its natural death on the 4th Brumaire Year iv, and the Constitution of the Year iii went into operation by a rearrangement of the Deputies in two chambers—the Five Hundred and the Ancients. The two councils elected the first Directory, composed of Larévellière, Rewbell, Barras, Letourneur, and Sieyès, who refused the nomination.

"On the 11th Brumaire, at ten o'clock in the morning, Rewbell, Barras, Letourneur, and myself went to the place of meeting of the Committee of Public Safety. We took there some writing-paper, an inkstand, a knife, and a few pens; then we went all four to the Petit Luxembourg [a house annexed to the Luxembourg, now inhabited by the President of the Senate], in the same carriage, surrounded, according to the terms of the Constitution, with a guard of 140 men on foot and 140 men on horseback. The dragoons who formed this escort had bad shoes, or stockings in rags instead of shoes. We found all the apartments absolutely bare—not a piece of furniture. The porter gave us a small table and four chairs which belonged to him. He made us also a present of a little wood, as the weather was very cold."

In this empty room and on this miserable table was written the act announcing to France that the Directory had entered upon its executive functions. The next day, Carnot, who had been elected in place of Sieyès, came and added his signature to the solemn document.

Correspondence.

A DOUBLE MOTIVE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It was a very significant vote, 165 to 120, by which the House of Representatives on Thursday defeated Mr. Cleveland's alternative of a 3 per cent. gold bond at par, though it is characteristically described as Mr. Wilson's gold-bond resolution. It is safe to say that hostility to any initiative by the President was a stronger incentive than any feeling about silver. It is amusing also to see the frantic efforts of members and of Republicans outside of Congress to divert public wrath by reviling the President for making a bad bargain—in short to

> "Compound for sins they are inclined to
> By damning those they have no mind to."

But the wind is completely taken out of their sails by the fact that, if they did not like the bargain, it was in their power, by a resolution of the simplest honesty, to convert it into a different bargain, as good as is commanded by any government in the world.

There is a charming simplicity, again, in the pretext that if these bonds were made payable in gold it would throw doubt upon the older ones, which are not; as if those bonds were not issued when there was no disparity between silver and gold, or as if the resolution could not state that, while expressed in the new bonds, it shall be regarded as implied in the old ones.

Far more important than any question of silver or of currency is that of the relation of the executive to the legislature: whether this country is to be governed by the discordant struggles of private and party intrigue in Congress, or by the steadying power of responsible executive government, subject to the approval or disapproval of Congress after full public debate, bringing out motives and character in a white light before public opinion.

Mr. Cleveland has done already magnificent service in this direction, and the whole currency complication will prove to be a blessing instead of a curse if it shall force to the front this most momentous of all issues. The next step which the President might take is to announce that the Secretary of the Treasury will appear before no more committees either of the House or the Senate. Henceforth, if the legislature wishes information from the executive branch, it can have it through an authorized agent in public session of either house, but it cannot summon the chief officers of the Government like an ordinary witness before a factional committee, and then, after cross-examination, transmute his evidence into something which it may suit the legislature to consider and vote upon without any intervention of those who are responsible for carrying on the government of the country. G. B.

Boston, February 16, 1895.

WASHINGTON AND BRADDOCK'S FIELD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Moncure D. Conway, in his article in the *Nation* of February 14, 1895, headed "Washington's Purchase of Braddock's Field," exhibits an amazing lack of information. He evidently believes that the Great Meadows, in which Fort Necessity was situated, was the scene of Braddock's disastrous defeat, when in fact the Great Meadows is in what is now Fayette County, Pa., and Braddock's Field is in Alleghany County, Pa. I do not at this moment recollect the exact distance between them, but Braddock's army passed the Great Meadows June 25, and reached the ground where he was defeated July 9, 1755. He was defeated on the right bank of the Monongahela River, just below the mouth of Turtle Creek, not far from the present city of Pittsburgh.

Of course every one familiar with the life of Washington is aware that he owned the "Great Meadows." Isaac Craig.

Alleghany, February 16, 1895.

THE GEOFFROY SAINT HILAIRES AND BORY DE SAINT-VINCENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In neither of the appreciative notices of the "Columbia University Biological Series" published in recent numbers of the *Nation* (February 7 and 14) has rectification been made of faults in names of several authors. As future editions of the excellent works in question may be demanded, I take the liberty of calling attention to them.

Extended notices are given by Prof. Osborn of the Geoffroy Saint-Hilaires, but the professor evidently believed that the elder (Étienne Geoffroy St.-Hilaire) had Geoffroy as a Christian name, and that the younger was called Isidore St.-Hilaire. The fact is, that both had as the family name Geoffroy St.-Hilaire, and both were called Geoffroy in familiar intercourse and even sometimes in formal memoirs. Both were called Geoffroy only, in passages in early works by Cuvier and other friends; and in the obituary eulogy by Quatrefages of the younger man, after the introduction, the subject is simply called M. Geoffroy or M. Isidore Geoffroy. In all bibliographies of repute the works of both men are catalogued under the name of Geoffroy St.-Hilaire. The original family name was simply Geoffroy, and Quatrefages says: "Une des branches de la famille *Geoffroy* a donné trois membres à l'Académie des Sciences dans le xviii^e^ siècle." If it is undesirable to give the full name, Geoffroy should be used and never alone St.-Hilaire, which is the name of another distinguished family.

The Baron Bory de St.-Vincent is likewise designated only under the tail end of the name (St.-Vincent) by Prof. Osborn at the page where his views are outlined (p. 205) at the head of the page, as well as in the introduction (p.11), the retrospect (p. 249), and the index (p. 258), although in his quotation from Quatrefages's "Sketch of his Views," he is correctly named Bory. If a short form is needed, Bory is sufficient, and was used by the French author himself, but St.-Vincent should never be used alone. Bory's full name was Jean-Baptiste Georges Marie Bory de Saint-Vincent.

Theo. Gill.

Smithsonian Institution, February 15, 1895.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. will issue this month 'Evolution and Effort,' by Edmond Kelly, and 'The Story of the Stars,' by G. F. Chambers, first of a series of "little books dealing with various branches of knowledge."

'Birdcraft,' by Mabel Osgood Wright, to be published by Macmillan, will be distinguished from similar works by plates of birds in their

natural colors. The same firm has in preparation 'Æsthetic Principles,' by Henry Rutgers Marshall, and a volume of selections from Thoreau's Writings, by Henry S. Salt, his biographer.

West India sketches, under the title 'Gossip of the Caribbees,' will shortly be brought out by T. Fisher Unwin, London.

The proceedings at the Bryant centennial celebration in Cummington, Mass., last August, have been printed in an unpretentious volume of eighty pages, with a hitherto unpublished portrait of the poet for a frontispiece, and several local views. The book may be had of the Bryant Memorial Committee, Cummington, for $1 and $1.50, checks being made payable to Lorenzo H. Tower.

We need scarcely recur to the contents of the bound volumes of *Harper's Monthly* for 1894 (vols. 88, 89). *Harper's Weekly* for the same period (vol. 38) possesses its customary value as a pictorial mirror of the time. The Brazilian war, the war over Korea, the civil war known as the Chicago strike, the war against Tammany, the Tillman dispensary war in South Carolina, the campaign of Coxey's Army of the Commonweal, the Bluefields tempest in a teapot—these are some of the salient features of a disturbed year liberally illustrated with scenes and portraits. The illustrious dead are duly commemorated, and number Kossuth, Carnot, and Alexander III., Rubinstein, Helmholtz, Froude, and Holmes. The series of Congressional crayon portraits is continued, not often as unsuccessfully as in the case of Senator Lodge. But most worthy to be mentioned are the portraits of the leaders of the mushroom A. P. A., and of the chief English, French, and German Socialists. These will repay study. Decidedly the most interesting thing in this line in *Harper's Bazar* for 1894 (vol. 27) is the set of four portraits of two of the three female Assemblymen of Colorado, and the female State Superintendents of Public Instruction in that State and in Wyoming. These ladies are all very respectfully treated in biographical sketches which do not suggest the *Bazar's* opposition to woman suffrage. Otherwise, except for a portrait group of Mrs. Cleveland and the wives of Cabinet officers, politics is inconspicuous in the columns of the *Bazar*. Two serial stories, 'Highland Cousins,' by William Black, and Walter Besant's 'Beyond the Dreams of Avarice,' run through the volume, and here also ends the late Theodore Child's discourse on coiffures, 'Wimples and Crisping-pins,' since become a book. The book-notices are all but exclusively of novels or housekeeping works, and the exceptions are made by no apparent rule. The negro has pretty nearly disappeared from the humorous page of the *Bazar*, where he reigned supreme for many years.

"Made to sell" must be the verdict on 'Great Men and Famous Women: A Series of Pen and Pencil Sketches,' edited by Chas. F. Horne (New York: Selmar Hess). The first two volumes, of soldiers and sailors, are a hodge-podge which brings between two covers Frederick the Great, Bonaparte, Francis Marion, and Tecumseh. The sketches are partly borrowed from well-known English or Continental sources, partly written to order on this side of the water, where "Oliver Optic" seems a natural selection for the biographer of Grant, and Mrs. Amelia E. Barr of Sam Houston, who, she says, "on the roll of Fame, shines forth the noblest, the most princely, the most picturesque and chivalrous character in American history." The medley of illustrations is on a par with the letterpress. There are to be six more volumes like these.

The 41st volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) ends with O'Dugan. The tract of names embraced is noticeably barren of literary distinction. In politics we meet with Lord North, Daniel O'Connell, who occupies 28 pages, Smith O'Brien, Feargus O'Connor, and Sir Stafford Northcote, who, we are told, "as a financier, deserves high credit . . . for his acknowledgment of the fact that the income-tax had ceased to be a temporary impost"—an acknowledgment which our own political financiers of another generation may have to make, more or less cheerfully. American interest in this volume attaches not only to Lord North, but also to Nowell and Oakes, early New England worthies, and to the naturalist Nuttall. So recent a celebrity as the late Miss Marianne North has been caught by the editor in passing.

'On the Art of Writing Fiction' is the alluring title of a series of papers recently reprinted from a British magazine (London: Wells, Gardner, Darton & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). It is in a way a supplement to Mr. James Payn's suggestion, ten years ago, that novel-writing was a trade anybody could learn—a suggestion which was perhaps the "exciting cause" of Mr. Walter Besant's very practical lecture on the "Art of Fiction." There are eleven papers in the present volume, all by British story-tellers more or less known; and the advice they give is obviously intended for the British novice. The author of 'Mlle. Ixe,' for example, discusses the short story from the point of view of the British magazine, and without a single reference to Daudet or Maupassant, Miss Wilkins or Miss Jewett, and without any real understanding of the essential quality of the short story as distinguished on the one hand from the novel, and on the other from the character-sketch. Equally empty are the papers by Mrs. Parr and Mrs. Macquoid. Perhaps the one paper from which a beginner might benefit is the carelessly written chapter on "The Novel of Manners," by Mrs. Walford.

'The Making of the Body,' by Mrs. S. A. Barnett (Longmans), is an Anatomy and Physiology designed for children. The labored rendering of technicalities, and the very inconsequential stories introduced as explanations, would appear likely to bewilder instead of enlighten an ordinary child. If it is necessary to discuss the brain-membranes in such a book, why substitute for the common names such barbarisms as "The Hard Mother Covering," "The Spider-Web Covering," "The Pious Mother Covering"? Or, to illustrate the action of the nervous system, why introduce such rubbish as "The other day a young American girl said that when she first came to England she put her hands on the bars of the fire [*sic*], not knowing that they were hot enough to burn her, for in America they only use closed stoves"? Dr. Ernest Hart, who ought to know, in an introductory note speaks of this text-book as "delightful" and as "a fairy-tale which is true"; that it is "imaginative in diction [as it most surely is] and accurate in fact." If English school-children have the scientific use of the imagination cultivated in this fashion as a rule, we can well appreciate the astonishing grasp of the ridiculous that the adult mind sometimes displays.

We have received from George Parker Winship, Assistant in American History in Harvard College, a "List of Titles of Documents relating to America contained in Volumes i.-cx. of the *Colección de Documentos Inéditos para la Historia de España*," reprinted from the Bulletin of the Public Library of the City of Boston for October, 1894. Of the value of this little publication, or of the labor involved in its preparation, it is unnecessary to speak. Students of Spanish-American history, however, understand and appreciate it, and they will not be slow in acknowledging their obligations to Mr. Winship for simplifying a task in which the search for facts has, hitherto, been not unlike the proverbial "hunt for a needle in a haystack." That "a similar list of all the documents in this" and, we may add, in all "other Spanish collections is much to be desired" is true; and we doubt if American investigators will rest content until their wishes in this respect are gratified. In the meantime we can only hope that some one as well qualified as Mr. Winship, and with the requisite amount of time and enthusiasm, may be found to undertake the work.

Excepting the genus *Thomomys*, "North American Fauna, No. 8," by Dr. C. Hart Merriam, published by the United States Department of Agriculture, is a monographic revision of those destructive little rodents the "Pocket-Gophers" or "Pouched Rats," the *Geomyidæ*. The work is especially valuable to students of the mammalia. It forms a volume of two hundred and twenty pages, with nineteen plates, and numerous figures in the text, of skeletal details, and three plates of maps showing the distribution. Eight genera are recognized, seven of them being new; thirty-one species, sixteen being new; and five new sub-species. The map locates *Geomys* in southern Georgia and Alabama, in Florida, and in the States west of the Mississippi to the mountains, where it gives way to *Thomomys*, which extends to the Pacific, into British America, and into Mexico. The new genera are Mexican and Central American; one of them, *Cratogeomys*, ranges through New Mexico and Texas to Colorado.

Prof. Ludwig Schlesinger's 'Handbuch der Theorie der Linearen Differentialgleichungen' (Leipzig: B. G. Teubner) is a compilation based entirely upon the works of Fuchs and of the Fuchsians, Thomé, Poincaré, Frobenius, etc. Though without pretensions to originality, it is a work with which a mathematician cannot dispense. Herr Paul Günther, how related to Dr. Siegmund Günther we know not, is said to have collaborated upon certain chapters, especially, as might have been guessed, upon those that are historical. The second volume has yet to appear.

The twenty-eighth edition of the newspaper catalogue published by Rudolf Mosse's advertising agency in Hamburg, has recently appeared in an enlarged form. The different publications are arranged in classes according to subjects; in many cases the circulation is given, together with photographic reproductions in reduced form of a number of papers. The hints to advertisers are of special interest to American readers as showing the European practice in such matters.

That excellent British quarterly, the *Illustrated Archæologist*, has been amalgamated with a kindred publication, and begins the current year under the new designation of the *Reliquary and Illustrated Archæologist*, under the editorship of J. Romilly Allen, F.S.A. Scot. (London: Bemrose & Sons, 23 Old Bailey, E. C.). In the January number nothing is more interesting than the views of human and animal remains and personal belongings of the dead found in some Hunnish graves recently discovered at Cziko, near Buda-Pesth. Among the articles were styles like those used by the

Romans for their wax tablets—one in silver in a woman's hand.

In the *Tribuna* of Rome for January 28 we find a somewhat incoherent report of Dr. B. Amante's search for the tomb of Vittoria Colonna. Her remains have been positively identified in the same sepulchre with her husband's in a church at Naples.

The *Annales de Géographie* for January contains an interesting account of the earthquake at Constantinople, July 10, 1894, by D. Eginitis of Athens. In many places of the epicentre, or centre of disturbance, it was noticed that the swallows some minutes before the shock deserted their nests and flew, some high into the air, where they remained till the shocks had ceased; others took refuge in great numbers on the telegraph-wires. A submarine cable was cut, as by a knife, in many places, "probably from the fall of rocks." From the records of the different European seismometers, it appears that the earthquake-wave travelled at the average rate of a little over three kilometres a second. The direction of the epicentral axis makes it probable that it was not due to volcanic action, but that it was a phenomenon "de nature *tectonique*." Saint-Sophia fortunately escaped with only a few slight injuries to the decorations of the cupolas. The ancient Byzantine fortifications also remain nearly intact. M. A. L. d'Albéca discusses the future of Dahomey, which he paints in bright colors. He believes that all the trade of the Hinterland, as far as the Niger, will eventually fall into the hands of the French, now that the war has been brought to a close. The commerce at the French ports has more than doubled since 1890, and now amounts to nearly five million dollars annually. This is almost wholly the product of the oil-palm. Each tree is the property of an individual, the land being owned by the community, and even in the jungles every one knows his own tree and respects the property of the others. The income from a single tree is a little over two dollars a year.

The *Geographical Journal* for February opens with the description of the physical features of Kolgueff Island, in the Arctic Ocean, by Mr. A. Trevor-Battye, in the course of which he casually says that "on one occasion we caught at one haul of the net 3,300 brent-geese." J. v. Payer, in an animated account of the beauties of arctic scenery, tells of his projected artistic expedition to the east coast of Greenland. He proposes to start in June, 1896, and to take with him two landscape-painters, one animal-painter, and a photographer. Dr. D. Kerr-Cross describes an excursion into the mountainous region to the north of Lake Nyasa, inhabited by a tribe with finer villages and better-built houses than are to be found in any part of uncivilized Africa. The people are industrious, cultivating the ground so carefully with giant hoes that the "fields look as if they had been deeply ploughed, and every furrow is perfectly straight." Slavery is unknown among them, and "woman is accorded a very high place." Pure science is represented in the paper by Prof. W. M. Davis of Harvard University on the "Development of Certain English Rivers." The progress of the Siberian railway is described by P. Kropotkin, and there is a very interesting letter from Mrs. Bishop giving the latest incidents of her adventurous journey in the far East. In the course of it she says: "Korea is the most uninteresting country I have travelled in. The people seem the dregs of a race." During her river voyage to Mukden she encountered a five days' storm of incessant rain, which "turned the magnificent plain of Mantchuria into a malarious inland sea" eight feet deep. "I saw the destruction of over thirty prosperous villages, and had the happiness of saving some lives." In a postscript written from a Russian frontier military post, she refers to the assertion of some English papers that "Russia has massed 5,000 men on the Tumen River," and adds: "I have been along the whole Tumen frontier, and there are just *fifteen* men, the garrison at the mud hovel from which I now write."

The Chinese and Indian tea trade was the subject of an interesting paper recently read before the Society of Arts by Mr. A. G. Stanton. In it he showed that the bad work, the slovenly manufacture, and the dishonest makeshifts which gave the name of "lie tea" to portions of the staple export of China, are merely the industrial counterparts of the political corruption brought to light by the present war with Japan. From having practically the monopoly of the British market thirty years ago, China now supplies only 12 per cent. of the tea imported into Great Britain. In seventeen years the imports of Indian tea have risen from 27,000,000 to 178,000,000 pounds, mainly because of the care in manufacture and honesty in dealing of the Indian tea-grower.

In a lecture on the Nile, before the Royal Institution, Sir Colin Scott-Moncrieff, the head of the Irrigation Department in Egypt, strongly emphasized the fact that the possession of the Upper Nile was absolutely essential to the existence of that country. If Italy, for instance, occupied Khartum, her natural and proper course would be "to spread the waters of the Low Nile over the Sudan; and no nation in Europe understood irrigation so well as the Italians. What then would become of Egypt's cotton crops?" Or regulating sluices could be built across the outlet of the Victoria Nyanza, and Egypt could be flooded or its water-supply cut off at pleasure. He held it to be evident, therefore, that the river from this lake to the Mediterranean should be under one rule. This is significant in the light of Italy's recent operations against the Mahdists and her occupation of Kassala.

According to the census of 1891, the results of which have now been published, the population of Norway at that time consisted of 2,005,880 persons, of whom 968,255 were men and 1,037,625 women.

—Mr. James Rodway's 'In the Guiana Forest' (Scribners) conveys vividly the impressions made by the great forests of tropical South America upon a man who has acute artistic perceptions of nature and a poetical way of describing what he has seen. He justly dwells, again and again, on the struggle for existence, in plants and animals, ever going on in those deep forests. He describes the native inhabitant "with rare pictorial skill," as Mr. Grant Allen observes in the introduction to the volume; and the reader, after wandering through the trackless wastes of Guiana with the author, but without maps, dates, or even compass, at last emerges with relief, and is more than ever content with his own home in a civilized land. The book must be regarded as a poem rather than as a sober contribution to natural history; for while it is full of statements in regard to plants and animals, everything is told from a poet's standpoint, and in the whole book there is scarcely a fact stated in the exact way of the great naturalist whose doctrines are here made the foundation of a long and almost monotonous dream rather than essay. The truth is, that the struggle for life, the war between animal and animal, plant and plant, or animal and plant, not less than the occasional correlation between them, can be recognized in temperate or even in sub-arctic and arctic climates, not less truly than in a steaming tropical forest. The species are fewer, there is far less of life, but the evidences of the struggle and of the survival of the fittest are not less clear. The book contains a fair number of illustrations, apparently from photographs, one of them unfortunately named "In a mango swamp," when the word "mangrove" was evidently meant. The great defect is the want of exactness above hinted at. We are not told when the author's wanderings took place, we are not favored with any map or chart of his travels; and while he has a chapter about the rivers and creeks of Guiana, not a single river is called by name.

—Few recent volumes on Dante are so rich in interest as the new and complete edition of all Dante's writings, 'Tutte le Opere di Dante Alighieri, nuovamente rivedute nel testo,' that Dr. Edward Moore, the best-known English student of Dante, has prepared for the Oxford University Press (New York: Macmillan). This interest is due not only to the fact that, strange to say, all Dante's works have been for the first time printed in a single volume, whose clear type, convenient form, and scrupulous accuracy will doubtless make it a standard edition, but to the interesting and important new readings which Dr. Moore has introduced into the text. In a writer such as Dante, who seems to have weighed, in much of his work, the effect of almost every word, even slight textual changes become exceedingly suggestive. To comment on them in detail in these columns, however, would be to burden the general reader with confusing details. Let it suffice here briefly to describe the character of Dr. Moore's work. In the 'Vita Nuova' and the 'De Monarchia' he has followed almost exactly Witte's texts; in the 'Epistolæ,' the text of Fraticelli, corrected by the facsimile of the Grenoble MS.; in the 'Commedia,' Witte's text, with such alterations as would be expected from Dr. Moore's recent work on the textual criticism of the same poem. The greatest changes are in the 'Convito,' which is for the first time carefully and intelligently edited by an expert on the basis of two good manuscripts and the published texts. The text of the 'Canzoniere' is revised by Mr. York Powell, and the poems to some extent rearranged. Mr. Toynbee has added an excellent index of the proper names and important subjects mentioned or treated in all the works. The rule has been to include in this volume all that has been generally attributed to Dante, though we notice the omission of the spurious letter to Guido da Polenta, of the three others not generally printed, and of certain verses frequently, and with some show of reason, ascribed to him. It would have been a great advantage to have the principle rigidly carried out, and to possess in a single volume every line attributed to Dante to which the student of Dante might have occasion to refer; but the public should be, and doubtless will be, grateful for this exceedingly convenient edition, which we owe to Dr. Moore's scholarship and acumen.

—'Heine in Frankreich' is the title of a ponderous doctor dissertation of more than 450 pages, with which a young Swiss-American, Louis P. Betz, a pupil of Prof. Morf of Zürich, makes his scholarly début (Zürich:

Albert Müller). Although there is a good deal of rather shallow rhetoric and irrelevant information in this book, it is, for more reasons than one, a work of most decided merit. It not only gives a detailed account of Heine's relation to his French surroundings and contemporaries but it also places before us in chronological order and with great bibliographical fulness the French opinion of Heine, from Saint René Taillandier to Jules Lemaître; it narrates, again chronologically, the numerous attempts at French translations from Heine during the last sixty years; and, lastly, it traces the influence of Heine on French poetry and thought from the Romanticists and Parnassiens down to the most modern symbolism. Compared with the heated discussions as to Heine's poetic merits which have been raging in Germany ever since Menzel's violent attacks on him, the nearly unanimous appreciation of his genius on the part of the French critics, as brought out in this book, is truly remarkable. All the more so since Heine himself confessed that he always felt a stranger in France: "Mein Geist fühlt sich in Frankreich exiliert, in eine fremde Sprache verbannt." The last part of this remark, *i. e*, Heine's inability to enter fully into the spirit of the French language, is fully confirmed in an interesting chapter of Dr. Betz's book, in which it is proved beyond doubt that Heine never acted without assistance as his own translator. How slovenly and ungrammatically he would sometimes write, is demonstrated by several of his letters published in this connection. In one of them, addressed to Balzac, we have the sentence: "Accusez-moi *avec* deux mots la reception de ces lignes affin que," etc.

—The meagreness of the English records relating to Joan of Arc, considering the prominence of her exploits in the long conflict between England and France, has often been remarked. Of the documents dealing with her life and adventures which have thus far been discovered in England, none actually gives her name. An extract from a long petition from the Duke of Bedford to the King, in which Joan of Arc is described as "a disciple and lyme of the Feende, called the Pucelle, that used fals enchauntements and sorcerie," is given by Rymer. The Abbé Henri Debout, having failed to find the manuscript referred to by Rymer—"A. D. 1428, An 7 H. 6, Cott. Bib. Titus E. 5"—and being unable to account for its disappearance upon any reasonable hypothesis, concluded that no such manuscript had ever existed, and that the reference given by Rymer was spurious. An account of his search and of his conclusion has just been published at Paris in a brochure entitled 'Jeanne d'Arc et les Archives Anglaises.' Such an attack upon the English historiographer was not likely to pass unnoticed; and in the London *Athenæum* for January 12 Mr. J. M. Stone gives an account of his successful effort to verify the reference. The occurrence of the same reference in the appendix to the fifth volume of the 'Rotuli Parliamentorum,' from the eighteenth year of Henry VI. to the close of the reign, seemed to confirm Rymer's accuracy; and a careful search of the volume Titus E. 5 was rewarded by finding the above-quoted extract from the petition of the Duke of Bedford on folio 372. So that, to quote Mr. Stone, "the fragment in question is where Rymer, Topham, and Astle said it was, and M. Debout is not only mistaken in declaring the absence of any such document, but his theories founded upon its non-existence, and set forth in his pamphlet, are without the slightest foundation."

—Augustus Strindberg, the Swedish writer, who is equally well known as misogynist and as playwright, has lately been visited by a representative of the *Temps* at the hospital of St. Louis in Paris, where he has been confined in consequence of some indiscreet chemical experiments. Strindberg's mind, according to his own account of it, is many-sided, and it is a little hard to make out where his chief interests lie. He studied medicine at first, but took to the theatre in 1870. His second play, "Master Olaf," was refused, and he went into other work, entering the Royal Library at Stockholm, and devoting himself to scientific and historical labors. He wrote a history of Sweden in two volumes, and in 1879 he presented to the Academy of Inscriptions in Paris a memoir on the relations between Sweden and China. In 1880 his "Master Olaf" was played with success, and this brought him back to the theatre again, and led him to write the twenty or more plays which have made his reputation. In 1883 he went to Paris, where he collaborated with Leconte de Lisle, Coppée, Hérédia, and others in the *Monde Poétique*, a Parnassian review. Since then, he says, he has made some slight contributions to science, such as a new process of celestial photography, the extraction of carbon from sulphur, and the demonstration of a nervous system in plants. Last year he published, in German, "the first fascicule of a great work, the 'Antibarbarus,' which will be a complete revision of the physical and natural sciences." His latest triumph, so far as we have noted, is in a "vivisection" in the *Revue Blanche* for January, entitled "De l'infériorité de la femme." In it he gathers together in a pleasing mass everything that he can find to his purpose out of all the men of science from Aristotle to Lombroso, and all the philosophers from Rousseau to Nietzsche, and launches it full at what St. Augustine calls the *devotus fœmineus sexus*. That more patient and gentler sex seems not yet to have turned its attention to him, or to have remonstrated with him. When it does, he may perhaps seek safety among the explosives of his laboratory.

—The second Memoir from the Biological Laboratory of Johns Hopkins University is a monograph of the genus *Salpa* by Prof. W. K. Brooks, the result of many years' investigation of a difficult and technical subject. A summary of the author's conclusions on the origin and development of the life of the open sea, to which he devotes a chapter, is not without general interest. He first points out that practically all pelagic animals are carnivorous, and that there is nothing in the sea comparable with the great army of highly organized herbivora of the land. Plants are rare away from the shores, and consist of minute unicellular algæ and diatoms. On these the small shrimp-like copepod crustaceans feed, little creatures of which thousands may be contained in a glass of sea-water. These copepods are the real harvest of the sea, and the basis on which the subsistence of the more highly organized carnivores depends. All highly organized pelagic animals give evidence of having passed through a stage of life connected with the coasts, the land, or the sea-bottom. The largest existing animals are pelagic, but the few which are primitively pelagic are very small and simply organized. The latter fact is due to the easy conditions of pelagic life, in which there is no fierce competition, and the environment is so simple that there is little chance for diversity of habits. Survival is determined by accidental space-relations rather than by a struggle of competitors.

—The primitive pelagic fauna consisted of small animals of simple structure, but representing a number of diverse types. The appendicularia and veiled medusæ are also regarded as primitive types, and from the copepods the author would derive the whole group of crustacea. This fauna probably flourished at the surface before the bottom of the deep sea (owing to a want of oxygen and other causes) was habitable. Marine life is older than terrestrial life, and as all marine life has shaped itself in relation to the pelagic food-supply, the latter is the only independent factor, and must therefore be the oldest. For a vast period of time life consisted of an innumerable multitude of a few pelagic types living at the surface. No great advance took place until the sea-bottom became habitable. Bottom colonies started in shallow water were exposed to numerous accidents from which those at greater depths were free, and it is possible that the first deep-water fauna may have been the one to persist and the source of most modern forms. Crowded on the bottom, the colonists were brought into competition with each other; divergencies and differentiation arose. Since competition must always be sharpest between near relatives with similar habits, the connecting forms were rapidly eliminated. The olenellus fauna of the Cambrian, the oldest fauna known, may not have represented a long period of slow differentiation into types, but, from its approximation to the hypothetical colonies, may perhaps represent a rapid differentiation of forms comparatively near to the primitive fauna of the Archæan Sea.

MASTERPIECES OF GREEK SCULPTURE.—I.

Masterpieces of Greek Sculpture: A Series of Essays on the History of Art. By Adolph Furtwängler. Edited by Eugénie Sellers, with 19 full-page plates and 200 text illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. Pp. xxiii., 487.

No one is announced as the translator of this work, and the lady who is mentioned as editor makes it clear, in her long preface, that she has taken the book to pieces and put it together again in a fashion which would seem to make her a joint author. So numerous are the changes, announced and implied, that the editor finds it necessary to state that in certain cases she has preserved the original text. "Here," the editor says, speaking of the chapters on the Venus of Milo, the Apollo of the Belvedere, and the Acropolis Temples, "the only alterations are those that have been introduced by the author himself." Mention of the theories of those who have disputed the Pheidian origin of the Parthenon sculptures has been "relegated to foot-notes." Reference is made "throughout to the English edition of Prof. Helbig's 'Museums of Classical Art in Rome,'" a book which we are told is to appear almost simultaneously with the present one. Compression has been freely used, and the editor confesses to having "left rather more to the imagination of the reader than is usual in a German work of this nature." Forty-five illustrations are given which were not in the German edition, and the editor states that she has tried, in arranging them, "to con-

vince the reader of what great results might be achieved with the help of a collection of casts comprising . . . all or nearly all the extant products of classical art, whatever their period, and supplemented by a complete series of photographs." Photographs have been used in place of some inferior illustrations of the German edition, and these new pictures the editor introduces with special mention.

It is true that Prof. Furtwängler is stated to have sanctioned all the editorial alterations; but it still remains apparent that this is a work by Prof. Furtwängler and Miss Eugénie Sellers, and that the competency of the editor as well as of the well-known Berlin professor is involved. The author's preface stands, however, dated Berlin, 1893, as his declaration of his intentions in his important essay. He announces, speaking of his inquiries into sculpture, that "the material treated in this book consists for the most part of antique copies," and he explains that this is because most of the important works of antiquity can be known to us by copies only. He claims for the Roman copies of early Greek and Hellenistic sculpture a special value as distinguished from the originals found in Greece and in the islands of late years. The copies, he thinks, have preserved for us "that pick of the masterpieces of the classical epoch which pleased ancient taste and connoisseurship in the times of highest culture." The assumption is, of course, that the greater number of original Greek works recently discovered are not such masterpieces—in which assumption the author is on safe ground; but he thinks, moreover, that it is possible to discriminate in the copies between what is derived from the original and what is added by the copyist. It is pointed out that a close comparison of the different existing ancient copies, not hitherto feasible, can now be carried on by means of photographs. He admits, however, the "rich mine of error" which is to be found in inquiries of this kind.

It will be thought by many that another "rich mine of error" is to be found in the attribution of existing works to celebrated ancient artists. The author seems to be aware that he has been bold in this matter of attribution. Assuredly an extremely cautious, almost an agnostic, position befits the investigator in these matters. Thus, as all we know of the characteristics of Skopas's work in sculpture is by inference, by putting this and that together and drawing the conclusion that Skopas must have been an artist with such and such characteristics, it is rash to ascribe individual works to the school of Skopas merely because they are found to possess the same characteristics. To do so is to make a conventional Skopas; it is to create a sculptor of a certain peculiar order of merit and to call the sculptor "Skopas," and the works in question the work of the "Skopasian School." There is no doubt that the German plan of starting theories, right or wrong, and of considering him a poor and unprofitable scholar who has no new theories to offer, has been the cause of a great advance in scholarship. It is not the less certain that, given any particular theory, one should be slow to accept it even if an excellent German name is signed to it. Each student must form his own opinions as to the relative rashness or conservatism of each separate archæologist.

An examination of the text shows much of that "boldness of attribution" which the author thinks we shall find in his work, but also a willingness to go with previous writers in their conclusions, though their names may not be mentioned. An instance of such an acceptance of received attributions is the assumption (p. 295) that the group in Munich, No. 96 of Brunn's catalogue, is a close copy of the Eirene and Ploutos of Kephisodotos. This is also an instance of the general tendency in archæology to reason too closely from slight evidence; to set up a probability, and then to argue from it as from a fact. The Munich group may well indeed be a copy of the original work described by Pausanias, but to assume that it is such a copy, and a close and accurate one; to find in the treatment of the drapery an intentional resemblance to the drapery of Pheidias sixty years before; to infer from this that the sculptor had the deliberate purpose to embody in his statue the national hopes of the Athenians of a revival of a maritime supremacy like that of the days of Perikles and Pheidias, is to argue in a circle. Such theories are admirably suggestive if treated as theories and suggestions, and it is as a suggestion only that this very theory is stated in Brunn's invaluable catalogue and in Friedrichs-Wolters' 'Die Gipsabgüsse Antiker Bildwerke'; but the tone of the text before us is not suggestive nor theoretical.

In the chapter devoted to Pheidias (p. 6) occurs a curious instance of the way in which this sort of argument is conducted. The two statues of Athena from the Chigi collection now in the Dresden Museum, Nos. 69 and 72 of Hettner's catalogue, being under discussion, there is question as to what was held in the right hand, which, with the arm, is missing in either statue. A cast of a gem is cited, the original gem being unknown to the author and editor, and the author's note states that, from the cast or impression, he had thought it modern, but now thinks it of the time of Augustus. This cast, of which a cut is given, shows a head, very fairly like the heads of the two statues under consideration, with "the short, knotted-up hair, leaving the ear free, the fillet, the neck, the opening of the drapery on the breast, even the folds falling over the left breast, the transverse ægis, and the raised left upper arm." Certainly there is good reason for the supposition that the gem was copied from a statue of the same type as the two Dresden statues. In the field of the gem, near and a little above the right shoulder, is a small crested helmet, and with this helmet the text before us deals in the following words (p. 6): "In the field in front of the left shoulder is a helmet. Such objects on gems are never mere 'symbols' as they are on coins; therefore I think it quite certain that the artist, who had not room in the picture for the right arm, wished at least to indicate that the goddess bore a helmet in her right hand. This trait completes our conception of the original statue." That is all. Observe the reasoning: the cast is from a gem, probably of Roman time though long thought modern; it gives a head very like the heads of these two statues; there is a helmet in the gem near the right shoulder; therefore the original statue (*i. e.*, the lost bronze which it is hoped to restore in thought by consideration of its supposed copies) had a helmet in the right hand.* Good theorizing, excellent and fruitful suggestion; but how about the phrase "quite certain," and the statement in the succeeding paragraph about "the composition which we have thus won back"?

*A. S. Murray, in his 'History of Greek Sculpture' (1893), suggests that the helmet was in the hand, his reason being that ancient writers dwell on the beauty of the face, which would otherwise have been hidden. He gives a terracotta statuette holding the helmet in the right hand, with the forearm extended.

The rest of the argument, which goes to show that the lost original was the Lemnian Athena by Pheidias, described by Pliny and Lucian, is similar in character to the arguments previously cited. It is full of suggestions which show a wide knowledge of extant sculptures and a great quickness of eye and of memory in bringing things together; but each step in the argument is long, and there is indefinite possibility of other suggestions arising which will make those steps hereafter impossible. It seems odd, by the way, that these statues in Dresden should be spoken of as life-size when the catalogue itself gives them as seven feet high. Let the statues in question be called hereafter the Lemnian Athena—that will do very well as a name of convention, like the name Panathenaic given to the frieze of the Parthenon; but as for a reasonable certainty of the names being correct, that is another matter. It should always be kept in mind that not one existing piece of sculpture is known to be by Pheidias. All attempts to judge by internal evidence that a given work of art is a copy of one of his must proceed in a tentative way, as thus: The sculptures of the Parthenon must be by him, at least in part, because he was the best sculptor of his time, and these are the best works of the time; because, moreover, Plutarch states (we quote the Dryden-Clough translation) that "Pheidias had direction of all the works and was surveyor-general"; but as the sculptures of the Parthenon are by him, so other works in which the drapery is cast in a similar way, and so on, must also be by him. We say again it is a matter of convention: it is a Pheidias of convention who executed the Parthenon sculptures, and whose style we learn to judge from them, and this conventional Pheidias was very probably the author of the lost original statue from which the Dresden statues are copied. Of the real Pheidias less is known. It is altogether well that some ascriptions should be accepted as working hypotheses, but only on condition that their lack of confirmation by direct testimony should be admitted continually. In this direction it is really a pleasure to meet with a statement like that on page 307: "Our knowledge of the art of Praxiteles rests primarily on the extant original statue, the Hermes of Olympia."

All this extreme readiness to fix names and dates, and to decide upon as fact that which is only approximate probability, is harmless when addressed to archæologists. They will be ready to distinguish the settled and certain from the probable and plausible, and they will be only too ready, with this as with the parent work, the 'Meisterwerke der Griechischen Plastik,' to object to all, even the most probable theories, and to set up others over against them. Treating this book, then, as a book for the archæologists, it is of really extraordinary value. The readiness of suggestion, the immense knowledge of the extant works of art from which to draw suggestions, the swift dexterity with which one work of art is used to interpret another, make this a really epoch-making work. If the German original were under consideration, little else than these merits would need to be spoken of; but the offering of an English version very fully illustrated is, almost of necessity, the offering of a book for the artist and the general student of fine-art.

In this capacity, as a work for general reading, the illustrations are of supreme value. The less known and less accessible sculptures are those chosen for photographing, such as statues and busts in private collections; those newly discovered; those if not newly disco-

vered, at least newly put in places easy of general access; those which have hitherto excited little attention; and finally those which may be said never to have existed before in modern times, made up as they are of pieces brought together according to new suggestions. Thus, we have among the eighteen large photogravures two views of the statues of Athena in Dresden named above, one of those statues modified by the substitution of a plaster cast of the Bologna head (Friedrichs-Wolters, 519) for its previously attached head in marble, and with these a side view of the Bologna head by itself and on a large scale. Here, too, is a photogravure of the Amazon at Lansdowne House in London; a statue in the Villa Medici at Rome, completed by placing upon it a head called the head of Meleager; a little-known female head in Lord Leconfield's collection, and a splendid bronze bust which, though in the Louvre, is assuredly not often cited. The two hundred text-illustrations, principally photographic, are equally important except in the beauty of the prints. Many of them give in different aspects the same works which are shown in the plates. Among them are also the Hermes of the Palatine Hill, now in the new museum at Diocletian's Baths in Rome, a wonderful statue in the Barracco collection at Rome, the Farnese Gladiator in the Naples Museum given without the restorations, and other statues similarly put back into their actual condition as broken, but no longer disguised, vestiges of antiquity.

Among the illlustrations which are not photographic, the more important serve to show the author's decision as to the proper original condition of a work of art. Such is the restoration of the Aphrodite of Melos (p. 380), her left hand holding an apple resting upon a square pillar, and her right hand sustaining the drapery on the left thigh. Such is the restoration, page 127, of a badly restored statue in the Vatican, the so-called Alcibiades; the changes from the statue as it now stands in the Hall of the Biga being not radical in character but extremely suggestive, and giving a Greek aspect to that which had been made into a pseudo-Roman warrior. Such is the restoration (p. 88) of a torso in the Cassel Gallery as a Hephaistos in the spirit of a head in the Vatican; the two fragments being combined into a true-seeming Greek statue.

THE DEAD TSAR.

Alexander III. of Russia. By Charles Lowe, M.A. Macmillan & Co.

THE private character and sovereign deeds of the late Emperor Alexander III. of Russia are likely to furnish material for debate during a long time to come. Mr. Lowe has acted wisely, from a business point of view at least, in getting his Life of the Emperor promptly upon the market; and, until M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu shall see fit to give us his opinion on the subject, this Life will, probably, exert a widespread influence. This is unfortunate for Russia and the foreign public, but will, no doubt, be profitable to Mr. Lowe. The public loves dearly an overwhelming arraignment, a crushing condemnation of things and people, especially of powerful things and people. That is, practically, what Mr. Lowe has given us—a denunciatory history from a thoroughly British standpoint.

The plan of his book is very good. In a well-digested preliminary chapter he relates the history of Alexander III.'s ancestors, beginning with Catherine II. Within that hundred-years' limit we must, in effect, seek the genesis of most of the traits embodied in the character of any modern Emperor of Russia down to the present date, though historical precedent now bids us look for a fresh departure—so far as the strong national characteristics and traditions will permit—at any moment. But, from the outset, Mr. Lowe is inclined to adopt the least favorable version of any historical incident, and to omit significant details which would cast quite a different light upon the monarch with whom he is dealing at the moment. For example: he states that Nicholas I. was made to succeed Alexander I. in 1825 because the rightful heir, the intervening brother, Constantine Pavlovitch, was such a startling copy in mind and person of his mad father Paul that he had to be passed over, and allowed to indulge his brutal and eccentric passions in the innocuous obscurity of private life. If true, that would be the reverse of discreditable to Russia, but it has always been accepted as a fact that Constantine voluntarily resigned his right to the throne in order that he might marry a fascinating Polish Countess. Again, Mr. Lowe states that Nicholas I., on his death-bed, exhorted his son and successor to liberate the serfs. He would have done more justice to the characters of Alexander I. and Nicholas I. had he mentioned the projects for liberation and the actual liberation effected by those sovereigns. The omission tends to intensify the faults of temper and government which he attributes to them.

Mr. Lowe, as correspondent of the London *Times*, was the only English newspaper man admitted to the cathedral at the coronation of Alexander III., of which he gives a vivid and interesting description; and he also saw state festivities in Berlin on the occasion of a visit of the late Emperor (whom he wrongly calls "the Russian Emperor") to the German Emperor. But his information is almost wholly derived from other persons, such as "E. B. Lanin," Mr. W. T. Stead, Prof. Geffcken, and English newspaper correspondents, to whom he always gives due credit. That Russian sources of information were not directly open to him we have a right to infer from his anecdote anent Alexander III.'s Teutophobia, on p. 25. Had he known even the Russian alphabet he would not have printed that anecdote, of manifestly German invention; "Woronzoff" is spelled with a *v* in Russian, and *v* is the third letter in the Russian alphabet, not almost the last as here represented. The "supper of sour milk and prostokvasha rusks" (p. 277) proves the same thing. "Prostokvasha [bonnyclabber] and rusks" was the statement of Dr. Zakharin, as printed officially in the Russian press; "prostokvasha rusks" being non-existent.

The question is, to what degree is an Englishman, who is totally unacquainted with the language, and but little acquainted with the habits and minds of the Russians, while thoroughly imbued with a British patriotism which approaches violent Russophobism, to be trusted in the choice of his quotations and in the deductions which he draws therefrom? He sets out with an evident desire to be fair, but his style speedily becomes so intense that the reader feels as if his brain were being belabored, and he is physically exhausted. In general it may be said that Mr. Lowe, while *apparently* doing full justice to the late Emperor's fine personal character, good intentions, and, in the main, good performance, contrives to strip him of every virtue. The Emperor's firmness was pig-headed obstinacy; his domestic virtues arose from a phlegmatic temperament; his devout religious faith was superstition; his earnest efforts to do his duty and to attend to all possible details proceeded from a rather absurd idea that God had placed him on the throne, and had for its result merely that his mortal shortcomings and errors are to be reckoned up against him, while his good qualities are to be considered as fit only for a private gentlemen, as concerning his family alone, and as decidedly detrimental to a monarch. There is nothing new or original in this view. It has long been, and will long continue to be, no doubt, the popular and profitable view of the case. Mr. Lowe falls short exactly at the point where all his collaborators and cothinkers fall short: he fails to explain who placed Alexander III. (and his predecessors) on the throne, and what standard we are bound to adopt, for ourselves and others, in lieu of the vital importance of developing high personal character and devotion to duty with what talents we may chance to possess, as we have been exhorted to do by Christian preachers and pagan philosophers. To cap the climax, Mr. Lowe presents us with this problem: Alexander III. kept the peace of Europe simply because he was a coward ("his physical courage was never of the highest"); he twice did his best, despite this cowardice, to bring about a war; and the real peacemakers were the German Emperors and Bismarck—which would seem to leave the author's much-admired Germans (p. 312) also under the imputation of cowardice.

What Mr. Lowe says, on p. 117 and elsewhere, about the Franco-Russian alliance and interchange of naval visits is good. The best-informed Russians who were placed near the Emperor, at the time of the famous visit of the French fleet to Cronstadt, did not hesitate to designate the affair as a "farce." As Mr. Lowe shows, the responsibility for the farcical element did not lie with Alexander III. or the Russians. His statement of the Jewish question in general is fair, and the retort of the *Novoe Vremya* (p. 109) to the English protest on that question is worth noting and remembering. He comes to the just conclusion, after carefully balancing the statements of Mr. Harold Frederic and M. Leroy-Beaulieu, that the question of religion involved is only subordinate. It is rather singular, however, that, after describing the "Pale of Settlement" for the Jews as being nearly eight times the size of England and Wales, and quoting the Guildhall memorial about 5,000,000 Jews being "pent up in narrow bounds," it should not have occurred to him to explain what hardships are endured by the 29,000,000 inhabitants of England and Wales, as compared with those endured by 5,000,000 Jews in a tract eight times as great.

In quoting the famous case of Prince Barclay de Tolly, whose action in having his children baptized in the Lutheran Church (his wife being an Orthodox Russian) entailed his dismissal from the Guards and the army, Mr. Lowe is evidently not aware that it was an isolated, not a representative, case. It is a fact that there were, among the court officers of the late Emperor, Lutherans married to Orthodox Russian women, whose children were brought up as Lutherans without let or hindrance. When Mr. Lowe characterizes the Russian Church as "the embodiment of the most debased and spurious form of Christianity," he is plainly ignorant of the close kinship, almost identity, of the Russian and the Anglican-Catholic or Ritualistic branches of his own national church. When he speaks (p. 189) of

the Baltic provinces as "the old Teutonic Fatherland," he forgets the significant bit of Russian history that exposes the manner in which the Knights of the Teutonic Order conquered those provinces with sword and blood, imposed on the inhabitants—who still speak dialects of a language not even cognate with the Indo-European family to which both German and Russian belong—a German aristocracy and the German tongue. He does admit, in a quotation from Mr. Pobedonostzeff (whose Russification of these provinces he strongly disapproves, as if it were the first instance of the sort, instead of the second, in their history), that "Protestantism, as represented by the Livonian Knights, was equally animated by secular motives." Mr. Pobedonostzeff is sound in his history at least.

Blind faith in "E. B. Lanin" leads Mr. Lowe into another pitfall of misunderstanding. Lanin asserts (p. 198) that the Russian officials are considering the advisability of keeping down the pride of the peasants by treating them as an inferior class and addressing them as *thou* and *thee*, instead of by the more respectful *you*. As a matter of fact, that form of address has always been in use, not only from master to serf, from landholder to free peasant, and between the peasants themselves, but also from peasants to the gentry, in token of familiar affection and respect; just as a high ecclesiastical personage on the most solemn occasions, or a peasant on any occasion, would address the Emperor himself with *thee* and *thou*. Other errors are, that the Grand Duke Constantine, junior, was suspected of complicity in the Nihilist plot which ended in the death of Alexander II.; that the late Emperor's journeys were "hurried and furtive"; that the Grand Duchess Marie Pavlovna was not permitted to accompany her husband, the Emperor's brother, on his tours of inspection, because her beauty and kind-heartedness rendered her popular and made Alexander III. afraid of her influence over the troops. It was commonly understood that the objection lay in the Grand Duchess's persistent efforts to win influence by begging the troops to address her as "Aunty Molly."

Mr. Lowe's statement of the Battenberg-Bulgaria complication is clear and good. So is his summary of all that is known of the young Emperor, Nicholas II., though, as in the case of his father, it is still too early to pronounce judgment with absolute authority; and his epitome, drawn from the Russian papers, of Alexander III.'s great funeral progress through Russia and his magnificent burial services. It is a pity that he omitted to reproduce the touching details, mentioned by the Russian papers, of the sorrowing throngs of peasants who knelt and wept as the train passed throughout the length of the land, and who stood patiently in line for days to kiss the hand of the dead Emperor in farewell.

While his claim that England, rather than Russia, was the peace-keeper in 1877 is too weak to discuss, Mr. Lowe records the state of affairs at that time clearly and well, with a few exceptions. His English is often of the awkward, fantastic sort known as "newspaper English," which is unworthy of a serious history like the one he has attempted, and, on the whole, written: "To worsen"; "the officers shouldered high the Prince"; "gave the loose to"; "his preaching caught on"; "it was here where." On p. 107 "1889" should read "1890."

DE MÉNEVAL'S MEMOIRS.

Memoirs Illustrating the History of Napoleon I. from 1802 *to* 1815. By Baron Claude-François de Méneval, edited by his grandson, Baron Napoléon-Joseph de Méneval. With portraits and autograph letters. 3 vols., 8vo, pp. xxi, 421, 484, 545. D. Appleton & Co. 1894.

It may be true that a man is never a hero to his valet; if this is so, between valets and private secretaries there is a great gulf fixed. As time goes on, the private secretary becomes entirely moulded to his master's will, and follows him with doglike fidelity. Of all those who were attached to the first Napoleon in close personal relations, no one seems to have surpassed the Baron de Méneval in exhibiting the peculiarly canine virtues. The blood of a race of courtiers filled his veins. The terrors of the Revolution came and went before he was out of the nursery, and when he was old enough to seek a vocation Napoleon's name and fame were already filling France. Amiable, well-bred, light-hearted, but honest and loyal, a dilettante in literature, and neither too philosophical nor too inquisitive, De Méneval was fitted to be the favored servant of either a Bourbon or a Bonaparte. When his acquaintance with Napoleon's brothers brought him in 1802 a summons to the presence of the First Consul, the young Baron betook himself to the Tuileries in such a shiver of mingled fear and exultation as his grandfather may have felt in the halls of Versailles.

There was nothing republican about young De Méneval. "Napoleon," he wrote in deferential phrase, "condescended to receive me with a kindness which at once dissipated the respectful awe in which I stood." Napoleon took his measure in one keen glance, walked up to him, pulled his ear, and said: "Come back to-morrow morning at seven and come straight here." Such was "the conversation," said the Baron, "which preceded my admission into this sanctuary, which I imagined as a sort of place from which nothing but invisible oracles proceeded, accompanied by lightning and thunder." Henceforth De Méneval was installed at Napoleon's desk. Shortly afterwards he succeeded the more famous Bourrienne, whose alleged memoirs he rejects as mainly spurious, and he remained hidden within Napoleon's shadow until the Corsican himself passed into permanent eclipse at St. Helena.

De Méneval could not divest himself of the habits that had become his second nature. He had acquired a kind of proprietary interest in what seemed to him to be the glory of Napoleon. During the rest of his existence he lived upon the remembrance thereof, and it appears that this remembrance is still the treasured inheritance of his posterity. Napoleon foresaw that the scribe would never be able to shake off his office:

"The Emperor said to me one day: 'In the order of things I must die before you. When I am no more, what will you do? You will write.' I was not prepared for this thought of death thus unexpectedly expressed, and Napoleon seemed to me immortal. As I did not answer him immediately, he added: 'You will not be able to resist the desire to write memoirs.'"

De Méneval did live on with pen in hand. He helped to inspire Thiers to write his chauvinistic history of the Consulate and Empire, and before his own death in 1850 he produced the story which fills these three volumes and fulfils Napoleon's prophecy.

The value of these memoirs is scarcely proportional to their bulk. They contain neither inspiring narrative nor profound analysis. The Baron was incapable of either. It is impossible to compare them with the thoughtful memoirs of the Chancellor Pasquier, and they do not contain a trace of the spice that enlivens the reminiscences of the Rémusat family. The volumes may serve to show, what we knew before, that Napoleon elicited a blind, unquestioning devotion from civilians as well as soldiers. Unstinted adulation and extravagant panegyric are the warp and woof of these books, and the tone often becomes very shrill. Thus, in the preface, we read:

"The revelations which time will bring will show Napoleon raised on the summit of greatness by means of which morality approves; they will show him *free from all baseness, straightforward, magnanimous, exempt from low passions*, endowed with every kind of courage, constantly occupied with the care of ameliorating the condition of humanity."

From one end of his story to the other the Baron will not admit a single shadow upon his hero.

"The consciousness of his own strength rendered recourse to oblique and mysterious ways unnecessary for him; in matters of politics at home and abroad he often proceeded with a frankness which was sometimes pushed to the extreme of brutality; his honor and his sentiments of personal dignity would never allow him to have recourse to deceit or corruption."

Can the Puritan philanthropist whom the Baron thinks he knew be identical with the man who kidnapped and murdered the Duc d'Enghien, who despised and habitually insulted women, who seduced Mme. Walewska, who contemptuously belittled the sacrifice of a million of men to his own ambition, who filled his diplomacy with lies, and relied constantly upon the aid of those spotless advisers, Talleyrand and Fouché?

Moreover, De Méneval is impressed by Napoleon's heartfelt piety.

"Bonaparte was sincerely religious; I may add, a true Catholic." "His habit of involuntarily signing himself with the cross, . . . his expectation of help from above at a decisive moment in his battles, the religious ideas which the sight of a church or the sound of church bells awoke in his mind, his taking refuge in the consolations of religion during his last moments at St. Helena—do not all these things testify to his faith in Providence?"

In this connection the Baron forgets his own testimony to Napoleon's marvellous truthfulness. "When he attended in Egypt the religious ceremonies of the Mohammedans, his faith had not changed in the slightest degree. He was acting in the interests of a clever and well-matured policy." The Baron's zeal to show Napoleon's religious fervor is quite untrammelled by limitations of language. Thus he writes: "When Napoleon wrote to the Directory that, having seen at the moment of landing in Egypt a sail which he believed to belong to one of the enemy's ships, he had implored Fortune not to desert him, but to grant him five days more, he mentally translated the word 'Fortune' by 'the Almighty God.'"

Contradictions in Napoleon's language or character are all resolved for this eulogist and perplex him not, but possibly De Méneval's labors over Napoleon's correspondence taught him how to keep his right hand in ignorance of the deeds of his left. The translator kindly sets up a mark at all places where De Méneval's story is at variance with itself, and the signals are numerous. One illustration will suffice: De Méneval says that Napoleon never saw Bourrienne after October 20, 1802. Yet the next sentence runs on thus: "When, in

1805, the Emperor, forgetting his offences, appointed him plenipotentiary minister to Hamburg, he granted him the usual audience, but did not add to this favor any return of his old friendship." Such discrepancies, though slight, must cast doubt upon the author's carefulness and upon his methods of composition, especially on account of the repetitions of negligence.

Nevertheless, with all this scribbler's weaknesses, his inaccuracy of statement, his needless and monotonous narrative of campaigns, his superficial judgment, and his irrational hero-worship, these volumes are not entirely devoid of interest. The reader watches for the testimony which the servant gives concerning the life of his master. De Méneval could not well avoid telling some things about Napoleon in his moments of relaxation, when the Emperor had lapsed into the Corsican soldier. Not all the Baron's rhetoric can conceal the confirmation which he unwittingly brings to the sarcastic strictures of enemies like Mme. de Rémusat. No less striking are the illustrations of Lombroso's theory that Napoleon, like so many other men of genius, was the victim of partial insanity. Thus, Napoleon was unreasonably fitful in mood and abnormally sensitive where such weakness would be least expected. Wax models of human organs caused in him such spasms of nausea that he had to abandon the study of physiology, yet he never shrank from the gory sights of a battle-field. He was so irritable as to be liable to nervous convulsions which were perhaps associated with epilepsy, aud he was correspondingly fickle in temper. "When excited by any violent passion, his face assumed a terrible expression. A sort of rotary movement very visibly produced itself on his forehead and between his eyebrows, his eyes flashed fire, his nostrils dilated." He fell into a furious rage with De Méneval because a parcel was not punctually delivered, and "scolded," wrote the Baron, "with so much volubility that I was unable to get in a single word." This recalls Napoleon's more famous tirades against the English ambassador and against Talleyrand. Shortly after, the tempest blew completely over, and Napoleon greeted the Baron again as his "dear little Méneval." He covered his peevishness with a characteristically shrewd observation, "There are circumstances in which it is necessary for me to put my confidence in quarantine."

Again, the Baron witnesses to Napoleon's megalomania. He was always proclaiming his superiority to the limitations recognized by other men. Even in little things he wished to show himself superior to all others. He found Marie Louise making an omelette, and at once took possession of the utensils in order to show her how the thing ought to be done. The result was what might have been expected: the dish was speedily spoiled. Although he had an abnormal power of memory of details, yet he invariably increased the totals of the rosters of his battalions, apparently wishing to believe that his resources were even greater than they were. He was, however, curiously incapable of performing simple computations correctly. Like Monge, who could solve abstruse mathematical problems with ease, but could not work out a simple algebraic equation, Napoleon quickly understood difficult questions in mathematics or strategy, but could rarely find the true total of a sum in addition. This strange illiteracy manifested itself in other ways. Some words he could never spell correctly. Thus "cabinet" was always "gabinet," and "afin que" was always "enfin que." The act of writing was painful to him, and he seldom had the patience to complete his sentences. Even then his script was usually illegible even to himself. Once with infinite pains he wrote an autograph letter to his Hapsburg father-in-law, but De Méneval's pen had to trace the lines after him.

Another imperial habit, interesting to alienists, was Napoleon's sleeplessness and irregular habits of nocturnal labor. "It sometimes happened that I would hand him some document to sign in the evening. 'I will not sign it now,' he would say; 'be here to-night at one o'clock or at four in the morning; we will work together.'" "I used to find my writing-table in the morning covered with reports and papers annotated in his writing."

One of the best portions of the Baron's story is his description of the means employed to alienate Marie Louise from Napoleon after the latter was sent to Elba. The Baron was, in effect, Napoleon's representative near the Archduchess after she passed once more into Austrian hands. Helpless, he beheld the skilful manœuvres by which her natural attachment for the father of her child was checked, undermined, and finally diverted entirely to another object. One can almost see the woman's character change. She had become partially French, but the original Austrian was wonderfully restored. This story of metamorphosis has small political importance, but its human interest is considerable. One cannot help admiring the lively old grandmother of the Archduchess, who counselled her to tie her bedsheets into a rope, let herself down from the castle window at night, and run away to Elba.

The translation is indifferently well done by Robert H. Sherard. Readers are warned at the outset that the translator has tried to give a literal rendition in order to reveal the man—as though there was anything in De Méneval that was worth revealing! Even this announcement would scarcely excuse such unnecessary sentences as these: "The sovereign of Sweden comes to be dethroned," and "The discussions of the umbrageous and speculative minds who dominated in the National Tribune."

The Life of Edward Bouverie Pusey, D.D., Canon of Christ Church, Regius Professor of Hebrew in the University of Oxford. By Henry Parry Liddon, D.D., late Canon of St. Paul's. Edited and Prepared for Publication by the Rev. J. O. Johnston, M.A., and the Rev. Robert J. Wilson, D.D. In four volumes. Vol. III. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

THE period covered by this volume of Dr. Pusey's biography—from 1845 to 1858—his biographers consider the most important of his life, and they are probably right. Newman, until his secession, was the recognized leader of the Tractarian Movement. After his secession, Pusey took his place, and his influence was immense both in Romanizing the Anglican temper and in keeping those whom Newman had Romanized with the help of Pusey and others in the English Church. Twice he did more than any other to prevent a stampede to Rome—once after the secession of Newman, and again after the decision of the Gorham controversy in a fashion hostile to the Romanizing party. The constructions advocated by Newman in "Tract 90," if not now the dominant constructions of the English Church, enjoy a legal security equal to any others, and an ever-widening influence and acceptance; and for this Pusey deserves more praise or blame than any of his contemporaries. In 1858 the battle was not ended, nor the victory gained, but the hardest fighting had been done.

However important the period from 1845 to 1858, both for Pusey and the Church, its history is far less interesting for the reader than that of the years when Newman was upon the stage and took the leading part. It is hard to say why Pusey is so much less dramatic a figure than Newman, but of the fact there is no doubt. Newman never was subjected to a tithe of the humiliations and rebuffs that were visited upon Pusey by his ecclesiastical superiors. If he had been, he would not have delayed his march to Rome so long. The temper of the two men was very different. Newman had a great hankering for authority, but was quick to feel and to resent its bond. Pusey, with far less self-assertion, kissed the smiting rod, and went about to discover in himself some secret fault which had deserved the punishment.

In this volume of 488 pages we have first an account of Pusey's early efforts for the establishment of Anglican sisterhoods, and next an account of his earlier relations with Samuel Wilberforce, who succeeded the more placable Bagot as Bishop of Oxford. Nothing could better illustrate a certain innocence in Pusey than his unsuspicious manner of addressing Wilberforce at the very time when that prelate was scoring him in a private letter in the most merciless fashion. But that he was not wanting in courage or persistency is made evident by his first university sermon after his long suspension. He began where he had left off, retracting nothing. It was characteristic that he attributed his suspension to some secret sin. For so good a man his sense of sin was always morbidly acute. One must be far gone in ascetic piety not to be more amused than edified by the chapter which records Pusey's struggle with Keble to get him to confess him and furnish him with a penitential scheme of life. Even Keble, always more rich than Pusey in saving common sense, and not without a little worldly wisdom, cannot repress a smile. One of Pusey's self-denials was to leave his mail for a while unread. Keble confessed that for him that would be self-indulgence. He also suggested that Pusey's resolution not to smile might be harder for others than for himself. As for his stern repression of all humor, that could not have been a difficult penance. His resolve "to drink cold water at dinner as only fit to be where there is not a drop 'to cool this flame,'" is possibly ambiguous, but it is probably meant to reflect upon himself and not on the water. His endeavor to dissociate Keble his confessor from Keble his friend is strange and sad: "If I might ask, do not shake hands, or—anything of this world." But the kindness of his heart came out in his begging Keble not to follow his example, lest the hard bed, and hair shirt, and third-class cars, and the eating of unpleasant food by preference, should be injurious to his health.

Pusey had one penance that was not of his own choosing. He had built the Church of St. Saviour's, Leeds, with his own money as a penitential gift to God. It proved a source of terrible perplexity to him, a nest for Romanizing clergymen, who, hatching all sorts of vagaries, aroused the opposition of their rector and their bishop, and finally, with one exception, went over to Rome in a body. The Gorham controversy drags its slow length through seventy pages. Before this began, Manning had been suspicious of Pusey's sympathy with Newman and had warned him of his fears. But the

Gorham decision that baptism has no magical efficacy for the extirpation of original sin drove Manning and many others into the Roman Church, while apparently Pusey never so much as thought of going with them. His was the patience of hope. He felt sure that in course of time all things would work together for the good of those who believed that every formal declaration of the Roman Church, except that of her primacy, might be accepted by the Anglican without prejudice to his standing in the Church of England. All the anxieties and dangers of the Gorham controversy flared up again in 1853 in the case of Archdeacon Denison, who, condemned by the Diocesan Court of Bath and Wells for preaching the doctrine of the Real Presence of Christ's body in the sacramental bread and wine, successfully appealed to the Court of Arches and the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, but on purely technical grounds. Keble's caution throughout this controversy is instructive as compared with Pusey's more straightforward conduct. It is interesting to conjecture what their course would have been if the Privy Council had confirmed the judgment of the local court. It is not likely that they would have been driven to Rome. Their instinctive devotion to the Church of England was sufficient to outweigh a hundred logical considerations, and they were always rich in expedients for saving themselves from the practical conclusions involved in their patristric theology.

Pusey's position was one of painful isolation through the whole period covered by this volume of his biography, but the year 1850 was that in which his isolation was the most complete and his burdens greater than seemed possible for him to bear. In this year his bishop condemned not only his special errors, but his general ministry, as doing "more than the labors of an open enemy" to wean Anglican believers from the faith and ritual of their church. An elaborate correspondence ensued, and Pusey was shortly inhibited from preaching in the Oxford diocese. Keble was the only friend from whom he got much comfort. Gladstone advised apology for certain adapted Roman books of devotion, and Pusey's brother held his nose to the episcopal grindstone in a remorseless way, even being so superserviceable as to prepare a form of retraction for him to sign. In the event Pusey's "relentless gentleness" prevailed over Wilberforce's indignant wrath, the inhibition was withdrawn, and in a few years Pusey found himself preaching at St. Mary's on the invitation of his bishop. It would be difficult to exaggerate the debt which Catholic Anglicanism owes to Pusey's patience, meekness, and long-suffering. But it is certainly a question whether he would rejoice very much to see our day, when so much of the Hegelian honey has gone into the Tractarian hive, as Mark Pattison said, and the High Church theologians of Oxford are developing a Biblical criticism from which the writers of 'Essays and Reviews' would have drawn back with suspicion and alarm.

Women's Work. By A. Amy Bulley and Margaret Whitley. With a preface by Lady Dilke. London: Methuen & Co.

THE facts and statistics systematically grouped in the first two chapters of this volume leave no room for doubt that, in England, women have already gained a foothold in the higher professional and business occupations. The Englishwoman's problem, it appears, is now not to get acceptance of her service from a public that understands its value, but to secure in return for it a rate of payment that shall insure her a fit standard of living in her particular walk in life. If she can succeed in obtaining an equal rate of remuneration with men for equal work, her difficulty, it is claimed, will be in a fair way of solution. This statement is, of course, not applicable to the woman of exceptional talent or ability, but to the rank and file of workers, for whom, for an indefinite time to come, the only hope of securing a fixed and fair reward is by coöperation and organization among themselves. Thus, by way of illustration, although Mrs. Humphry Ward is said to have received £18,000 for 'David Grieve,' the earnings of women writers in general are such that the projectors of the "Authors' Club" excluded them on the express ground (endorsed by Mr. Walter Besant) that they could not afford to pay the subscription —the "Writers' Club" for women being the fortunate outcome of this refusal. Again, although a head-mistress may, in London, receive £300 and upwards per annum, the average assistant mistress gets the cramping stipend of £125 to £150, while assistant masters in similar posts get £140 to £170; and further, although "even in the Established Church the propriety of women preaching appears to be regarded to some extent as an open question," and in any case women preachers seldom fail of a congregation, "an item no church can afford to disregard," such preachers have not been found sufficiently worthy of their hire to make quotation of their remuneration possible. In still another field, although an isolated case is cited of a woman having set up for herself in business as a jeweller, the conclusion is that if women wish to gain a footing in artistic crafts that require an apprenticeship, "they must conciliate opposition by showing that they have no intention of underselling their fellow-workmen."

While in the crowded textile and other trades involving employment in factories, women do the same kind of work as men, "and are almost equally skilled," the rate of wages they accept in suicidal competition with men, in combination with their unorganized condition, suffices to turn their presence in the industrial world into a threat against the possibility of a decent standard of life for the British working classes. Low wages and lack of organization are shown to be interdependent conditions—women in the bookbinding trade, for instance, having been declared, like the journalists, unable to pay the subscription to men's associations (their wages seldom being more than half the men's) even should provision be made for their admission. The first step towards overcoming both conditions at once is the formation of temporary trades-unions among women themselves. Already numbers of such unions, dating from the efforts of Mrs. Emma Paterson in 1874, have been formed. The difficulties of organization among the lower grades of workers, rendered spiritless by overwork, fearful of dismissal at the first step towards independence, and ill able to spare from the pittance earned even the small sums needful for organization, are enormous. Nevertheless encouraging results are detailed. In certain cases, as of the cotton-weavers, men unionists have had the foresight to bring women into their own organizations, with the result that wages have become equal, while the fatal element of competition between men and women has been eliminated. A reasoned belief in mixed unions, as the ultimate form, is the natural outgrowth of the principle laid down by Lady Dilke that "the highest interests of women in every sphere of life are indissolubly bound up with those of men, and any attempt to deal with either separately is fraught with danger to the State and to the nation."

A point insisted on, and illustrated by the case of shop assistants, is that it is impossible for outsiders to reform trade abuses; shops which have been forced, by Consumers' Leagues and the like, into providing seats for assistants, having, by systems of fine, reprimand, and dismissal, rendered the seats useless. The only sure means of reforming grievances is pronounced to be combination among workers, backed by judicious legislation. The need for further legislation in regard to sanitary conditions, hours of labor, the employment of children, and of mothers with infants, is set forth at length. The last, however, is the only class of women for whom special legislation is desired, and Lady Dilke notes that whatever sacrifice of personal freedom women may be called on to make, they make ultimately for the sake of their own hearths and their own children. Factory laws are urged on the principle that "trade must adapt itself to what is necessary for the workers in regard to their health and requirements as human beings," not that "human beings must adapt their standard of health and leisure to the conveniences and exigencies of trade."

It is a paradoxical fact that combination among the women of England has been confined to the lower classes of workers. The cultured classes have formed no organization fulfilling the purposes of a trades-union, while the "corporations by which professional and commercial men secure the maintenance of a definite system of employment and a fixed standard of payment have no parallel among workers of the other sex." Whatever may be the causes of the blindness of the more intelligent women to their own interest, this is a volume well adapted to relieve it, since it relies for its force on inference from fact, and is free from both the cant and the mawkishness that sad experience has taught readers to expect from literature designated by the feminine noun.

Hours in My Garden, and Other Nature-Sketches. By Alexander H. Japp, LL.D., F.R.S.E. Macmillan. 8vo, pp. 340. Illustrated.

THE personal impressions, observations, and some results of reading, with which this volume is filled, are very interesting indeed. The work relates to the old country, from Devon to the Tweed, and has more than a hundred sketches, like little windows through the pages, each a delight of the artist, looking out upon the bits of England and Scotland described within: scenes from the gardens, the hedgerows, the wood, the stream with its rapids and its bridges, and the castles with their towers, in ruins or hiding their grayness under the ivy. The birds and the beasts and the people are not just those to which we are accustomed, but they call up our own for comparisons by similar, yet decidedly different, traits and surroundings. The author is one of the most accurate of the natural-history essayists; his idealizations are not too far from the truth for recognition, and his enthusiasm is not intemperate. Of the popular writers there are few who stay so close to the facts; because of this his reader is led to feel more as if actually going over the route to gather in the things worth seeing and remembering. The text is full of life and poetry; apt quotations from favorite poets are abundant, and are used

with good effect. But, with due reverence for Shakspere, Milton, Keats, Campbell, and others, it must be agreed that some of the stock expressions common in popular writing, threadbare as they are, out at elbows or crippled in recital, add little to strength or originality in composition—"Mice and rats and such small deer," "fresh woods and pastures new," "a dim religious light," "a thing of beauty is a joy for ever," "distance lends enchantment," etc.

Quoted observations, like the author's own, are usually weighed with care, which of course contributes much to the attractiveness of the volume. Several of his second-hand notes, such as that on the bird diving to thirty fathoms from the surface, for instance, should perhaps be accepted with allowances. Suggestion of a critical disposition, and readiness in its exercise, appears also in his references. He touches up Burroughs for inability to discriminate between rooks and crows, and again he wrings the heart out of the gushing description of "A hunt for the nightingale" by remarking that it was rather too late for the song, and "it is even very doubtful if that five minutes' song which Mr. Burroughs did hear was, after all, the song of the nightingale, seeing that the song by that time has so many imitators; and it does not appear that Mr. Burroughs saw the bird which gave the short shower of notes he set down as those of the nightingale." While Dr. Japp certainly was wide awake in "Up in the morning early," there is reason to suspect it was much nearer his regular bedtime when he wrote the account of that excursion, since the statement "As we pass on we meet a shepherd driving his charges thus early out to pasture, whistling as he goes, his face shining from hardly yet effaced ablutions," is followed, a little farther along, by "And so we close our morning ramble of fully two hours—not having met or seen a human being." The encounter with the bull, coming after, may have put the shepherd out of mind.

Sea Yarns for Boys, Spun by an Old Salt. By W. J. Henderson. Harper & Brothers. 1895.

A STORY is current in the naval service that, years ago, during the late war, one of the many improvised men-of-war commanded by an officer of the volunteer navy was noted from the fact that over the door of the cabin—a cabin of a man-of-war being judicial chamber as well as quarters—were inscribed the words, "Who enters here leaves hope behind." In the same way 'Sea Yarns for Boys' might have had the phrase "Who enters here leaves fact behind" inscribed upon its covers. This is not meant as a reflection, since the yarns belong in the domain in which Frank Stockton enjoys such peculiar preëminence. The writer, in fact, deserves great credit for his powers of imagination; but in addition praise should be given for his keen observation of the many and varying phases of the sea and its surroundings, and the happy facility he has in describing them. We are quite sure the book will be found amusing and interesting by the boys, and such yarns as "The Long Yacht Race," "The Peaceful Pirates," and the "Queendom of Girlica" not only will amuse older people in their lighter moments, but are especially creditable to the yarn-spinning powers of the author.

Those who have followed the sea many years will recognize, with some exaggeration, the language of the forecastle of the old days—the days of single topsails and long cruises in the merchant service, the days that marked the "sailors" of past years as distinguished from the "seamen" of the present. The author is not unfamiliar with men-of-war either, especially their externals; but he is not, we think, in that respect to the manner born.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Balfour, A. J. The Foundations of Belief. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Bassett, George. Hippolyte and Golden-Beak. Harpers. $1.25.
Beale, Maria. Jack o'Doon. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Besant, Walter. Beyond the Dreams of Avarice. Harpers. $1.50.
Bonner, Hypatia Bradlaugh. Charles Bradlaugh: A Record of his Life and Work. 2 vols. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $8.40.
Bosanquet, Bernard. A Companion to Plato's Republic for English Readers. Macmillan. $1.75.
Carruth, Hayden. The Adventures of Jones. Harpers.
Chinaman, J. C. Bright Celestials: The Chinaman at Home and Abroad. London; Unwin; New York: Putnams. $2.40.
Cortina, R. D. French in Twenty Lessons. Book First. R. D. Cortina.
Craddock, Charles E. The Phantoms of the Foot-Bridge, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.50.
Currie, Frances L. A Breath of Suspicion. F. L. Webb.
Dictionary of Scientific Illustrations and Symbols. W. B. Ketcham.
Dunckley, Henry. Bamford's Passages in the Life of a Radical. 2 vols. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $2.80.
Elshemus, Louis M. The Moods of a Soul. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton.
Fowler, W. W. Summer Studies of Birds and Books. Macmillan. $1.75.
Geikie, Sir Archibald. Memoir of Sir Andrew Crombie Ramsay. Macmillan. $4.
Ginnell, Laurence. The Brehon Laws: A Legal Handbook. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $2.40.
Good Reading about Many Books. Mostly by their Authors. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Haliburton, Hugh. Furth in Field: Essays on the Life, Language and Literature of Old Scotland. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $2.
Haynes, E. J. A Farm-House Cobweb. Harpers. $1.25.
Howells, W. C. Recollections of Life in Ohio from 1813 to 1840. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $2.
Johnston, Elizabeth B. George Washington, Day by Day. The Cycle Publishing Co. $2.50.
Kean, Sydney. Both Worlds Barred. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $1.40.
Knight, E. F. Rhodesia of To-Day: A Description of the Present Condition and the Prospects of Matabeleland and Mashonaland. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Lawrence, Rev. E. A. Modern Missions in the East. Harpers. $1.75.
MacNeill, J. G. W. Titled Corruption: The Sordid Origin of Some Irish Peerages. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $1.40.
Magill, Mary T. Pantomimes; or, Wordless Poems. E. S. Werner. $1.25.
Matter, Force and Spirit. Putnams. $1.
Memorial Volume, University of Pennsylvania. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Menzies, John. Our Town and Some of its People. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $2.40.
Pinto, Prof. William. The Literature of the Georgian Era. Harpers. $1.50.
Nihilism as It Is. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $1.40.
Ogle, Arthur. The Marquis D'Argenson: A Study in Criticism. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $2.90.
Peck, Prof. H. T., and Arrowsmith, Prof. Robert. Roman Life in Latin Prose and Verse. American Book Co. $1.50.
Robinson, H. P. Men Born Equal. Harpers. $1.25.
Sargent, C. S. The Silva of North America. Vol. VII. Lauraceæ—Jugiandaceæ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Schelling, Prof. F. E. A Book of Elizabethan Lyrics. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Ten Brink, Prof. Bernhard. Five Lectures on Shakspere. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
The English Abroad. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $1.40.
The Schoolmaster in Comedy and Satire. American Book Co. $1.40.
The Yellow Book. Vol. IV. London: John Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day.
Townsend, E. W. Chimmie Fadden, Major Max, and Other Stories. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Tucker, Elizabeth S. Famous Queens and Martha Washington Paper Dolls. F. A. Stokes Co.
Twain, Mark. Pudd'nhead Wilson and Those Extraordinary Twins. Hartford: American Publishing Co. $2.50.
Tyler, Prof. Moses C. Three Men of Letters. Putnams. $1.25.
Wagner, Leopold. Manners, Customs and Observances: Their Origin and Signification. Macmillan. $1.75.
Warren, Lillie E. Defective Speech and Deafness. E. S. Werner.
Wise, T. J. Spenser's Faerie Queene. Book I., Part III. With illustrations by Walter Crane. London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan. $3.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 28, 1895.

The Week.

THE applications for the new four per cent. United States bonds have been seven times the amount allotted, and they are at a premium of 7 per cent. over the advertised price. When you want to borrow money, it is always wise to go to a place where money is. Secretary Sherman understood this when he was in the business of bond-selling some years ago, as the following cablegram, which he published without any sense of shame, testified:

"LONDON, April 12, 1878.
"Very pleased we have entered into relations again with American Government. Shall do our best to make the business successful.
"ROTHSCHILDS."

There ought to be some little pride left in American credit, even in the Senate of the United States. Somebody ought to have the courage to rise in his place and congratulate the people on the fact that foreign investors, both Jews and Gentiles, are tumbling over each other in their eagerness to get our national bonds, and are paying the gold down "on the nail" for them. Senator Gray ought not to be the only member of that body who is pleased with such proof of our high standing in the money markets of the world. This high standing implies general belief among human beings that the United States will keep its promises, that it has the ability to do so, and the moral sense likewise. A high premium on the bonds is the highest possible compliment to the nation, because it is not open to any suspicion of insincerity. When a man bets his money on the honesty and resources of the United States, there is nothing more to be said in the way of compliment, and the further away the betting is done, the higher the compliment.

We are very glad that the syndicate has made a good bargain. Whatever profit has been made has been due to the exertions of the syndicate themselves. They deserve it all, and the thanks of the American people besides. President Cleveland is likewise entitled to more than thanks. He has earned the highest praise. On this point Mr. F. H. Peabody writes a letter to the Boston *Transcript*, saying that "the one man in the United States who has done more than any other to protect its finances and strengthen its credit is President Cleveland." Then, with an eye evidently on Senator Lodge and Congressman Walker, he adds: "The men who have impoverished its Treasury and tainted its credit are the very Congressmen of both parties who are now abusing Mr. Cleveland, and it is worth while for New Englanders to remember that some of their prominent Republican representatives, who are now vociferous in condemnation of Mr. Cleveland, have themselves assisted by their votes in the unfortunate work."

There are wreckers and wreckers, but Senator Mills is anxious to pose as the chief of them all. The amendment to the sundry civil appropriation bill which he introduced on Saturday entitles him to dishonorable distinction among them. It reads: "And all laws which authorize the secretary of the treasury to sell the bonds of the United States for any purpose are hereby repealed." This would not only prevent action to preserve the national credit in an emergency, but would sweep away all provision for redeeming the greenbacks, and land us at once in the slough of depreciated currency and repudiation. But it is needless to say what it would do. It was not introduced for the purpose of being passed, but for the purpose of showing the country the kind of finances Senator Mills believes in. He evidently craves the title of wrecker-in-chief, and, for our part, we accord it to him without any hesitation whatever.

The suppression of the silver bill of Senator Jones of Arkansas was due in part to the fact that the bill could not be passed at this session of Congress, although it might bring all other public business to a standstill, and in part to the fact that it did not provide for free coinage. The latter term implies the reception of silver from private persons and the coinage of the same into dollars for their account at the ratio of 16 to 1 with gold. The Jones bill provided that the Government should receive silver from private persons at its market value in gold, and coin it so that the Government should receive a little more than one-half of the resulting coins. At the present price of silver the bullion value of the dollar is only 46 cents. Under the operation of the bill the Government would receive from a private person, say, 4,125 grains of standard silver, coin it into $10, hand $4.60 to the depositor of the silver, and retain $5.40. Of course, this does not give any extra profit to the owners of silver mines, although it may "steady the market" for them. On the other hand, it recognizes and sanctions the inferiority of silver as a money metal, and hence is not satisfactory to philosophers of the Bland school. The Jones bill contains all the virus of the Sherman act, which the Senate voted by 11 majority to repeal about eighteen months ago, but it is not what is understood by free coinage.

The House rejected on Monday the clause for paying the Bering Sea claims agreed upon by the President in lieu of sending the whole lot before a commission to be umpired by some foreign power. This was mainly the work of the Republicans, but they were reinforced as usual by a sufficient number of the other side to spoil the broth for the Democratic party as a whole. The ground on which the award was rejected was that more than half of the claimants were American citizens masquerading as British subjects and entitled to no damages in any case. This we have always supposed to be true, but we did not suppose that it was our interest to proclaim to the world that five-ninths of the "poachers" against whom we have been screaming and growing black in the face these many years are Americans. When a similar alternative was offered to Great Britain after the Geneva Tribunal had passed judgment on the *Alabama* claims, she elected to pay the lump sum of $15,000,000; and did pay it without grumbling. There is a surplus of more than $425,000 of that money in our Treasury to-day. We hoped to be spared the humiliation of seeing this claim repudiated. In our domestic relations we may commit any folly, such as throwing $16,000,000 over our shoulder in the matter of a bond sale, or a still larger sum in a Pacific Railroad bill. All this is endurable because it affects only ourselves. Not so an international claim, which affects our standing before the world. As the Jingo spirit which resists the payment of this money is chiefly among the Republicans, it is well to remind them that the Paris Tribunal was the work of the Harrison Administration from beginning to end, that the Cleveland Administration did nothing except receive the verdict and fix the amount to be paid under the damage clause.

That the naval-appropriation bill now pending in the Senate is an extravagant one, even its champions are forced to admit. It carries a total of $31,807,000, as against $25,366,000 a year ago, and $22,104,000 two years ago. It even exceeds the secretary's estimates by nearly $1,000,000—a thing almost unprecedented in appropriation bills. The efforts of the friends of the bill to explain away their lavish appropriations are ingenious if not convincing. You see they were forced to economize last year unduly, owing to the ignorant prejudices of voters about the Government's being extravagant when private citizens were severely cramped; this year it seems safe to ignore those prejudices and hang the expense. Then, too, there are some pretty heavy bills falling due for material and armor and guns ordered by other Congresses. It is "only common honesty" to pay these, but we shall even matters up by authorizing expenses of some $13,000,000 for new battle-ships which not this

but some future Congress will have to pay. This will balance things nicely, and besides enable us to go on the stump and deny that we have saddled the taxpayers with a needless expense. We can deny, and point to the bill to prove it, that we have appropriated a cent for new battleships. The fact that the bills will have to be paid later will not weigh with fair-minded taxpayers, who will reflect that they may all be dead before pay-day comes round.

Congressman McCreary of the foreign-affairs committee put the question of a Government expenditure of $3,000,000 for a cable to Hawaii in its true light when he said that it was a movement to reverse the nation's policy as to the undertaking of large commercial enterprises, without any assignable reason for doing so. These islands are not on any direct line to any other place, being 2,000 miles south of the direct line to Japan and China, and 500 miles north of the direct line to Australia. As to the claim that the cable would be a great advantage in war, he said that any power strong enough to fight us in the Pacific could easily cut the cable. Moreover, the only thing the cable could do if it were not cut would be to send early news *to* the Hawaiians. News *from* that country during a war with any European power would be of very slight interest or advantage. Mr. McCreary hoped that "all submarine cables will have time to wear out before we have another war." But if a cable is wanted for commercial purposes there was a responsible company prepared to construct one, not merely to the Hawaiian Islands, but to Japan also, and this company asked nothing but an act of incorporation from Congress and the necessary authority to go to work.

By way of showing the importance of a cable, Mr. Boutelle asked Mr. McCreary the question:

> "Now will the gentleman be kind enough to indicate any other port on the globe with which we had *so much commerce* during the last fiscal year as we had with the port of Honolulu?"

Mr. McCreary ventured to name Liverpool and Southampton. Then Boutelle in his agile way said that he meant not commerce exactly, but arrivals and clearances of American vessels, and he proceeded to read a list of such arrivals and clearances showing that only two American ships visited Hamburg last year (or perhaps one such ship visited Hamburg twice), while there were 165 arrivals and departures of American ships from Honolulu. This means that there is an American line of steamers between San Francisco and Honolulu, and that they make regular voyages back and forth, and that a few whalers touch there also. This was what Boutelle attempted to palm off upon the House as a greater commerce than that of the United States with Liverpool, or London, or Hamburg, or Havre.

We felt certain that when we saw the Hawaiian account of J. Cranstoun, the American who was deported from Honolulu, we should get a very different view of his character from the one he himself takes. He said he did not know and was not told either why he was arrested or why he was deported. But the *Hawaiian Gazette* of February 5 makes all plain. It appears that Cranstoun "had been assigned and accepted the undertaking of throwing dynamite bombs into the Central Union Church during services on the Sunday evening the outbreak was scheduled." These, we suppose, were those deadly cocoanut bombs found in the ex-Queen's cellar. The *Gazette* does not say how it knows this, but the story bears all the marks of truth on its face. It is the well-known practice of royalist conspirators to begin operations by killing a lot of women and children in a church. But the *Gazette* adds another charge, if possible more damning: "Cranstoun is the party who was responsible for the split in the rank and file of the Schützen Club." This is enough. Any man who, in addition to readiness to throw bombs into a church, would deliberately go to work to split up the rank and file of a Schützen Club, is no longer fit to breathe the pure air of Hawaii. But is not deportation for such a man dangerous leniency? Will it not encourage bomb-throwing in church—a practice obviously most dangerous to a missionary republic? We think he should have been decapitated. The Hawaiians should understand that the eyes of patriots in this country are upon them in this crisis, and that the hope is universal here that the Missionaries' Sons will not let a single man or woman whom they have robbed of land and power now escape with life.

Senator Vest ought to run home as fast as possible and prevent the Missouri Legislature from passing a bill to make the proposed Kansas City water-works loan payable in gold. We believe that Mr. Vest hails from Kansas City, and is therefore in a double sense interested in preventing this outrage upon silver. Kansas City has been, for some time past, endeavoring to sell $3,000,000 of gold bonds to improve her water supply, but she has met the objection that there is no specific authority in law to make the bonds payable in gold. Hence the city is promoting a bill before the present Legislature, which has passed the Senate, and will without doubt pass the House. The second section of this bill contains the provision that the principal and interest of these bonds shall be "payable at such place in the United States and in such lawful money of the United States as may be specified by the ordinance directing their issue, and in the bonds." This will cure the only defect in the bonds and will enable the city to get the money at once. But the indignity put upon silver will be simply monstrous. It will be every whit as bad as that inflicted upon it by Idaho, Arizona, and Alabama in their recent laws authorizing gold loans and gold contracts, and by Senator Stewart in his gold mortgages. We assume that Congressman Bland is already at home and in the breach, and that Senator Vest will not be far behind him.

The passage, by both houses of the New York Legislature, of a bill forbidding the display of any flag save the American upon the city hall or other public building, except as a courtesy to a distinguished foreign guest, is a victory for simple sanity in politics. It is aimed, of course, at the display of the Irish flag on St. Patrick's day, for no controversy has ever arisen in reference to such use of any other flag. Mayor Hewitt's refusal to allow its display during his term is thought to have been one of the most powerful of the influences which caused his defeat for re-election. The Irish themselves ought to rejoice over the passage of the bill, for it will relieve them of the invidious distinction of being the most childish of all our bodies of foreign-born voters. The assumption that they would vote in a mass to "down" any mayor who refused to unfurl the Irish flag from the city hall on the day of their patron saint, which has been at the bottom of all the hubbub, was due rather to the eagerness of political blatherskites to catch the Irish votes than to the real wishes of the Irish voters themselves.

The situation at Albany is a very clear one now. Platt's hold upon the Legislature is badly broken, but not destroyed. He will still be able to block the progress of reform measures and possibly to defeat them provided public pressure in their support be withdrawn; but if that pressure be continued, the Legislature will not venture to do his bidding. He is pretending that he has had an entirely satisfactory talk with the Governor, as he pretended formerly that he had a satisfactory understanding with Mayor Strong, but there is no foundation for it. He is merely paving the way for another "breach of faith" later when he is forced to explain to his followers the failure of the Governor to comply with his desires. His only hope is that popular interest in reform measures may flag, and that in this way he may induce the Legislature to delay and finally defeat them. This will prove a delusion like all his other hopes. He assured the three Republican police justices who are on the bench with twelve Tammany justices, when he returned to the city last week, that they would not be disturbed, since the bill abolishing that bench and creating a city magistrates' bench would never become a law; but he will not be able to defeat that bill. The moment that the people of this city be-

come convinced that this and other reform bills are being "held up," from that moment there will arise such an imperative demand for their passage that the Legislature will be forced to obey it. There will be no room for doubt on this point.

On the death of Sir John Seeley, professor of modern history at the University of Cambridge, a report arose that the chair would be offered to Capt. Mahan. One of our contemporaries dwelt on this report with much satisfaction, although with the trifling inaccuracy of calling Cambridge University by the name of Oxford. It would have been, indeed, an excellent appointment. Capt. Mahan would soon have taught the youth of Britain on what flimsy foundations her empire would be resting the moment a true American patriotism should have created a proper fleet, wherewith to occupy Hawaii, overawe Samoa, watch New Zealand, and convert the Pacific into an American lake. But it was hardly to be supposed that the insular conceit, to say nothing of the dark malignity, of England, would give her young men any such golden opportunity to hear the truth. Far otherwise, indeed. Lord Rosebery's Government (for the English crown is astute enough to keep the appointments to the history professorships in its own hands) has conferred the appointment on Lord Acton, a Roman Catholic. It will be clear to every American that the titled aristocracy have it all their way in the old country. Free thought has no chance to expand itself under the blighting upas-tree of a coronet.

There is in the London *Sunday Times* a very amusing interview with Mr. Henry D. McNiel, the secretary of the English Bimetallic League. He is described as a very serious person, with a deep sense of the immense responsibility of his rôle. He showed in the first place that "the masses" are all for bimetallism. Then he defined bimetallism as "the use of gold and silver as a joint standard of value." He was then asked what would be the ratio between the two metals, and he answered that "this was a detail that must be left for settlement by the nations concerned." He was right in treating it as a mere "detail," because if the nations concerned can "settle" it by agreement, they can take any ratio they please—15 to 1 or 30 to 1—without regard to the market value of bullion. In like manner they can fix the value of any commodity by offering to take it at a certain price in Government storehouses or "sub-treasuries." Being asked how the ratio between gold and silver could affect the 99 per cent. of all commercial transactions now conducted by means of credit, he said:

"The answer to that is simple. All transactions would be based on legal tender, and would be expressed in pounds sterling. All credits would be governed under the new system, as they are now, by the legal tender, though we may continue to think in gold. Mr. McLeod is wrong in supposing credits will be uninfluenced when silver is also legal tender."

His notion evidently is that in commercial transactions some merchants would "think in gold" and others would "think in silver," and the gold thinker, when he came to settle up, would let the silver thinker send him his balance in a cart under the legal ratio. The convenience of having both think in the same metal does not seem to occur to Mr. McNiel, or the absurdity of thinking in two metals if it is just as convenient to think in one.

At the last moment the Tories took fright at their own programme, and refrained from beating the ministry on Thursday as they undoubtedly might have done. They would have no scruples about turning Rosebery out on a tricky motion like Sir Henry James's, but what alarmed them was the prospect of a dissolution and going to the country on an issue which really involved injustice to India and bimetallism. Even Lord Salisbury, with his genius for "blazing indiscretions," even Mr. Balfour, with the Manchester bimetallists egging him on, shrank from testing the opinion of the country on those questions. So they concluded that the shrewd party tactics of Sir Henry were too clever by half, and left him to overwhelming and ignominious defeat. The rapid growth of the cotton manufacture in India for some years past, which very much resembles its growth in our Southern States, has been somewhat impeded by both internal taxation and Manchester competition. English cotton goods coming in duty free, the Indian Government two years ago, in compliance with loud native remonstrances, put as much duty on foreign (including English) cottons as would counterbalance the internal taxes to which the industry is exposed. Against this the English manufacturers of Yorkshire and Lancashire have been kicking heavily. The fall in the Indian silver had already converted Manchester to furious bimetallism.

The great round-up of enterprising French editors last week, for the purpose of receiving sentences of imprisonment and fine as blackmailers, ought to furnish a solemn warning to their brethren of the craft on this side the Atlantic. It is true that American journalism has not yet descended to such depths of infamy as have long been synonymous with the newspaper world of France. Our writing bravos are not so openly for hire as theirs, our defamers and blackmailers have not yet brought their art to such perfection, or given it such a range. But if things go on with us as they have been going, we shall not be able much longer to thank God that we are not as those wicked French editors. Our newspaper rage for publicity, our hounding of public men, our invasion of private life, must soon either be bought off, as in France, or shut off by law. To what extent bribery, direct or indirect, already controls the mighty engine of the press, as Mr. Pott of the Eatanswill *Gazette* called it, the outside public, which does not happen to be blackmailed or to want to buy favorable notice, is unaware. The surest remedy is in rigorous laws of libel and their rigorous enforcement. The defeat of the attempt to relax the libel laws of this State last winter was a distinct gain for public morality. In the same interest is the bill just introduced in the Connecticut Legislature by Senator Hall, making it illegal "to publish a description of any social or family gathering in a private house without the consent of the host or hostess, or to publish a will or inventory of an estate without the consent of the executor or the administrator, or to publish the portrait of any individual without his consent, or, if dead, the consent of his representatives."

That Spain is seriously troubled over Cuban affairs may safely be inferred from her pursuing at the same moment the policy of concession and the policy of repression. Tuesday's news told us of actual and threatened outbreaks in the island, and of authority given the Governor-General to declare martial law. Yet it was only on February 15 that the Spanish Congress passed an act according to Cuba a large measure of home rule. This was the fruit of long agitation and negotiation, and was finally voted almost unanimously, only two obstinate Deputies, both Cuban, standing out against the majority, which numbered 245. Its principal feature is the establishment of a Council of Administration for Cuba, composed of thirty members. Fifteen are to be appointed on royal nomination, and fifteen elected by the voters who elect Deputies to the Cortes; the latter, however, must have pretty stringent property and educational qualifications. Within the control of this Council are to be placed many important matters of local government—public works, the posts and telegraphs, laws respecting agriculture and commerce, public instruction and hygiene. True, the Governor-General has a positive veto on any act of the Councils which he "may deem contrary to the laws or to the general interest of the nation"; which looks like giving the form of home rule without the substance. Yet the plan was accepted in the Cortes with a great deal of effusion by all the Cuban Deputies except two, and was thought to promise an era of better feeling between Cuba and the mother country and to be a beginning of constitutional self-government in the island. The irreconcilables, however, appear unwilling to accept anything except absolute independence. But to resist this to her last man and dollar, Spain is pledged by the voice of all her political parties and leaders.

THE BOND SALE.

CERTAIN brutal newspapers have joined forces with a brutish Congress to cast discredit on the Administration because the recent sale of bonds has yielded a profit to the syndicate instead of a loss, as the two previous bond sales had done. Nothing more discreditable to the intelligence of the nation has ever been seen than these appeals to personal envy and party malignancy. Every day we find some new evidence of the deterioration and baleful influence of the newspapers, which is prevented from being utterly destructive to the Government only by the fact that they jump from one side to the other of all public questions so rapidly that not even the fools can keep pace with them. It would be a mistake to suppose that they have any other motive than the sale of a few extra copies. One sensation is as good as another for this purpose. Bloody murders, elopements, rapes, divorces, and bond sales all come to the same thing.

The Boston *Herald*, we regret to see, has joined the blatherskite press in denouncing the Government, and seeks to excuse itself by saying that "the outcry against the contract is based entirely upon the point that the transaction showed an enormous profit to the syndicate at the very moment it was made." Yes. Overlooking for a moment the fact that what the Government wanted and must have immediately was *gold*, and not its own promissory notes, of which it already had about $90,000,000 lying idle in its vaults, why does not the Boston *Herald* allude to the other fact that President Cleveland had negotiated this very loan at 3 per cent. on the condition that Congress should pronounce the word "gold" in connection with the loan? And why did not the brutish Congress pronounce that word, and thus save the country sixteen million dollars in interest? Because, forsooth, the bonds were payable in gold anyhow! So some of the leading critics of the loan say. Who knows but that the judgment of these smart Congressmen and newspapers, so loudly proclaimed and so widely advertised, caused the very premium which they are now blathering about? This is certainly worthy of their attention. Let us put it to them in a way that they can understand. The President makes two bargains for the purchase of $65,000,000 of gold coin, to be paid for with bonds. Under one of these bargains the interest is to be 3 per cent., on condition that the interest and principal shall be paid specifically in gold. Under the other the interest is 3¾ per cent. if the interest is to be paid in coin, without mentioning any particular kind of coin. The saving of interest under the former will be $16,000,000 for the time the bonds have to run. "Which will you have?" says the President. "The second one," says the brutish Congress, "*because the bonds are payable in gold anyhow.*" "Oh," says the investing public, "we didn't know that. If that is what you mean, we will give 8 per cent. more for the bonds than we had intended to." We should like to have the brutal press give some attention to this phase of the question. We understand that the Rothschilds are somewhat chagrined that they did not put the price of the bonds high enough to catch more of the cream. It is evident that they underestimated the force and popularity of the argument that the bonds are payable in gold anyhow.

Another thing that the Boston *Herald* overlooks is the value of time in the recent transaction. As Assistant Secretary Curtis said in his remarks on Saturday evening, there was a "run" on the Treasury, just like a run on a bank. When things come and go in a hurry, we are apt to forget them in a hurry. The fact is, that unless the bank presidents of New York had refused to meet the demands of their customers to open gold accounts and to draw gold from the Treasury, the whole remaining $42,000,000 would have been drawn out before Saturday night. That is not all. The reserve would have been swept away, just the same, in spite of the refusal of the banks to coöperate in the run, if the news had not been promulgated that another loan was on foot and that it was a foreign loan. This caused a drop in the rate of sterling exchange. There was no more buying of sterling for speculation or in anticipation of future wants. The run was over, but we were within forty-eight hours of a suspension of specie payments. Suspension would have been an act of bankruptcy. It is vastly more difficult to pick up a bankrupt firm or Government and put it on its feet again than it is to prevent it from falling. Moreover, national pride ought to cut some figure in the case. The spectacle of a great rich country, not menaced with war, not obliged to keep a standing army—a country that has paid off nearly two thousand millions of debt in twenty-five years—stumbling into the quagmire of bankruptcy in a time of absolute tranquillity, would have been too humiliating. Yet we were within forty-eight hours of making that exhibition of ourselves.

The Philadelphia *Press* says that Secretary Sherman made *his* contract with the Rothschilds only "after an open issue of bonds had failed." It argues that Mr. Carlisle should have followed that course, and avoided this fearful scandal of seeing Government bonds improve in price. Of course, while Mr. Carlisle was waiting for his open issue to fail, the Government would have failed, too, but that would have been nothing compared to the crime of not doing as Sherman did. But what did Sherman do? Nothing like what the *Press* says. If it had read the various contracts, it would have known better than to say it. The contract of August 24, 1876, gave the hated foreigners the "exclusive right" to the remainder of the bonds. On May 11, 1877, that contract was modified so as to expire on July 1 of the same year, but with the further stipulation that, "during the continuance of this contract, *any sales of bonds* ordered by the secretary of the treasury, by authority of law, shall be made through the parties of the second part." What room did this leave for an open issue? Before the expiration of this monopoly, namely, on June 9, 1877, a new contract was made with the same parties, giving them a further "exclusive right." Probably what the *Press* is muddled over is the fact that this contract contained a clause providing that the syndicate should offer "the people of the United States, at par and accrued interest, in coin the 4 per cent. registered consols . . . *for a period of thirty days.*" This is the *Press's* "open issue," made after the contract, not before it, with everything left in the hands of a foreign syndicate!

Sherman's indiscreet friends should learn from his own silence that there is nothing to be gained for him or scored against Cleveland by raking up the records of those years. In fact, if Carlisle requires an awful warning as to the kind of letters he ought not to write, he will find it in the Sherman correspondence. Only two days, for example, after the execution of the contract last mentioned, Mr. Sherman wrote to a firm of New York bankers that he "would greatly have preferred" to offer bonds to them "and other prominent banks and bankers," but that it was "impracticable." The Shylocks, in other words, had the honorable secretary down. On July 23, 1877, he wrote to Messrs. Belmont speaking of "discontent at the advanced rates at which you hold the bonds, and some complaints that reasonable facilities were not given for the subscription of bonds during the thirty days." On September 22, in the same year, he wrote to his London agent that the syndicate had not met his "expectations in maintaining the price of the four per cents at par in coin. It looked as if this had been permitted with a view to their purchasing up weak holdings at a discount." The shameless foreigners! And the humiliated secretary! We forbear to quote other letters of his which show that he was as uneasy in those days as he is now over bankers making more than a "reasonable profit" out of the Government. But it may be as well here to record his confession, made to President Hayes on April 9, 1878, that the contract he was about to close, again with the dreadful foreigners, for $100,000,000 4½ per cent. bonds, put the price at a figure "below what I regarded as the minimum rate when I conversed with you, and somewhat *below the actual quotations for these bonds in the market.*" On the whole, the Sherman glass house does not seem to be a good base of supplies for this cruel war.

NON-PARTISAN COMMISSIONS.

THERE was perhaps some color of equity in the theory of non-partisan commissions when it was first brought forward. The public were assured, and to some extent believed, that in this way the evils of excessive partisanship would be modified. The passions and prejudices aroused in political strife, it was supposed, were to subside and be mollified when the contestants were brought face to face, and compelled to arrange some *modus vivendi*. Compromise, which is the distinguishing feature, if not the great merit, of party government, would necessarily determine the action of such commissions, and partisanship itself was to lose half its evil in losing all its grossness.

This theory was quickly exploded by the test of experience. It was found that such commissions failed to improve the character of the Government's service, while it became impossible to fix the responsibility for maladministration. It is not easy to do this in the case of any board of commissioners, but when such a board consists of men identified with one party, the people can hold that party responsible for its servants and creatures, and inflict punishment, after the rude manner in which alone the people can come at its rulers, by a general defeat of office-holders at the polls. But with a non-partisan commission, it was presently discovered, this method of punishment was taken away from the people. No matter how gross the corruption or mismanagement of such a commission, no rebuke to it was possible by the defeat of one party, since, as a rule, this merely implies the success of the other. The non-partisan commission, therefore, furnished such a wall of salvation to the politicians as enabled them to smile serenely at all their foes, and grew as rapidly in favor with them as it declined with the community. It is proof against all attack except in the rare cases when a third party or independent movement succeeds; and for aught that we can tell, had Tammany Hall been wise enough to keep the Police Commission non-partisan, there might have been no investigation and no revolution.

These objections to this mode of filling office have now come to be so well understood that it is unnecessary to dwell upon them. But there are others which may be regarded as even more serious. For, rightly considered, the theory of non-partisan, or more properly bi-partisan, office-holding implies the disfranchisement of those citizens who are not identified with either of the party organizations. Statutes constituting these commissions sometimes prescribe that not more than a certain number of the commissioners shall belong to one party, but they are also drawn so as to require all the commissioners to belong to one party or the other. In such case it is evident that no citizen unconnected with party can obtain the office, and independent voters and third-party men are thus disfranchised.

In view of the recent elections this disfranchisement may affect a very large class. The expression "belonging to a party" is a very loose one. Great numbers of voters appear, in one sense of the word, to have belonged to one party two years ago and to belong now to the other. Two years from now they may change their party again. Many citizens vote for the candidates of a party upon a particular occasion, without claiming or admitting that they belong to that party. But the very difficulty of defining party membership tends to increase the power of the politicians. They constitute the party organization, and they can include and exclude whom they choose. Hence, in the effort to attain a definition of party membership, we see that adherence to particular principles of government is not a test in popular usage, while submission to the orders of those who form themselves into an organization to which they give a party name is such a test. As is true of names in general, a thing is what it is commonly called. A Republican or a Democrat is a man who calls himself and is called of others by that name. In other words, no one is a member of a political party who is not admitted to be such by the majority of those who claim to be of that party. No independent voter can be a member of an organization of which he repudiates the authority, or hold a party name unless he and those who act with him control the organization of that party.

Undoubtedly there are those who believe, as there certainly are many who proclaim, that it is the duty of every good citizen to belong to a party, to "attend the primaries," etc. However this may be, it is reasonable to suppose that if the real aim of the non-partisan theory is to diminish partisanship, that aim would be best attained by the appointment of men who have no party connection. The functions of the non-partisan commission are evidently semi-judicial in character, and when men refer a disputed matter to an arbitrator they naturally select one who has not shown himself prejudiced on either side. But it is idle to speculate concerning such superhuman consistency as this, and if the politicians will refrain from attempting to prohibit citizens not of their class from holding office, we need not ask of them any self-denying ordinance.

But it cannot for a moment be admitted that abstention from party allegiance establishes the slightest presumption of unfitness for administering office. The recent election in the city of New York gave the lie to this assertion. The great reform which was inaugurated was made possible only by the patriotism of large numbers of citizens who repudiated all party claims. To maintain that all such citizens disqualified themselves for holding office is preposterous. It is impossible to deny that outrageous corruption existed in the administration of the city goverment, and it is equally impossible to deny that this corruption could be checked only by independent action on the part of voters. Submission to orders and unquestioning obedience may be military, but are not civic, virtues. It stands to reason that the citizen who conscientiously endeavors to secure good government is more valuable to the community than he who contents himself with voting for the candidates presented to him by party leaders. It is very easy to do the latter, and very laborious and trying to do the former. But if there were not citizens who preferred their country to their party, we should be in a bad way, and the fact that the theory of non-partisan commissions prohibits such citizens from holding office is its sufficient condemnation.

"THE NEW CRITICISM."

WE do not mean by this title Biblical criticism, whether higher or lower; we refer, rather, to the distinctly profane walks of literature. "The New Log-Rolling" is an alternative name for it. It is the name given it by a writer in the *Westminster Gazette* who signs himself "Philistine," and who brought upon himself a perfect avalanche of exasperated rejoinders from outraged poets and essayists by denying the probability that 1894 had witnessed a sudden outburst of genius in England "such as few decades in the history of our country have surpassed." Pushing scepticism to an extreme, he actually demanded better evidence that Jones's volume of verse would enjoy a deathless immortality than the mere assertion of Brown that such would be the case; Brown's infallibility as a critic being in the meantime vouched for by Jones, who declares that he has always found Brown's critical judgments marked by sure insight and impartiality. This scepticism is not original with "Philistine," however. It first appeared, if we rightly remember, in the *Athenæum's* review of English literature for 1893, of which it said the most marked feature was the touching unanimity and enthusiasm with which six or eight new geniuses had discovered each other.

The defence of the geniuses is frank confession. Mr. Richard Le Gallienne, under his own signature, and others, under assumed names, write to the *Gazette* to admit that they do review each other's books and let each other know it; that many fast friendships have been formed through courtesies of that sort, and that people who object to such critical log-rolling belong to the class of "literary homicides whose howls of torment will be the only clarions of their fame." After this cry of honest indignation, they revert to general principles. The new criticism is based on the great truth that it is better to "overpraise than meanly belittle" (of course, the critic has to do one or the other). It is urbane, genial, long-suffering, preferring to flatter ten

undoubted fools than to discourage one possible Keats. It aims to develop a wall-eye for glaring defects and a keen nose for hidden merits. Its favorite syllogism is: All great writers have been belittled; therefore, all belittled writers will be great.

If this were purely a British literary phenomenon, we should not feel called on to comment upon it in our intensely American columns. But the new copyright law has not kept it from our shores any more than it has kept away those disgusting British novels which sell so scandalously. It may be that the American literary log-roller does not ply his art so unblushingly as his English brother, but that he plies it no ordinarily attentive observer of critical methods in vogue can doubt. The game which those who are at it think so deep, though it is really so transparent, is played in this way. Mr. Gifted Hopkins brings out a volume of 'Echoes of Apollo's Lute.' Speedily there appears a review in the journal of which Mr. Macaulay Tupper is the editor, informing an astonished world that the successor of Tennyson, Browning, and Lowell has been found. But the poetic Hopkins has also his critical journal, and in it, within two weeks, appears a notice of Macaulay Tupper's 'The Soul of the Centuries,' in which the reviewer reins himself in from saying what he really thinks about these masterly essays, lest it might look like disloyalty to the memory of Lamb, Sainte-Beuve, and Schlegel. Tupper's paper chivalrously ripostes the week following by saying that Hopkins's organ of opinion had always seemed to it a model, but that of late it had been particularly strong. Of course, the demand for this sort of thing soon creates journals specially devoted to "Literary Gossip," in which the great men write of themselves and each other with immense appreciation and complacence.

Now, there are those whom these antics fill with deep disgust. They think it a phenomenon at which the judicious should grieve, and grieve only. The ancient and honorable calling of the critic they believe to be degraded by these professors of the new art of criticism. They would like, as against the new criticism, a fresh assertion of the old criticism, which feels its responsibility to the public and to truth, and which refuses to write book reviews on charity-organization principles. But the case does not seem to us so serious as that. The affair is not so much one to make the judicious grieve as to make them laugh. What the new critics most need is such treatment as Archbishop Tait proposed for a clerical correspondent of his who suggested some improvements in the Lord's Prayer. "Tell the man," he said to his private secretary, "tell the man that he is a consummate ass, but do it kindly." The kindest service any one can do the new critics is to tell them that their log-rolling is both perfectly understood and perfectly ineffective.

It arises, principally, from their seeing too much of each other. It is worse than provincial—it smacks of the back-yard and the village store. The exact prototype and truest exemplar of the new criticism is to be found, in fact, in the village newspaper. There no squash is raised which is not of phenomenal size and sure to take first prize at the county fair; no trotter is mentioned which cannot force any of 'em to take the dust; no Fourth of July oration which does not imperil Webster's fame; no sermon which does not deeply impress an unusually large congregation. The reason is, that the editor knows he must meet every day the owners of the squash and the trotter, the orator and the preacher; and how could he face them if he had said the squash was but a spindling growth, the trotter knock-kneed, the oration fustian, and the sermon mortal dull? So it is with our new critics. Their mutual admiration grows out of, and is exaggerated by, their too intimate intercourse. How can you say unpleasant things of a man who claps you on the back twice a week at the Admirable Crichton Club and says, "Old man, that essay, poem, speech, review of yours was the greatest thing you've done yet"? What the new critics need most of all is to cultivate the silences and the solitudes. Then, if any of them is called upon to do a bit of that very newest style of the new criticism—a "conversation" with some great man—he need not feel compelled to close by saying: "I felt that I had spent an hour with a strong and virile intelligence, whose best work the world may yet expect," but may safely say, if he will, "I found the interview a good deal of a bore, and think the man has pretty clearly exhausted his vein."

If the new criticism had the practical effect of selling one additional copy, or making a cold world accept its token-money of fame at even 50 per cent. discount, it would lack something of being supremely ludicrous. But log-rolled greatness is unknown outside the circle of log-rollers. It leaves its happy recipients, like Amos Barton, with the conviction, but without the sensation, that they are great men. With so many kind friends telling a writer that he is a genius, he gets to wonder why he does not feel like one. What horrid doubts must sometimes assail a company of the new critics! There sits the best novelist since Scott, here the poet that makes Tennyson's bays green with envy, yonder the acutest critic of a dying century; it must be so, because they have all said it of each other in cold and veracious type. But the strain even on their own credulity must, on occasion, become too great, and a spirit of contrition and confession seize them all, moving them to say —though they never do say it—"Brothers, we are all poor sinners, doing our little daily stints as best we may, but only mortal, only very fallible; and the best resolve we can make is, not to insult the august shades of the mighty dead by mentioning their names in the same breath with our own."

ARGON.

THE announcement of the probable existence of a new element in the atmosphere, made by Lord Rayleigh and Professor Ramsay at the meeting of the British Association last summer, aroused the profound attention of the scientific world. A number of elements have been discovered in the last quarter of a century, but all of them are metallic substances which occur in minute quantities in rare minerals. The latest addition to the list of non-metallic elements was bromin, discovered nearly seventy years ago, and the existence of an undiscovered element belonging to this group did not appear probable. Still less likely did it seem that such an element could be present in the atmosphere. Our knowledge of the air was satisfactory and complete. Innumerable analyses had established the facts in regard to its composition. Hence the announcement above referred to was met with much scepticism, in spite of the eminent character and skill of the men who made it; and the whole chemical world has waited anxiously and impatiently for a full account of the work. This has now been given in a paper by Lord Rayleigh and Professor Ramsay which was read before the Royal Society at a special meeting on January 31. The long delay between the preliminary announcement and the presentation of the paper is fully accounted for by this statement of Lord Rayleigh's:

"The research has been in many respects a very difficult one. I am not without experience of experimental difficulties, but certainly I have never encountered them in anything like so severe and aggravating a form as in this investigation. Every experiment that one attempts, takes about ten days or a fortnight to carry out to any definite conclusion, and the result has been of necessity much less progress than we could have hoped for, and many of the questions have been left open which we could have wished to settle."

The history of the discovery is in brief as follows: In the course of a series of determinations of the densities of some of the more permanent gases, Lord Rayleigh found in the case of nitrogen that if obtained from chemical compounds it was about one-half per cent. lighter than if extracted from the atmosphere. This discrepancy was naturally thought at first to be due to contamination with impurities consisting of known substances. When experiment had demonstrated that this was not the case, the dissociation of the molecules of the nitrogen derived from chemical sources into detached atoms suggested itself as a possible explanation of its greater lightness. But both gases subjected to the action of the silent electric discharge retained their densities unchanged. This was discouraging, and a further experiment of a different kind disposed of this explanation in a still more decisive manner. It was exceedingly improbable that the nitrogen of chemical origin could be a mixture, as that would necessitate the existence of two kinds of nitric acid. The simplest remaining explanation was to admit the existence of a second ingredient in the nitrogen obtained from the atmosphere. If the supposed gas had a density half as much again as that of nitrogen, the presence of one per cent. would suffice to explain the observed differences in density. This explanation brought the investigators face to face with the great improbability that a gas all about us and present

in such enormous quantity could have remained so long unsuspected. Its demonstration demanded the isolation and identification of the new gas, and to the solution of this problem the research was now directed.

It is interesting to note here that Cavendish, more than a hundred years ago, in his careful and exact study of atmospheric nitrogen, had really raised this same question of possible admixture with another gas. Describing his attempts to cause a complete union of atmospheric nitrogen with oxygen by means of the electric spark, he says: "If there is any part of the phlogisticated air [nitrogen] of our atmosphere which differs from the rest and cannot be reduced to nitrous acid, we may safely conclude that it is not more than 1-120th part of the whole." Cavendish, however, laid no emphasis on this residual 1-120th, except as indicating by its minuteness the great purity of the nitrogen from air. But in these days science no longer neglects "residual phenomena," and has found, in many cases before this, abundant evidence of the valuable results to be obtained by study of them.

In the first attempts to isolate the suspected gas, Cavendish's method was employed. Electric sparks were passed through air confined over weak alkali, and oxygen gradually added till in excess. The products of the union of nitrogen and oxygen caused by the spark were absorbed by the alkali, and finally, when no further absorption took place, the excess of oxygen was removed by alkaline pyrogallate. A residue was obtained which was in all instances proportional to the amount of air operated upon.

Another method for isolating argon, and which also serves for preparing it in considerable quantities, is as follows: Air from which moisture and carbon dioxid have been removed is freed from oxygen by passing it over red-hot copper, and from nitrogen by magnesium turnings heated to a bright redness. The removal of the last portions of nitrogen is a tedious operation, requiring some two days, when the residual gas is found to be pure argon.

The gas obtained by either of these methods has a density one-fourth greater than oxygen (16:20), and dissolves in water about two and a half times as freely as nitrogen. On account of its solubility, it is present in larger proportion in the gases dissolved in rain-water than in the air, as is indicated by the fact that "nitrogen" prepared from the gases expelled from water has a higher density than that from air.

The spectrum of argon has been examined by Prof. Crookes, who finds that "no other spectrum-giving gas or vapor yields spectra at all like those of argon," and says further, "As far, therefore, as spectrum work can decide, the verdict must be that Lord Rayleigh and Prof. Ramsay have added one if not two members to the family of elementary bodies."

Prof. Olszewski of the University of Cracow, well known for his researches on the liquefaction of air and other gases, was furnished with 300 cc. of argon for the determination of its behavior at low temperatures and high pressures. He reports that it can be liquefied only when its temperature is reduced (by liquid ethylene) to —121° C., and that the necessary pressure at that temperature is 50.6 atmospheres; or, in other words, that its "critical temperature and pressure" are —121° and 50.6 at. respectively. Its boiling-point is —186.9° C.; it freezes to an ice-like mass at —191°, and melts at —189.6°. In its behavior at low temperatures it stands between oxygen and nitrogen, whose critical temperatures are —118° and —146° respectively, and whose boiling-points are —182.7° and —194.4°.

Chemically, argon appears to be more inert than nitrogen, all attempts to induce chemical action with even the most active substances having proved abortive.

The facts so far obtained do not warrant a final decision in regard to its simplicity. If not an element, it is a mixture. There is evidence on both sides, but the balance seems to be in favor of simplicity. Not only does argon appear to be a single elementary substance, but its molecules are apparently of simplest possible structure. A determination of the ratio of its specific heats at constant volume and constant pressure points to the conclusion that its molecules are monatomic, *i. e.*, composed of a single atom each, instead of two atoms, as is the case in almost all elementary gases and vapors.

Certain very interesting and important theoretical issues are raised by this conclusion. In connection with the density which the gas has, it indicates an atomic weight of 40. But in this case there is no place for the new element in the tables of Mendeleieff, which express the periodic law, and which have been so generally accepted. If argon should turn out to be a mixture, the difficulty may disappear; but if its simple character is finally demonstrated, an awkward dilemma is offered between the validity of the periodic law and that of the conclusions drawn from the determinations of specific heat ratios. The periodic law of Mendeleieff is, after all, as Prof. Rücker has said, "an empirical law, which rests on no dynamical foundation." The present situation will strengthen many chemists in their feeling that, although the law is a generalization which has in it many elements of truth, and has hence proved of much value to chemistry, it is by no means a complete or final expression of the relations of the elements.

The discovery of argon is a brilliant achievement. As Prof. Crookes said before reading his paper on the spectra of argon, "Here we have a new chemical element, the principal properties of which seem to be the negation of all chemical properties. Chemists will understand how difficult it is to deal with anything which forms no compounds and unites with nothing. The discovery commenced by a prediction, followed after an interval by realization. . . . The prediction and discovery of argon are only equalled by the few discoveries . . . made . . . by the careful study of the periodic law, and to surpass it we must go back to the predicted existence and subsequent discovery of an unknown planet by Adams and Leverrier."

THE PROBLEM OF SARDINIA.

ALASSIO, Italy, February 7, 1895.

IN spite of beautiful scenery, picturesque costumes, and local color of the intensest hues, Sardinia is almost utterly unknown to the pleasure-seeking tourist. A few Italian sportsmen, disgusted with the poverty of game at home, visit the island in search of the mouflon, which is abundant there, a few archæologists are attracted by the *nuraghi*, or the gold idols of Tharros, but these and a few curious of one sort and another are but as a drop in the tide of travel. For the world at large, Sardinia might as well be in the centre of the Pacific as on a Mediterranean highway. As a matter of course, a land that is so little visited is deficient in hotels, few towns being able to boast even a bad one; and the railways, that cost the Government 11,000,000 lire a year over and above their receipts, can scarcely be expected to pamper their public with fast trains and luxurious coaches.

Moreover, in spite of great fertility of soil and rich mines—both sources of wealth in the times of Carthage and of ancient Rome—as well as of admirable harbors, the island is poor. Such industries as exist are chiefly in the hands of strangers. Foreign capitalists, it is said, are the principal owners of the mines; the railways were constructed by an Anglo-Italian association, to whom the Government gave at one time 200,000 hectares, about half a million acres of land; the tunny fishery yields annually large sums to fishermen from the towns and villages of the Genoese coast, while Genoese and Sicilians catch and sell the sardines (that take their name from the island) and the anchovies; and, finally, the coral-divers (except in the banks to the north of Sassari) come from Naples, and carry back there the fruits of their labors.

With agriculture the case is no better. A large part of the island is covered with barren mountains, and of the extremely fertile plains in the west, where the vegetation is of tropical luxuriance, only about half is under cultivation—if it can be called cultivation where the ground is barely scratched with a primitive substitute for a plough, and the use of manures is almost entirely neglected. And yet these plains were once the granary of Rome and of Carthage, and, by the use of proper means, the yield might to-day be greater than ever it was. The wild olive is abundant, and needs only grafting to give excellent results. The orange groves are the greatest and the most productive of the whole basin of the Mediterranean, and yet the fruit is not exported. Wine, for want of suitable treatment, is in general coarse and heady. Such as it is, it is sent in great quantities to the Genoese coast where it is mixed with the lighter native growths, not to their improvement, or sold at so low a price that the poorest can spoil their palates with it and muddle their brains.

Things have bettered a good deal within the last twenty years, but Sardinia still suffers from ills that will be long in the curing. With a surface very little inferior in extent to that of Sicily, Sardinia has less than a fourth as many inhabitants. The mountains support a few half-barbarous shepherds, while in the plains the *intemperie*, a malarial fever fatal to strangers, reigns during four or five months of the year. Indeed, the climate of the Sardinian lowlands has from the remotest antiquity been known as one of the deadliest in Europe. Of course, a system of draining, such as has reclaimed a part of the Tuscan Maremma, may some day remedy this evil; where only a small fraction of the land (one-fifth, it is said) is private property, even this means will not insure the entire development of the soil.

Nor is the task of adapting the Sard to the conditions of modern civilization altogether easy; and not long ago the attention of Italy was called to one of the problems that are still imperfectly solved—that of public security. Various exploits of brigandage were followed, in November last, by an armed aggression with robbery, at once so bold and so atrocious that it was quite evident that the ordinary measures for the protection of life and property were now inadequate. A band of men, perhaps a hundred in number, took by assault and sacked a house. The feat was accompanied by a battle with the carabinieri, which lasted,

if I remember rightly, two or three hours, and in which several persons were killed and wounded. As one of the results of this affair, the Milanese *Corriera della Sera* sent a correspondent to report upon the state of public security in the island. His letters reveal a condition of morals, a survival of mediæval barbarism in the nineteenth century, that is more curious than admirable.

Brigandage, robberies, the vendetta, deeds of violence of all sorts, have from time immemorial been common in Sardinia. The innumerable conquests of the island, with the attendant wrongs and bad government, would, in great measure, account for the fact, and that it has been left as a legacy to our times. Under the present rule a large part of the population has been made amenable to law and order, and the continuance of the ancient régime of rapine and murder has been confined to certain portions, chief among which is the mountain district of Barbagia, about the huge mass of Gennargentu, where the inhabitants have preserved for two thousand years their reputation of indomitable barbarians. Carthage, Rome, Genoa, Pisa never subdued this part of the island, and it is evident to-day that the work of civilization has here still to be done. A few details, which I borrow almost exclusively from the correspondent of the *Corriera della Sera*, will show the extent of the evil.

The assault upon a house in Tortoli, which, as I have already said, resulted in loss of life as well as of property, was made by a band composed of about one hundred men, most, if not all, of whom, it seems, were well-to-do, and had not the excuse of want to palliate their outrage. Though they destroyed the furniture of the house with hatchets, they took away only gold and jewels. The floor was everywhere left covered with objects that would have tempted a poorer mob. Such arrests as have been made were all among families of means.

What is singular is that there are so many of the same sort—that is, the men concerned are above need and rob for the love of sport, just as others fish or shoot game. Of course there are poorer men who make up their own deficiencies from the store of their neighbors, and depredations are most frequent in hard times. In general, however, the prospect of a rich booty is enough to arouse in all classes the uncontrollable desire of spoliation. I said *all* classes: two anecdotes communicated by a Sardinian to a Roman journal will serve to show that the expression may be taken literally. A *sottoprefetto*, after having well studied the district over which he was set, was asked by the Minister of the Interior to furnish a list of dangerous persons with a view to their surveillance, and replied that, if he answered conscientiously, he must head the list with the district's member of Parliament. Another *sottoprefetto* of the same *circondario* was, shortly after a great robbery conducted with a stealth that had baffled the police authorities, invited to dine with one of the notabilities of his town. In unfolding his napkin at the table, the official cast down his eyes and recognized, to his horror, the forks and spoons marked with the name of the victim of the misdeed.

Another singularity of this state of things is that the robberies are not effected by regularly organized bands. A band is formed, 50, 80, or even 100 strong, as each occasion arises, and is dissolved once its purpose is accomplished. Their formation can scarcely be a matter of great difficulty when there are plenty of towns and villages where nearly the entire population is ready for such enterprises. In many cases they never commit depredations within the limits of their own commune, but the general condition is not benefited by this restriction. Indeed, it is said that not long ago a lawyer defending a too-notorious client, turned to the jury in a burst of eloquence: "In fact, gentlemen, who among you would have refused to take part in a robbery where it was a question of 40,000 francs!"

The apostrophe was perhaps unnecessary. Convictions are not easy. Except by those who have been immediately injured by him, the culprit is not generally looked on with severity, false testimony is had without difficulty, and the witness who insures conviction does so at the peril of his life. Cases are common where the witness has been afterwards murdered by the bandits or their accomplices. The vendetta, with subsequent retaliations, sometimes breeds between families a feud of extermination. Only the other day I read in the newspapers of a letter addressed to the public prosecutor by a well-known outlaw, who threatened new crimes if his wife and others, kept in confinement as accessories, were not at once released. Is this state of things, is this state of mind, sufficiently mediæval? The mountain fastnesses swarm with bandits, robbers, murderers, all fugitives from justice, and between the terror they inspire in some and the sympathy in others, their conviction, even if captured, is by no means a matter of course.

In some places, men who have accumulated some hundreds of thousands of francs by a long series of crimes are among the leaders of society, well spoken of, and looked up to by their neighbors. In cases of highway robbery, etc., the newspapers are apt to dwell upon the courage and address of the criminal with ill (or not at all) disguised admiration. One knows of lands where a woman who has stooped to folly, and tries to straighten matters with a revolver, is always described in the journals as graceful and fascinating. Nursed by such sympathy, neither evil is going to mend itself. The efficacious cure is the slow one of civilization; but meanwhile violence must be discouraged, life and property must be protected. Armed force has been tried more than once, and for the time being its efforts have been crowned with success. In the beginning of the last century, under the reign of Carlo Emanuele III., the Marquis di Rivarolo, with the aid of a few troops, hunted down the bandits with fire and sword, and with such energy and system that in 1737 there were none left in the island. Again, in 1749, the Chevalier Valguarnera pursued the same tactics; and later, again, the Marquis di Villamarina, it is said, thought it necessary to hang seven malefactors every day, and both achieved excellent results. But each period of severity was followed by one of laxity, and the accursed race cropped up again. In fact, the dark ages have from time immemorial reigned in the wild regions about Mount Gennargentu, and they reign there still. You can scarcely expect to make over the dark ages into the latter-day serenity of labor movements, socialism, populism, anarchism, and the like, merely by stringing up a few of the blacker sheep. Still, there is much to be said for the régime of repression, and it is a question whether this be not a moment for another Marquis di Rivarolo.

The Italian Government has asked itself this question—in the fashion of governments. It has sent the *onorevole* Pais, Deputy to the Italian Parliament from a Sardinian district, to inquire into the causes of the bad state of public security and to indicate the best means for its restoration. It has charged him at the same time "to study and report on the true economic conditions of Sardinia, and on whatever may concern its agricultural, industrial, and commercial movement."

It has been objected, and with a remarkable show of reason, that, from the days of the Depretis ministry to the present, no less than three similar inquests have been ordered by the Government; that, moreover, the prefects have constantly kept their superiors informed, and that their reports have been supplemented by a multitude of other sources of light, so that the ministry has already sufficient knowledge of the circumstances as well as ample indications of the measures to be employed; that, as a consequence, it is folly for an overburdened Treasury to waste money upon a new investigation.

It is further objected that, even were there occasion for this inquiry, Sig. Pais is not the man for conducting it. As a Deputy he was presumably chosen for his acquaintance with the wants of the country, is in constant relations with it, and could have given, without the delay of an extra journey, all that he is capable of seeing and the means he has to propose for the future action of the Government. Again, as a Sardinian, he can hardly hold himself aloof from the influence of friends, clients, and electors, from a thousand open or occult influences, all of which tend to prevent his taking a full, unbiassed view of the truth. Finally, one of the reasons why things in Sardinia do not go as they should is that the Deputies of the island, often unwittingly, are so many hindrances in the way of proper judgment and proper action on the part of the central authority.

For all that, Sig. Pais is already at work, and I see that he proposes that the Government should immediately begin a new series of public works in Sardinia. It is the sort of recommendation to be expected, not from Sig. Pais alone, but from almost any insular Deputy. It is the politician's substitute for the "faithful study of the liberal arts" which, in the language of the old Eton Latin grammar, "Emollit mores, nec sinit esse feros." The honorable gentleman has been but a short time on the ground, and it is not quite fair to look yet for results from his panacea. At any rate, the already mentioned letter from the bandit Sedda to the public prosecutor was written since the return to the island of Sig. Pais, and still later I read of a new descent of a band of shepherds upon a comrade whom they probably deemed too fortunate. They had already taken several sheep, when the watch-dogs roused their owner, who came out with a stick and felled dead the chief of the band. The others, instead of flying, fired upon him, but the fortunate proprietor was this time, at least, happy in that he escaped unharmed and ran to the carabinieri. The results of the affair are not yet known to me, but with such men and such manners the incident can hardly be considered as closed. Poor Sig. Pais, poor Government, poor Sardinia! Is it possible that 1895 has to look for its best teaching to 1737? S. K.

MEMOIRS OF THE DIRECTORY.—II.

PARIS, February 13, 1895.

THE début of the Directory was very modest. We have seen the five Directors make their entrance and their first arrangements in the Luxembourg. Some of these men are now quite

forgotten. Larévellière gives his opinion of all of them, and is not over-indulgent towards his colleagues. He speaks first of Rewbell, who was, before the Revolution, a lawyer at Colmar, in Alsace, where he enjoyed much consideration. He was fifty years old when he was appointed Director. "He had an excellent head, profound judgment, and much cleverness; he was a great expert in all parts of the administration, from the highest diplomacy to the minutest practice at the bar. Few men, in respect to intellectual faculties as well as acquired knowledge, have possessed greater capacity for government." The portrait of Barras is not so flattering. Born of a noble family of Provence, he had first served in the army in India, till the French Governor, Bellecombe, had to capitulate in Pondicherry. He had a fine face, but no dignity, "and always preserved something of that common and bold air which is found in bad company." He had no application for work, only for intrigue. "Debauchery, gambling, the pleasures of the table, had perverted and dishonored his youth. . . . At the Luxembourg he was surrounded only by the most crapulous chiefs of anarchism, the most corrupt aristocrats, abandoned women, ruined men, jobbers, gamblers, mistresses, and favorites."

"I have heard him tell," continues our author, "as something very amusing, the arrangement which he made with the famous contractor, Ouvrard, whom he forced to take as his mistress *en titre* Mme. Tallien, his own mistress. Ouvrard did not wish to have anything to do with Mme. Tallien, but was obliged to keep her at least *ad honores*, and thus satisfy the expenses of such a devouring woman. Otherwise, he would have had to renounce in future any part in the army contracts, and he would have run the chance of being disturbed in the fortune which he had already acquired. And it was at Grosbois, in the house of Barras, a member of the Executive Directory of the French Republic, where a numerous company was assembled, that all the formalities of this infamous agreement were executed!"

Carnot is even more severely handled. A captain of engineers before the Revolution, he was elected a Deputy to the Legislative Assembly from the Pas-de-Calais. He remained obscure till he became in the Convention a member of the famous Committee of Public Safety, who really governed France during the Terror.

"He distinguished himself by the very important services which he rendered in the War Department. Happy would it have been for him if, during that time, he had refused to take part in the crimes of that committee, and if he had vigorously opposed the atrocious system which it followed. If we cannot forget the brilliant campaigns of which he is said to have traced the plans, can we remember without shuddering the numerous death-orders which he signed—he, the third signatory for so long a time—and his atrocious correspondence with Joseph Lebon [one of the proconsuls of the Convention]?"

The first ministers chosen by the Directory are now well forgotten—Trouvé, Bénézech, Merlin, Aubert du Bayet, Charles Delacroix, Truguet, Faypoult. The real work was done by the Directors themselves; they had to reorganize the armies, to reëstablish some order in the finances, to create new taxes, to defend themselves against factions, to organize a new police. The two councils were divided: on one side were the ancient Terrorists, on the other the men who were tired of the Revolution, the former members of the Gironde or of the Plain, who had in their ranks some eminent men. The Royalists were represented in the Legislative Council; they had some generals on their side, they had a number of influential papers. The Directory, placed between the Jacobins and the Royalists, was itself divided. Bonaparte was one of its supports; he had defended the Convention on the 13th Vendémiaire against the Royalists; he had been placed by the Directory at the head of the Army of Italy.

"People have said that his marriage with the widow of Beauharnais was the condition of his obtaining a command which was the object of his ardent wishes; it was not so. There was, to be sure, a very intimate alliance between Barras, Bonaparte, Fréron, Tallien, and Mme. de Beauharnais, Mme. Tallien, and others. This set had a double object, jobbing and pleasure. . . . What I can affirm is, that in making choice of Bonaparte for the Army of Italy the Directory was influenced by nobody. All the members of the Directory adopted the views presented by Gen. Bonaparte. We said he must be appointed, and he was appointed."

The glorious campaign in Italy gave to the Directory a singular ascendancy in Europe, though it continued to be very weak at home. Preliminaries of peace were signed at Leoben. During the negotiations, Napoleon received one day at Montebello a visit from a French savant, André Thouin.

"While they were taking their coffee together, after dinner, Bonaparte complimented him on his researches, and spoke like the sternest moralist of the misfortunes and horrors of war, the vanity of glory. Bonaparte left the room for a moment, after his homily, and Mme. Bonaparte said: 'Well, you have heard, Citizen Thouin, the fine speeches and fine sentiments of Bonaparte. Don't believe a word of it. He deceives himself as he does others, very fortunately. His is the most uneasy spirit, the most active head, the fullest of projects, the most ardent imagination, and the most obstinate will in the world.'"

Larévellière confesses having been long deceived by "the profound dissimulation" of Bonaparte. He felt that the Directory would soon have need of a general, not only on the Rhine and on the Po but on the Seine. There was a complete scission between Rewbell, Barras, and Larévellière, on one side, Carnot and Barthélemy on the other (Barthélemy had replaced Letourneur). Larévellière and Rewbell had no confidence in Barras, the unsafest of allies. Bonaparte was aware of these divisions; he sent one of his aides-de-camp, Lavalette, to keep him fully informed. The Directory, threatening or affecting to be threatened by the Royalists, asked Bonaparte, who could not or would not leave his army, to send one of his generals to Paris. Bonaparte chose Augereau. Larévellière, Rewbell, and Barras planned with him the *coup d'état* of the 18th Fructidor. Augereau was placed at the head of the military division in Paris. Talleyrand, who had come back to Paris, was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs. "At every instant, Rewbell and I were exchanging doubts. What was there not to be feared, in such circumstances, from an ignorant man like Augereau, and from a man without conscience like Barras?" At every moment they thought themselves betrayed.

On the evening of the 17th Fructidor the Directors resolved to strike the blow; in the middle of the night 12,000 men with 40 guns entered Paris, occupied the quays, the Hôtel de Ville, the Champs-Élysées, and enveloped the Tuileries. At six o'clock in the morning all was ended. The minorities of the Councils assembled, and with their permission the Directory condemned to deportation five Deputies, as well as the two Directors Barthélemy and Carnot. The laws against the émigrés were again put in force; the condemned Deputies were sent to Cayenne or to Oleron. Barthélemy fled to England, Carnot to Germany. They were replaced by Merlin de Douai and François de Neufchâteau.

The 18th Fructidor was the great event in the life of Larévellière. He takes a deal of pains to justify his *coup d'état;* there was no other way, in his opinion, to hinder a counter-revolution and the return of the monarchy. The majority of the two councils were in favor of a counter-revolution. Larévellière is proud of the 18th Fructidor. "But for me," he says, "it would never have taken place. . . . Without a third man of a conciliating spirit, and who had never belonged to any faction, Rewbell and Barras would never have worked together, and I had often much to do to keep them united." Must we believe him when he writes, "On the 18th Fructidor there was in Paris more than satisfaction, there was enthusiasm. My capacity as President and my speeches at the public sitting of the 10th Fructidor showed me to the public as the principal author of this *journée*." Mme. de Staël, in her 'Considérations sur la Révolution Française,' has not been lenient in judging the 18th Fructidor, which was a violation of the Constitution. "Qui veut la fin, veut les moyens," says Larévellière, and all constitutional means were, in his opinion, powerless to prevent the counter-revolution; which is an admission that the majority of the French people desired a change. The 18th Fructidor was a parody of the Terror; it was helped indirectly by Bonaparte, and was the preface to the 18th Brumaire.

Larévellière will be remembered in history only as one of the important actors in the *coup d'état* of Fructidor, unless also as one of the sectaries of a new religion which flourished a moment under the name of Theophilanthropy. He was not, as has sometimes been said, the founder of this sect; he says that the real founder of it was Valentin Haüy, brother of the famous mineralogist, and inventor of new methods of education for the blind. The dogmas of the new religion were of the simplest: the Theophilanthropists professed to believe in a God and in the existence of a soul—they were pure deists; but they made themselves ridiculous by having new forms of worship, and their number was always very insignificant.

"Patere legem quam fecisti," is an axiom which Larévellière never understood; he was destined to see a *coup d'état* which seemed to be almost copied after the 18th Fructidor. After the death of Kléber and Hoche, Bonaparte became the most prominent general in the French Army. His military glory had already eclipsed everything. The Directory had been weakened by the retirement of Rewbell, who had been eliminated by lot, and replaced by Sieyès, who affected the greatest apathy and indifference to all the affairs of the Republic. We come first to the crisis of Prairial, in the year vii. There was much agitation in the two Councils. Barras and Sieyès formed a coalition against the three other Directors. Sieyès urged Merlin de Douai and Larévellière to resign, Barras used the same entreaties; a deputation of the Councils also asked for their resignation. Larévellière resigned; he took his portfolio under his arm, and left for his little house in Andilly, near Montmorency. Talleyrand made him a visit there a few days afterwards; he told him that Sieyès had not succeeded in becoming master of the Directory; the new Directors were Gohier, Moulin, Roger-Ducos. The two Councils did not want a strong Directory.

Larévellière gives some details concerning not the 18th Brumaire, but the events which followed. The two Councils had been dissolved and replaced by a Committee, who prepared a new constitution. Sieyès framed it

in its general outlines and Bonaparte corrected it.

"The Constitution, thus arranged at the instigation of the ambitious general, provided three consuls, appointed for three years—the first consul, who was everything, a second and a third consul, who were nothing. . . . When there was a question of choosing the four personages who should be proposed to the people for the functions of consuls and of president of the Senate, a ballot was to be taken. A model of a litre or a decalitre [it was the time of the invention of the metric system] exhibited in the room of the commission served as an urn. The ballots deposited were about to be counted. Bonaparte was before the chimney, his back turned to the fire. 'What is going on?' said he, with a certain air of superiority. 'You see, general, we are taking a ballot.' During this question and the answer, Bonaparte slowly approached the table, took the decalitre containing the ballots, threw them into the fire, and put it back on the table, saying on his way, 'That is all useless; we have here Citizen Sieyès, the one man in France who understands the Revolution best, and he is in position to appreciate with justice men and things. It is for him to indicate to us the men who are best fitted for the dignity of consul and for the presidency. Well, Citizen Sieyès, tell us whom we ought to name First Consul. . . .' Sieyès, after having tried to decline the honor, finally said: 'Everybody knows that Gen. Bonaparte is to be First Consul.' 'Well, citizens,' said he, 'put my name in the draft of the Constitution.' And it was done accordingly."

Sieyès afterwards chose Cambacérès and Lebrun; he was in this way obliged to exclude himself from the Consulate, and the Presidency of the Senate was left to him.

The public life of Larévellière came to an end in Prairial; he never was among the courtiers of Bonaparte, and lived in retirement. He was one of those men whom fortune brings for a moment on the stage of history in revolutionary times. His memoirs show him to have been very ordinary, very mediocre, possessed of inordinate vanity and a great incapacity for understanding even the events in which he played a part. His political essays, which form the third volume of the memoirs, might well have been left to oblivion.

Correspondence.

THE BOND BARGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Those who condemn President Cleveland's course in the recent bond issue mostly lose sight of the Government's real position in the matter. They forget that the Treasury was really buying gold in a market partially cornered, and merely giving our interest-bearing obligations in payment therefor. If the apparent discrepancy between what was obtained for the bonds and what should have been obtained be charged to premium on gold, the truth will be more nearly approximated.

It will be argued by some that there was no premium on gold at that time. Between individuals perhaps not. But the individual had the Government reserve to fall back upon. When it comes to replenishing that reserve, the Government is placed in the same relation to the gold supply as an individual would be if the reserve were wiped out. To say that there would be no premium on gold if the Treasury reserve should entirely disappear, would be a statement too absurd for argument.

We must also not lose sight of the large amount of gold required and the urgency of the situation, partly as justification for the premium paid, and partly as an apology for any seeming undue activity of the President in the matter. W. M. Haley.

St. Louis, February 22, 1895.

"PARLIAMENT-MAN."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *English Historical Review* for July, 1893, Mr. S. R. Gardiner wrote that the first instance he had noticed of the title "Member of Parliament," employed as the designation of any one person, was in 1650, though in 1642 it had been employed as a common designation of members of the two houses. He concluded that "unless an example can be produced of the use of the term of a member of one house only earlier than 1649, it may be inferred that the title originally given as a common designation for members of the two houses became the designation of one when, after the King's execution, the House of Commons declared itself to be the Parliament." The equivalent term, "Parliament man," is not mentioned by Mr. Gardiner; but it can be shown that this term, as applied both to a member of the House of Lords and to a member of the House of Commons, was frequently used during the first half of the seventeenth century.

"Sundry parliament men are dead since the last session, as Sir Thomas Atye, Sir Edward Stafford, . . . young Sir Henry Beaumont, &c., wherein your lordship may note, that it hath lighted most upon fat men. For lords I find none dead but the Lord Windsor."—1605, Sir E. Hoby, in *Court and Times of James I.* (1849), i., 35.

"We talk here as though the Earl of Southampton should refuse to answer the commissioners assigned, unless they accuse him of felony or treason, because he is a Parliament man; but I cannot hear much confirmation of it."—1621, J. Mead, in *do.*, ii., 265.

"Mr. Lyttleton so played his prize in the stating and arguing of our parliament-men's [Sir J. Eliot, etc.] case at the King's Bench Bar, on Friday, the first day of the term, that he hath won eternal praise."—1629, Sir G. Gresley, in *Court & Times of Charles I.* (1848), ii., 17.

"One Mr. Rigby, a lawyer and parliament man, wealthy and religious, had purchased the Plough Patent, lying at Sagadahock."—1643-'49, J. Winthrop, *Journal* (1790), 323.

"Sir, tidings are high from England; many ships from many parts say, and a Bristol ship, come to the Isle of Shoals within a few days, confirms, that the King and many great Lords and Parliament men are beheaded."—1649, Roger Williams, *Letters* (1874), 181.

This term, analogous to our Congressman, remained in vogue for another century, being found in the writings of Bishop Burnet, Chesterfield, Dryden, Evelyn, Bolingbroke, Farquhar, Fielding, Cotton Mather, Lady M. W. Montagu, Pepys, T. Randolph, Vanbrugh, and others; but after about 1750 it seems to have fallen into disuse. Albert Matthews.

Boston, February 1, 1895.

Notes.

The Life of George Borrow, on which Prof. W. I. Knapp of Chicago University has been long engaged, is likely to be published this year, says the London *Bookman*, in three volumes.

Archibald Constable & Co., London, will issue in May 'The Alps from End to End,' by W. Martin Conway. This is a narrative of climbing in three months of 1894, with some of Mr. Conway's Himalayan sepoys as assistants. There will be 100 illustrations.

J. B. Lippincott Co. of Philadelphia have in preparation the tenth volume of Mr. Horace Howard Furness's Variorum Edition of Shakspere, viz., "A Midsummer Night's Dream," and 'Lives of the Astronomers,' by Robert Ball.

Geo. P. Humphrey, Rochester, N. Y., will publish directly a reprint of Bartram's 'Observations' (London, 1751), adding thereto an inedited map of Oswego made by Lewis Evans, Bartram's companion on his American travels, and a view of Niagara Falls from the *Gentleman's Magazine*, 1751. The edition will be limited to 300 copies.

Ginn & Co., Boston, will bring out in April 'The Religions of India,' by Prof. Edward Washburn Hopkins of Bryn Mawr.

D. C. Heath & Co. have nearly ready 'The Educational Ideal: An Outline of its Growth in Modern Times,' by J. P. Munroe.

'Social Theology,' by the Rev. Wm. De Witt Hyde, President of Bowdoin College, 'In Stevenson's Land,' by Marie Fraser, and two books on Physical Geography by Prof. Ralph S. Tarr of Cornell, are in the press of Macmillan & Co. This house will hereafter act as publishers for the American Economic Association, and will carry its publications in stock.

J. Selwyn Tait & Sons announce 'On India's Frontier; or Nepal, the Gurka's Mysterious Land,' by Henry Ballantine, late American Consul to Bombay; 'The White Tsar, and Other Poems,' by Henry Bedlow, in an *édition de luxe;* and 'The Romance of Judge Ketchum,' by Horace A. Vachell.

In the reprint of 'Little Dorrit,' Macmillan & Co. choose not the first edition, as in the previous volumes of its popular reissue of Dickens, but that corrected by the author in 1869. The younger Dickens supplies the usual introduction, which is doubly enlivened by a good-natured examination of Mr. Forster's remarks on this novel, and by Dickens's reply to the owlish criticism of the *Edinburgh Review*. The series now numbers a round dozen volumes, if our c unt be true. Mr. Wheatley's edition of Pepys's Diary (Macmillan) is continued in a fifth volume, ending September 30 of the *annus mirabilis*. Pepys was persuaded that "this year of 1666 will be a year of great action" from a book he bought on February 19, 'An Interpretation of the Number 666.' The sea-fight with the Dutch and the great London fire are embraced in this volume, which has for its frontispiece Hayls's portrait of Mrs. Pepys, which her husband resolved on St. Valentine's Day to have painted. His own, painted shortly afterward, was given with volume i. The same firm sends us the first of its series of reprints of famous novels, containing Miss Edgeworth's 'Castle Rackrent' and 'The Absentee,' gracefully introduced by Mrs. Anne Thackeray Ritchie, with the aid of a personal visit to the Edgeworth home. The typography is handsome, and there are pen-drawn illustrations in the text, by Chris Hammond. Each story has a brief historic note respecting its composition and estimation.

Stone & Kimball, Chicago, have made a characteristically dainty volume of the late Robert Louis Stevenson's 'The Amateur Emigrant—From the Clyde to Sandy Hook.' The final chapter is a picture of New York from an unusual point of view.

There is an obvious convenience in having the lives of our Presidents packed in one volume. Those contained in 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography' have been thus grouped in 'The Presidents of the United States 1789-1894' (Appletons). The editor of the Cyclopædia, Gen. James Grant Wilson, has edited this collection also, supplementing the original sketches with notices and por-

traits of wives and children, and furnishing a facsimile of each President's handwriting. Mr. John Fiske is the author of five of the twenty-three biographies, and no other writer contributes more than one. Generally an admirer or previous historian of the President in question has been sought, as Robert C. Winthrop (Washington), James Parton (Jefferson), D. C. Gilman (Monroe), George T. Curtis (Buchanan), John Hay (Lincoln), Horace Porter (Grant), Wm. Walter Phelps (Garfield), Wm. E. Russell (Cleveland). Sometimes the writer is an ex-office-holder, as George Bancroft (Polk), Carl Schurz (Hayes). Jefferson Davis writes of his father in-law (Taylor). One of the very best is the late President Welling's (Van Buren), noticeable because of its compactness, though the author's style was naturally diffuse. The steel engravings of the Presidents are rather wooden.

The adoption of the new Constitution in this State naturally occasions a new and revised edition of Mr. Orlando Leach's 'State and Local Government of New York' (Leach, Shewell & Sanborn). Including now the text of the new organic law, it retains the convenient rubrics and the full index of former editions, which make it a volume both useful and handy.

The ninth, revised edition of Annesley's 'Standard Opera Glass' (B. Westermann & Co.) is a handy little volume of 350 pages, in large type, which opera-goers will find a convenience. It contains the plots of 115 operas, clearly told, with brief historic notes and comments on each one—Verdi's "Falstaff" among the number, as well as Humperdinck's fairy opera "Hänsel und Gretel," which is now the craze in Germany. It is, indeed, thoroughly up to date. But why should such operas as Grammann's "Ingrid," Förster's "Maiden of Schilda," Lindner's "Master-Thief," which never have been and never will be given outside of Germany, be described, while Rubinstein's "Nero," Wagner's "Fairies," Reyer's "Sigurd," and the operas of Saint-Saëns, Smetana, and Tchaikovsky are omitted? Taken all in all, however, the list is judiciously made. The opinions advanced, too, can be generally approved, although there is an occasional absurdity, like the statement that Wagner's "Meistersinger" "is highly original, though not precisely melodious"; or this, that "Verdi is far beneath his celebrated predecessors, Rossini and Bellini."

The J. B. Millet Company, Boston, have followed up their 'Famous Composers' with 'Half Hours with the Best Composers,' which consists solely of pieces for the piano selected from the whole range of musical literature. The editor is Mr. Karl Klauser, of whom Mr. Theodore Thomas says, in a preface, that he does not know any man so well qualified to edit such a work. A catholic taste is evinced in the selections, which range from drawing-room music to the various representatives of the classic and romantic schools. A unique feature is the inclusion in each volume of a piece (with biographic sketch and portrait) by an American composer, from a list worth repeating here: William Mason, Reginald de Koven, Walter Damrosch, Richard Hoffman, Frank Van der Stucken, Henry Holden Huss, Dudley Buck, William W. Gilchrist, Emil Liebling, John Knowles Paine, Arthur Foote, E. A. Macdowell, Geo. W. Chadwick, Clayton Johns, Ethelbert Nevin, Benj. E. Woolf, Arthur Bird, Ad. M. Foerster. The Millet Company have also established a Composers' Bureau for revising musical manuscripts or finding a market for them.

From Mills & Thompson, Boston, we have Mr. J. F. Botume's 'Exercises in Vocal Technique,' sixty pages of exercises so arranged as to be suitable for all voices, with a preliminary chapter conveying much sound advice. Mr. Botume is not one of the charlatans who come out every week with a new method, but bases his remarks on the common experiences of great teachers, from Caccini to the present day.

Mr. Charles A. Houfe, headmaster of Aysgarth School, Yorkshire, has lifted out of a contemplated work on 'The Premiership, the Houses and the Crown' 130 pages on 'The Question of the Houses' (London: A. Constable), which he now offers as a contribution to the great political issue of the day in Great Britain. Writing as an ardent Liberal-Unionist, he yet admits the need of doing something to prevent the scandal of the Lords exemplifying the theory of a conservative check on hasty legislation only in the case of laws passed by one party. His remedy is to compel an immediate referendum on all bills thrown out by the Lords. Mr. Houfe has many ungentle things to say of American institutions, and is amazed at the ignorance of American writers. His book invites serious retort in kind; but a production so academic, in both senses of the word, hardly deserves it.

The qualities that mark the work of M. Victor Duruy, whose death France, and not France alone, now laments, are too widely known to make it necessary to do more than mention the appearance of his 'History of Modern Times, from the fall of Constantinople to the French Revolution' (Henry Holt & Co.), translated by Prof. Grosvenor of Amherst College, making, with Prof. Adam's translation of the same author's 'Middle Ages,' a work desirable in all colleges and libraries. We have here again the mastery of material; the perception that there is a story to tell, joined with the power of telling it; the breadth of view; the unaffected, natural interest in the affairs and achievements of all nations and races, regarding all with an equality of sympathy in spite of the differing values of their contributions to the development of mankind, removed at once from the traditional English attitude toward extra-insular peoples, so suggestive of studies in comparative psychology, and from that of the Germans, so bent upon accurate reproduction and evaluation of the past that they get up flashlight views at last, with all the delicacy as well as the life of it lost in the process. The translation reads easily and bears traces of close adherence to the original, but it has the defect of this virtue in an over-close following of form—that common fault which has deluded so many people, familiar only with their vernacular, into the belief that they understood the chief characteristics of foreign styles.

Prof. Emerton's 'Mediæval Europe (814-1300)' (Ginn & Co.) is a useful manual, although subject to the inevitable limitations of an attempt to achieve the impossible by compressing within the compass of 600 duodecimo pages the political, religious, and intellectual history of Europe during the five centuries which laid the basis of modern civilization. The resources of the most universal scholar might well be severely tested in the accomplishment of such a task, and even he would find them insufficient without an instinct of historical perspective serving as an infallible guide in the selection and rejection of details. In this Prof. Emerton has been reasonably successful, though in some chapters one may feel that there is a somewhat confused crowding of facts, and in others that a convenient vagueness covers the lack of a firm and assured familiarity with the sources of knowledge. It would perhaps be too much to expect that in treating a theme so vast, a writer should draw only on the results of original research, but when we see the predecessor of Charles the Simple spoken of (p. 90) as Otto of Paris and (p. 154) as Eudes of Paris, we are perhaps justified in inferring that in the one case the author has followed a German and in the other a French authority, without having grounded himself on contemporary documents. The book is a good one for the object designed, and will serve a very useful purpose in the class-room, but the lists of authorities which accompany each chapter leave much to be desired with regard to the needs of students who desire to pursue the subject further.

A new treatise on Meteorology, by Thos. Russell, lately professor in the Weather Bureau, and now assistant U. S. engineer, is just published by Macmillan. It gives a general account of meteorological instruments, and of the distribution of temperature, the movement of the winds, the occurrence of storms, and other meteorological phenomena, but in an expository rather than an explanatory style. The more notable features of the book are its chapters on weather and flood prediction. Prof. Russell, having paid especial attention to these matters while in the Weather Bureau, now gives the fullest account of the methods employed that is to be found in our language. While the prediction of the weather is based on simple principles, the application of these principles to the endless variety of weather forms presented on the daily maps is shown to be a matter of great difficulty, not reducible to brief or elementary statement, and requiring serious and persevering study before reaching practical usefulness. The prediction of the time and amount of rise in river-floods is fully explained, following the methods employed in France. The accuracy of many of these predictions is remarkable. The volume is illustrated with a number of weather-charts and figures of instruments.

An economic and geologic map of the State of New York, showing the location of its mineral deposits, has lately been issued by Mr. F. J. H. Merrill, director of the State Museum at Albany. It is reproduced from an original map prepared for the Chicago Exhibition, and now given wider use by publication. Twenty color divisions indicate the succession of formations from the ancient crystalline rocks to the glacial clays and gravels. Besides these, there are seventeen over-printed signs, marking the location of quarries, mines, clay-pits, oil-fields, and so on, in much detail. The distribution of valuable geological products according to the sequence of geological formations is nicely illustrated, and makes the map of value for local school use. The scale of the map is about twelve miles to an inch.

The publications of the New York State Weather Service under the direction of Prof. E. A. Fuertes of Cornell University have been, both as monthly bulletins and annual reports, maintained in excellent form for several years past. They form a valuable fund of information of current value, as well as an accumulation of trustworthy climatic summaries. The records of the bureau at Ithaca are frequently referred to by engineers, boards of health, chambers of commerce, and others. It can only be an extreme application of the penny-wise, pound-foolish principle that calls for the abolition of such a service, although this has been recently recommended by a committee of the State Legislature.

We welcome a second edition, revised and enlarged, of Miss Hewins's 'Boys' and Girls' Books in the Hartford Public Library'—one more representative of a class of library guides which ought to be found in every library as well as in the one from which it emanates. The index should, we think, be converted into a table of (the classified) contents—in other words, placed at the beginning instead of at the end; and such a title as 'Amusements' might well be analyzed.

The American edition of the *Bookman* (Dodd, Mead & Co.) begins with the February issue. It abandons the generous form of the English periodical, and ranges itself in appearance and almost in bulk among our foremost literary magazines, with which it competes on one side with articles like Mr. Mabie's on "Books and Culture," or Prof. Boyesen's on "German and Scandinavian Literature in 1894" (both first papers), or Mrs. Hinkson's Reminiscences of Christina Rossetti. On another side its gossip marches with the *Critic's*. It has the pictorial features of its original, with an increase. Its book reviews are partly signed, partly anonymous. It has a poetry column or section. We observe that it has, in its News Notes, fallen into the same error as the *Tribune* of February 10, which announced: "Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' cannot be purchased in Russia, the censor being very careful to keep so splendid a lesson in republicanism out of the hands of his countrymen." But the fact is that the work was translated and published there, in 1889 and 1890, in three volumes, the edition consisting of 1,200 copies.

M. A. Cartault, in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for January 15, writes thoughtfully of Virgil's evolution, from the Bucolics to the Georgics. That the former mark a tentative period—the poet seeking his vocation; that Virgil imitates, not from poverty, but from choice, purposely setting what is his own against the very pick of Alexandrine work; that in the Georgics he is, as in the Bucolics, the one poet of true love—with all this we agree. But that he was already in the Bucolics the great master of the Georgics, we cannot admit. Beautiful as they are, the Bucolics are mere "academic figures" to the masterwork. Again, M. Cartault errs in giving Virgil a nature too open to external impulsions. Virgil spontaneously joined a band of writers who, judging the Republic to be dead, saw the world's hope in Octavian's rule, gladly lent it the prestige of their genius, but would not be mere trumpets of his fame. Virgil, like Horace, was asked to sing Octavian's exploits—in vain. But he gave the Georgics, a pledge of restored peace and a guide to quietness and respect for the gods, and the 'Æneid,' a poem second only to the 'Iliad' as a nationalizing force, and destined to be one of the most potent factors in holding together for many ages an empire profoundly disintegrated and ready to crumble into fragments.

At the session of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres held on January 25, M. Michel Bréal communicated a Latin inscription recently found in Tunis, which is remarkable both for its historical contents and for some linguistic peculiarities. This inscription was found at Kourba, not far from the city of Tunis, by Capt. Lachouque, of the geographical service of the French army. It is of the year 49 B. C., and recalls one of the most dramatic epochs of Roman history. The personages named in it have been made familiar by Cicero, Lucan, Appian, and especially by Cæsar, who speaks of them at length. It refers to the putting into a state of defence of Curubis (now Kourba) at a time when it was in the hands of Pompey's followers, and when they were expecting an attack from a force landed from Cæsar's fleet. The inscription gives a quite new military term, *posteicus*, a word hitherto unknown. It means either some military work of inside fortification, or else a sally-port, a postern. At the same session of the Academy, M. Dieulafoy, the well-known explorer, was elected to membership.

—A first-rate treatise on Milton's prosody would be received with acclamation, but to carry it through would require a scholar of rare attainments. Besides commanding the large and bewilderingly miscellaneous "literature" of English metric, he would need a good knowledge of metrical doctrines in general and in particular of Greek, Latin, and Italian versification. It is superfluous to add that he ought to possess a good ear for rhythm, a fancy at once alert and well bridled, and the ability, if he is a musician, to remember that poetry and music, though closely allied, are not identical. With all this, he should be minutely familiar with the vocabulary and forms of sixteenth and seventeenth-century English, and should have the literature of those periods well in hand. Finally, he could not get along without some knowledge of phonetics. For such a treatise as a scholar of these proportions might prepare we have doubtless long to wait. Meantime Mr. Robert Bridges has drawn up a handy manual called 'Milton's Prosody' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) which is not without its uses. Mr. Bridges rates his qualifications very modestly, and, in truth, he is far from well acquainted with several indispensable matters. He has made no extensive study of the work done by his predecessors in the history and the theory of English metre; his material is incomplete; he has curious notions of phonetics, or at least of the proper way in which to state simple phonetic facts; he is not quite skilful as an expositor. But he has done conscientious work, so far as it goes, and he has brought out some facts of real consequence. Teachers and students will find his book useful, but none of them, we hope, will take it as gospel. Any who may be so inclined should turn at once to the section on "inversions," and see what they can make of "Which of us who beholds the bright surface" as there scanned with an ictus on *sur-*. "A very beautiful inversion," Mr. Bridges calls it. We must disagree with him.

—Dr. Moore, whose edition of the entire text of Dante we lately noticed, gave the first of four lectures upon the 'Purgatorio' at the Taylorian Institute in Oxford, on February 5. His chief topic was the consistent view of expiation and purgation—under the influence of warning and inspiring examples, with the aid of the promises in Holy Writ, and by recourse to the offices of the Church breviary—embodied by Dante in the seventeen cantos (x–xxvii.) which describe the seven ledges of the mountain of purgation, upon each one of which is expiated one of the seven deadly sins. The dictum of the ancients that virtue is simple and vice is manifold is illustrated in the case of Pride and Humility, for on the first ledge of Purgatory eleven representations of punished pride are pictured on the horizontal pathway where the expiating souls are walking, while only three scenes of exemplary humility are sculptured on the perpendicular face of the mountain. An intended balancing and a careful classification of the warning examples is indicated by the curious repetition of certain words at the beginning of lines 25–63 in the twelfth canto. Here the *Vedeva* beginning lines 28 and 61 should be corrected from the MSS. to *Vedea*. "Blessed are the poor in spirit" is the promise kept before the sinners on this first *girone*, and the office of the Church to which they have recourse is the Lord's Prayer. The second *girone*, where Envy is purged, has no sculptures or pictures; the rock is smooth and of the same leaden hue that covers and envelops the sinners there. Examples of charity come to them in gentle murmurs from the upper air, and a warning voice cleaving the sky like a lightning-flash or rending it as a thunderclap tells of punishment. The promise for them is implied in the text "Love them which despitefully use you," and is, "Blessed are ye when men shall revile you"; their office is the Litany of the Virgin and all the Saints. On the third *girone* the examples of mansuetude and the instances of punished anger visit the soul interiorly; they are apprehended in an ecstatic vision or momentary trance. The promise here is, "Blessed are the peacemakers," and the office of the Church is the *Agnus dei . . . dona nobis pacem*. For those on the fourth ledge, who expiate the sin of spiritual sloth (ἀκηδεια), there is no office of the Church breviary. The nature of their sin forbids it, since it has involved neglect of the church services, and the form of their expiation makes it impossible; but they have their promise in "Blessed are they that mourn," and on this *girone* two spirits in front recount improving examples of virtue, while the warning instances of *accidia* come from two laggards at the rear. Scartazzini fails to identify the Church office assigned on the seventh ledge for the expiation of lust, only because Dante uses the old form of the hymn sung on Saturday at matins and beginning *Summæ Deus clementiæ*. In the altered modern breviary, *Deus* has been changed to *parens*. Various other alterations from the more rugged and uncompromising version alone current in Dante's time have been made in this particular hymn.

—The new novel by Alphonse Daudet, 'La Petite Paroisse' (Paris: Lemerre; New York: Brentanos, Christern, Meyer Bros.), shows the same exquisite feeling and touch as the earlier works of the master, with little diminution of strength. The artist still enjoys his powers of vision and expression; the analyst retains his skill and precision; the story-teller still has the charm and attraction of old. What is perhaps more marked is the profound sympathy of Daudet for all suffering and the intense desire he feels to raise and brighten. He is an optimist in 'La Petite Paroisse,' and his kindly touch gives even Charlexis and the old duke redeeming features here and there. The book recalls 'Mme. Bovary' in some respects. The two heroines have much in common at first; Daudet's does not sink as low, and is finally restored and pardoned. The two husbands are not unlike, but Daudet makes his rage with jealousy and suffer till cured—a stronger man in some respects, yet not so pathetic a figure as Flaubert's. The book also recalls the plays of Dumas *fils*, and the terrible conclusion to which that inflexibly logical writer comes in the discussion of the punishment of the guilty wife. But Daudet's whole book breathes the spirit of forgiveness and peace, of tender mercy and uplifting grace, and in so much is more strengthening and elevating than all the younger Dumas's brilliant work. The story is a simple one, the fall and redemp-

tion of a married woman, tyrannized over by a despotic, narrow-minded mother-in-law. It is told with all the wondrous grace and poetry which are Daudet's special gifts, in that sunny French of which he possesses the secret, full of delicate suggestiveness of tint and color. No more than 'Mme. Bovary' does it make sin alluring, but it lacks, happily, the cruel impassibility and bitter vividness of Flaubert's famous book.

—The death of Francis II., sometime King of Naples, gave a fine occasion to the Parisian interviewer to pay a visit to M. Daudet. It recalled the 'Rois en exil,' since the protagonist of that admirable novel, Christian II. of Illyria, has been generally supposed to be not much more than Francis in a light disguise. The resemblance was less close than that, Daudet says. Francis served him in a general way as a model, but the figure of Christian was very far from being a portrait. It was in this case as in Daudet's other books. He does not attempt historical romance, but, on the other hand, he invents nothing. He takes his material, he says, where he finds it, a bit here and a bit there, and constructs his personages by a process of synthesis. This perhaps the acute reader has before now divined. In the case of the 'Rois en exil,' he set out to paint the fashion of a world that was passing away—perhaps it is quite gone since he wrote—the world of a court that surrounded with middle-age etiquette the throne of an anointed king. His task was to watch the clash of these old fashions with the freer ways of modern life. For this he wanted a king much less austere than Francis was, and he found him in a Spanish prince whose acquaintance with both worlds in Paris was exhaustive. From him he drew the escapades of Christian. From the life of Francis came the scene of the offer of money in exchange for an abdication of the throne, and also the episode of the siege of Ragusa, which is merely the story of the siege of Gaeta, where Francis and his queen were shut in. The original of Frédérique was a princess of Hanover. Élysée Méraut alone was drawn from the life. He really lived, and Daudet knew him years ago when he was a light of the Quartier Latin. His reputation as a student gained him the place of tutor to an Austrian prince, and he went, very young, to Vienna. There the sight of the decadence of a royal race, and of the principle of the royal divine right, in which he had been a passionate, blind believer, soon disgusted him, and he came back, disillusioned, to die in Paris. Élysée Méraut is the one figure in the 'Rois en exil' who truly lives and breathes; and it might be worth while to read the novel over again, in the light of Daudet's interview, with an eye to determining whether the other personages of the drama do not possess life in direct proportion as they are true to fact.

—The completed first volume of the *Euphorion*, "Zeitschrift für Literaturgeschichte" (Bamberg: Buchner), edited by Prof. Sauer of Prague University, fully justifies the hopeful view of this undertaking expressed by us after the appearance of the first number. The new review is a decided improvement upon its two predecessors, the *Vierteljahrschrift* and the *Archiv für Literaturgeschichte*, being much more comprehensive than the former and less given to mere antiquarianism than the latter. It is indeed the first noteworthy attempt at creating a thoroughly scientific organ for the study of modern German literature in its broadest aspect, *i. e.*, in connection with the whole of national development, with the leading movements in politics and society, in religion and philosophy, in music and the fine arts. The list of contributors to the first volume includes such names as Jakob Minor, Bernhard Seuffert, Erich Schmidt, Woldemar von Biedermann, Ludwig Geiger, Anton E. Schönbach, Reinhold Steig. The variety of its contents may be indicated by the fact that by the side of an article on Goethe as a scientist there is an æsthetic analysis of Schiller's "Maid of Orleans," while an essay on "Eduard Mörike and Politics" is followed by an exposition of the part taken by Herder in Lavater's 'Physiognomik,' a philological study on the figurative expression in Bismarck's letters, a disquisition upon the influence exerted by Thorwaldsen on Hebbel's artistic views, a biographical note on Klopstock's acquaintance with the composer Gluck, etc. A large space is devoted to uncommonly judicious reviews of all the more important publications on German literature of recent years, to an exhaustive bibliography, and to reports on periodical or other contributions to this field of study outside of Germany. The American report, written by Dr. Max Poll of Harvard and Prof. W. H. Rosenstengel of the University of Wisconsin, is, if we are not mistaken, the first attempt of this kind made in this country. To judge from this volume, the *Euphorion* will be an absolutely indispensable reference work for students of German literature, and no college library should be without it.

—A very serious drawback to a young man who has only a limited income and wishes to pursue his studies in north Germany or Austria, is the heavy income and communal taxes to which he is subjected. This system of extortion is rigorously applied, and often renders it quite impossible for a student who goes abroad on a small stipend or travelling fellowship to remain in Vienna, Berlin, Leipzig, Göttingen, or in any university north of the Main. It does not seem to be generally known that Bavaria pursues in this respect a more liberal and enlightened policy. About fifteen years ago a bill was introduced into the Bavarian Parliament proposing to imitate the north German States in compelling all foreign residents to pay taxes; but the project was vigorously and almost unanimously opposed by the press, and finally abandoned. The result has been that the rapid increase of the number of foreign residents in Munich has greatly promoted the prosperity of that city, while Berlin tradesmen are loudly lamenting the loss of English, and especially of American, customers, and wondering what has become of them. The fact that the lectures at the University of Munich were attended during the last semester by 3,798 persons and those at the University of Leipzig by only 2,862 is due in part at least to the same cause. It has frequently happened that graduates of American collegiate institutions have gone to Germany with the intention of pursuing special studies at Berlin and Leipzig, but, on receiving a visit from the tax commissioners, have wisely concluded to settle in Munich, where they found the advantages of instruction equally great and the drain upon their usually light purses far less.

—Those interested in postgraduate study at large will follow with interest the present deliberations of "Congregation" at Oxford (Congregation consists substantially of the 436 Masters of Arts in residence). Having committed itself some time ago to the principle of awarding degrees for research, Congregation on February 12 rejected, by a vote of 147 to 33, a group of amendments to the form of statute laid before them by a committee appointed for that purpose. These rejected amendments would have had the effect of making the proposed degrees not postgraduate, but undergraduate, since they expunged the clauses in the statute instituting the new degrees of *B. Litt.* and *B.Sc.*, and provided that the candidates under the new rules should receive the ordinary B.A. The statute under consideration admits to candidature any person not under the age of twenty-one who has taken the Oxford B.A., or has given evidence of having received a good general education. He must further have shown his fitness to enter on a course of special study or research, and have proved that his proposed course of study may be profitably pursued within the University. This admits any one holding an approved B.A. without absolutely requiring a B.A. An amendment was rejected, by a vote of 107 to 39, which required either the Oxford or some other B.A. or equivalent degree. The reasons which weighed here were that military men and others who would not naturally hold any degree would be suitable candidates, more especially in science. Upwards of forty amendments remain still to be accepted or rejected.

A PERIODICAL DICTIONARY.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Edited by Dr. James A. H. Murray. Vol. III., (1) D–Deceit, (2) Deceit–Deject. By Dr. Murray. Vol. IV., (1) F–Fang. By Henry Bradley. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894, 1895.

ALL must approve the issuing of thinner sections of this great work at quarterly intervals. There is a natural impatience at the inevitably slow progress, and a desire to profit as soon as possible by what leaves the press. Unlike the serial of fiction, this has the advantage of being able to break off anywhere without forfeiting its welcome. Dr. Murray, it will be remembered, in beginning volume three, has but a gap to fill, since the second half (letter E) has already been completed by Mr. Bradley, who now pushes on in letter F and volume four, taking G also for his province, but, like a true Englishman, dropping his H—to Dr. Murray. One feels, we think, the personality of these two co-workers even while pursuing an identical method; but in our remarks we shall not attempt to separate them.

Noticeable for fulness are the articles *day*, *dead*, *face*, and *fall*, for which last, with its hundred shades, a phrase-key is provided. Etymology is baffled in the case of *damp*, whose history before 1480 is unknown, *dandle* (1530), *dandruff* (1545), *dandy* (1780), *dank* (1400), *darn*, 'to mend' (1600), *debauch*, *fad*, a dialectic form of recent adoption (1834), *fake*, used by Maginn in *Blackwood* in 1827. On the other hand, we trace *darkle* to Byron (1819); *Black Death* to Elizabeth Penrose (Mrs. Markham), who apparently introduced this name for the Great Pestilence that devastated Europe in the middle of the fourteenth century, into her History of England (1823); *decephalization* to J. D. Dana (1863); *decidua* to Hunter (1785). By the chance of reading for the Dictionary, *dander* first turns up in Haliburton's 'Sam Slick' (1837), *to take a dare* decidedly belated in Richard Harding Davis's 'Van Bibber' (1892), *darkey*, also (probably) behind time, in Dana's 'Two Years before the Mast' (1840), and *deer-lick* certainly so (1876)—

a conspicuous instance of inattention on the part of Dr. Murray's American readers. Other appearances worth noting are *daily*, the substantive for 'newspaper' (1858), *Darwinian*, referring to Erasmus D. (1804), *Davy Jones* (1751, in Smollett), *deadbeat* (1877), *deadhead* (1853, Lowell cited), *decentralization* (1846), *deforest*, in the modern sense (1880), *fair*, meaning 'tolerable' (1795, in Burke, seemingly; but the next instance is from Tyndall, 1860). *Defalcation* is first detected in Worcester's Dictionary (ed. 1846), and does not occur in Craig's (1847)—though, as the French statesman said of "job," that France hadn't the word, but Heaven knew she had the thing, so defalcations were not unknown in England before the middle of the present century. The earliest quotation for *Dago* (Spaniard, Portuguese, Italian, Spanish American) is 1888, and it is only by way of curiosity that we cull from Pickard's Life of Whittier (i., 395) these lines cited by James T. Fields in a letter to the poet (March 1, 1857):

> "And he shall say a good word for him,
> Igo and ago,
> Else may Old Nick to shoe-strings chew him,
> Iram, coram, dago."

Joel Barlow, in his 'Columbiad,' gave currency to *Fabian* in the sense of 'cunctatory,' and we are told that the latter day Fabian Society (1884) derives its name from its gradual method as opposed to immediate revolution. An English writer finds *Falstaffian* convenient no earlier than 1808; two other quotations, both American, are dated 1856 and 1880.

Greville borrowed *décolleté* from the French in 1831, in a passage which now reads queerly: "The Queen is a prude, and will not let the ladies come *décolletées* to her parties." He italicized it as a foreign word, but in 1848 Thackeray apparently used it as completely naturalized, in 'Vanity Fair.' In 1884 the *Westminster Daily Press* is cited as dropping the accent of the first *e* (decolleté). This may have been a mere carelessness at any one of three points along the line—of the writer in the *Press*, the reader for the Dictionary, or, finally, the printer; but it is interesting to notice that *debris* is placed before *débris* as the spelling of preferred usage, with choice of pronunciation debbree', day'bree, or deb'bree. Similarly, we find "*debacle*. . . . Also *débâcle*," but with an English pronunciation solely, dibbah'kl. *Faineance*, again, comes full-fledged English into Kingsley's 'Hypatia' without an accent, and with no nasality in the last syllable—like *faineancy* in Thoreau and Goldwin Smith; whereas *fainéant* (with the French pronunciation) has a divided usage not recognized in the rubric—Sir D. Carleton in 1619 writing *faineants*, Liddell in 1855 *fainéans*, Milman in the same year *fainéant*, and Pattison in 1868 *faineant*. With *faineantise* we observe the same diversity. There seems to be some ground for a generalization to the effect that scientists incline to naturalize French words by dropping the accent. Thus, the sole quotation from such a source under *ampère* has *ampere* (pron. either as in French or ăm'pair); Playfair in 1802 and Buckland in 1823 write *debacle;* Playfair (1802), Wilson (1851), and Geikie (1858) write *debris*, Murchison alone using the French form, as French. We may notice here the fact that *daguerreotype* appears from the start as a word of four syllables, the second *e* being silent; the *Athenæum*, indeed, of January 26, 1839, spoke of "the newly invented machine which is to be called the Daguerotype." The French, however, write *daguerréotype*, and those whose memories go back to the early days of this process in the United States will recall a not uncommon trace of the accented letter in a five-syllable pronunciation (-e-o-type.) Our spelling-reformers, by the way, often retort that our deformed orthography in certain cases suggests a false etymology; but how would they deal with words like *ampere* and *daguerreotype* without destroying all visible trace of the proper names historically honored in these vocables?

While on the subject of phonetics we remark that *dais*, which "died out in English about 1600, but was retained in Scotch in sense [of 'bench,' 'settle']," is, as in French, always a monosyllable "in English where retained as a living word; the dissyllabic pronunciation is a 'shot' at the word from the spelling." In this country it can but seldom be heard, though often enough met with in writing; our own experience would lead us to think the dissyllabic pronunciation the prevalent one. Where popular education is general and population scattered, there will always be "shots from the spelling." This more than anything else, perhaps, tends to differentiate our American speech from the English. Dawnt is Dr. Murray's only recognized pronunciation for *daunt*, and it may well be the most common in America, particularly at the West, where one even hears dănt; but we should say that dahnt was the rule with people of culture at the East. *Decō'rous* (or *dĕ'corous*), we are told, is not very frequent colloquially in England, and the same holds good with us. In *decrescendo*, as in *crescendo*, *sc* is given solely the sound of *sh*, in the Italian fashion; we should think it hardly the rule in this country even among the cultivated, and for poetic use the *ss* of the standard English pronunciation of Latin seems the more desirable. In England, *falcon* preferably has the *l* sounded, and it appears singular that this should not hold with *falconer* (faw'koner or faw'kner only).

If we turn now to definitions, we notice that our winged (devil's-) *darning-needle* is lost sight of under that word, though we may look to find it under *devil*. For *dalles* we regret that this note by Dr. Elliott Coues, in his edition of Lewis & Clark (iii., 954 *n*), was not available. He is speaking of the famous gorge of the Columbia River, but the term is generic in the Far West:

> "As a word, 'dalles' is a French plural, the English of which is flagstones, such as we lay down for a sidewalk along a street. One may even hear of 'those dalles,' *i. e.*, flat rocks in the river serving for stepping-stones. 'Dalles' are also the characteristic and celebrated columnar basaltic rock formations through which the river passes for many miles. 'Dalles' are likewise the course of the river through such formations, and the river itself during such courses, *i. e.*, the river runs through 'dalles,' and is 'dalles' in running through them. In this sense there are various 'dalles' on the Columbia; the Cascades are 'dalles,' etc."

None of the definitions of *dead-lift*, unless it be 'sheer lift,' covers our familiar sense of a lift of a dead-weight, without any advantage of momentum or leverage. *Deadline* is too restrictedly defined as a line drawn *around* a military prison, as the citation from Lossing shows: "Seventeen feet from the *inner* stockade was the 'deadline.'" Under *facetiæ* we discover no allusion to booksellers' euphemistic employment of the word in their catalogues as a classification for pornographic literature. Purists who grudge the English language a synonym for trustworthy, will be pained to meet this under *faithful:* "also, of things: Reliable." The same class, who from time to time inveigh against the absurdity of the phrase "to a degree," meaning 'to an undefined, but considerable or serious, extent; extremely, seriously,' may learn that it goes back to 1721, and was handed down by Sheridan (1775) and Carlyle (1865).

It remains to say a few words about the illustrative examples. Milton's "sad occasion dear" is duly appealed to for the second sense of *dear*, now wholly archaic, of 'hard, severe, heavy, grievous, fell, dire'; but we search in vain for the line from the same poem, "Fame is the spur," under *fame*, nor do we discover any niche of definition for "to my *fancied* sight" in Milton's sonnet to his dead wife. We miss, under *fancy*, Emerson's "Fancy departs, no more invent"—a real definition. Under the plural of *decay*, we wish for Lowell's line in his sonnet to Jeffries Wyman, "That such a man could spring from our decays"; under *dedicate*, for Lincoln's marked use of the word in his Gettysburg address. But these last are again our own American shortcomings as readers for Dr. Murray.

MASTERPIECES OF GREEK SCULPTURE.—II.

Masterpieces of Greek Sculpture: A Series of Essays on the History of Art. By Adolph Furtwängler. Edited by Eugénie Sellers, with 19 full-page plates and 200 text illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

It is necessary to explain more in detail what ascriptions the author makes, what restorations he proposes, and what bringing together of separate and far-distant fragments he has accomplished. Supreme in interest is no doubt the famous statue of the Louvre. This statue, found in the island of Melos in a niche, and accompanied by smaller pieces of sculpture, was brought to Paris during the reign of Louis XVIII. and set up in the Louvre. Its base being broken, one part of it, which bore an ascription, soon disappeared. The work before us gives as a sufficient reason for the disappearance the desire of the custodians of the Louvre, in the ignorant days before 1825, to claim Praxiteles or some other giant of renown as the author. Both arms are broken off. A very large number of proposed restorations have been made. It has been thought that the statue was that of a Muse playing on the lyre, of a Victory holding a shield on which she was writing, of a Venus looking at herself in a mirror held in the right hand and raising the left hand to the hair, of a Venus grouped with Mars, of a Venus grouped with Cupid. Perhaps thirty different proposals, all from sufficiently well-reputed artists and archæologists, might be brought together. The work before us establishes at length the originality of the inscribed part of the plinth; it also shows that the small square hole in the lost piece of the plinth, which is shown in Debay's drawing, probably received a pillar; it maintains that the left arm was raised, though not quite to the level of the shoulder, and that the hand was turned with the palm upward. There results a restoration shown on page 380, which we have described above. The inquiry is then carried on to the original type which the Melos statue reproduces, and it is found that the present statue is based upon a pure Greek type similar to that of the Aphrodite of Capua at Naples, which type is assumed to be a Skopasian type, but modified by reference to the statues of Tyche, or Deity of Good Fortune, of the island of Melos. As the whole argument fills thirty-three pages, we cannot analyze it here. It will excite the angry incredulity of those who wish

to think their favorite statue an unmatched original work. To those who are aware that the sculpturesque quality remains the same, whatever the subject may be and whencesoever it may be derived, this inquiry cannot cause annoyance, nor its result disappointment. No sculptor, in his loving study of this masterpiece of his art, will vex himself by any reference to the archæologist's discovery, or supposed discovery, of the mixed origin of its type. "Macbeth" is what it is, no matter where its author found the legend upon which it is based.

A somewhat similar inquiry is set on foot in the case of the Apollo of the Belvedere. The book before us states truly that, from the time of the suggestion that what the god had held in his left hand was (not a bow, as the people thought in the days of Lord Byron, but) an ægis, this theory has been the favored one. Being new and rather surprising, it was pleasant to believe; and it was probable enough to please the archæologists. In part this theory was based upon the bronze statuette at St. Petersburg called the Stroganoff Apollo, in the left hand of which is a crumpled some thing which is generally assumed to be the end of the ægis. Prof. Furtwängler now declares that from 1891, when he had a good chance to study the statuette, he has believed it a valueless modern work, and therefore does not interest himself further in the evidence which it might furnish. He goes straight back to inherent probabilities: "We need have no doubt whatever," it is stated on page 407, that the "Apollo with the quiver on his back held the bow in his left hand." Moreover, there was something in the right hand, and it must have been a laurel bough, or more than one, with fillets. The Apollo is then compared with the work of Leochares, the sculptor of the Halicarnassus Mausoleum; and the work is asserted to be a "careful and evidently a faithful Roman copy" of a piece of Greek work, probably a bronze, of the fourth century B. C. To know more about the original Greek statue, we are told to compare the so-called Steinhauser head in the Museum at Basle. There is then a further inquiry into the original type of the statue: it is asked when and where the idea of this Apollo, newly descended from above, ready for action, turning his head to one side and in decided movement, first took shape. The discussion here loses itself in vague suggestion. There is really nothing more to say, for no other sculptures are known which help much toward the answer sought.

The chapter on the Acropolis Temples at Athens, translated by Miss Margaret Alford, is left to the appendix and to smaller print because, as the editor says, it is "mainly of historical and topographical interest." It appears, furthermore, that the editor has made it her aim "to disengage the author's arguments from all such controversial matter as might cumber or obscure them." This is done by putting all reference to contrary theories into the notes. It is not, therefore, the author's "argument" which appears in the body of the text in this appendix, but the author's theory of the historical sequence, the separate character and uses, and the architectural peculiarities of the different temples. Only a perfectly unprejudiced writer, absolutely uncommitted to a theory of his own, and taking time to compare the different theories on this subject, point by point, could hope to show with any completeness how varied and how contradictory are the opinions of competent archæologists. The author's opinion, as simplified by the editor, may be stated as follows: There is no evidence that an older building stood on the site of the Erechtheion. The shrine of Erechtheus and Athena, "attested for the sixth century by the passages from Homer, can be no other than the great 'old temple' discovered by Dörpfeld." These passages from Homer are 'Iliad,' ii., 549, *et seq.*, and 'Odyssey,' vii., 81; it is assumed also that these two poems, or at least the passages cited, are not older than the sixth century (p. 416). This "old temple" is the peristylar temple laid down on the recent maps of the Acropolis as having stood immediately south of the present site of the Erechtheion, so that the column of its northeastern angle would have been in contact with the south wall of the later building, had they both existed together. This old temple had a double naos (or cella), the chamber to the east being that of Athena and that to the west the shrine of Erechtheus; the Erechtheion proper, or western part, having also two small chambers to the east of it. A long paragraph is devoted to a most interesting discussion of the opposing theory that the western compartments of the naos were, here and elsewhere, treasuries and nothing else. The naos of this old temple was of indefinite antiquity, the peristyle later. This old temple must have been the Hekatompedon, for the reason that no late building would have been especially esteemed on account of being a hundred feet long; moreover, the hundred-foot measurement applies to the naos or temple proper, and not to its inessential part, the portico of columns. "Hekatompedon was the official name for the whole edifice," and this building "was, until 480, the only temple of the City Goddess and her companion Erechtheus upon the citadel."

The second temple is the older Parthenon, the building whose substructures exist under the Parthenon of Pericles. Of this building nothing is really known except that it must belong to the time between 479 and 447, and that it was never finished or even nearly finished. If it was abandoned in an incomplete state, deliberately destroyed and replaced by the Parthenon of Pericles, that can only point to its having been undertaken by one party in the state and therefore obstructed and delayed by the opposite party; so that the dominating personality of Pericles and his large views found nothing but a structure just begun, unroofed and barely enclosed, as an obstacle to their own grandiose conceptions. The Parthenon of Pericles was begun in 447, with a naos made much wider than the old one, evidently for the sake of the gigantic statue of Athena which was to be placed there. This new Parthenon still included a double naos, but the whole of it was devoted to Athena. The old temple was still standing and had been restored after the Persian invasion. The worship of Erechtheus remained in the old temple, and no separate building corresponding to the present Erechtheion existed. The opisthodomos which served as the Treasury of the Confederation, was not a part of the temple, but a separate building. The building of the new Erechtheion was undertaken after the peace of Nikias (421 B. C.). This was done as a special recognition of conservative principles and the older worship of Athens, as is indicated by the worship of Athena and Erechtheus in two separate chambers of one naos. The new building was therefore a rebuilding of the old temple, which latter was destroyed, probably as soon as the new structure was sufficiently advanced to be used for worship.

With the above historical examination are combined a consideration of the meaning of the Parthenon frieze, an inquiry into the subject of the eastern pediment and of the western pediment, an attempted explanation of the different divisions of the Erechtheion structure, such as the kekropion and the pandroseion, the valuable objects preserved within this temple, and finally the Temple of Nike, to which a separate section is devoted.

The whole of this examination of the temples on the Acropolis, filling fifty-five pages, is exceptionally interesting in spite of its compactness and the immense amount of matter crowded into it. It ought to be printed in a volume by itself with larger type, with a plan agreeing in all respects with the text, and, indeed, specially prepared for the illustration of the text, and with the notes referring to other and often contrary opinions increased in number. The special value of this long examination is in its completeness and unity. As regards the separate conclusions reached, their actual value is probably very unequal. Thus, the attempt at naming the seated gods at the eastern end of the Parthenon frieze is not more successful than a dozen other explanations that have been offered, while the account of the buildings and their historical succession, which we have stated briefly, is of the highest interest. The whole essay, however, is crowded with novel views, nearly all based upon demonstration sufficient to account for them, if not to prove them, and affording a solid ground upon which to erect new theories and future conclusions.

This, in fact, is the important service that the book as a whole may be expected to render. It will serve as a point of departure. Not in our time will the last word be said in the way of controversy concerning these vexed questions of archæology. New explorations of Greek sites will teach us more than we now know about temples and their architecture. New diggings will give us Greek sculpture among which there will be here and there an original of first-rate importance, and, if the Italian authorities can be brought to the task, the uncovering of Herculaneum alone will probably give us not only Greek originals such as those found in the famous villa, but also Roman copies of masterpieces in incalculable numbers. It will be many a year, however, before this book will be superseded, or its value as a contribution to the history of Grecian art be seriously diminished. Since it is meant for readers who are not professed archæologists, one complaint is in place, namely, that the Greek passages have not their translations appended. There is a considerable and growing class of persons whom we should like to send to this book, few of whom can read these extracts in the original; they are sincere lovers of art, and many (though not enough) professional artists are among them. It is a safe statement that not one in ten of lovers and students of art who would gladly use such a book as this can read Greek with ease. It is safe to say that practically no artists can read Greek. And how easy it would have been to procure literal prose versions of the few passages quoted! Possibly, also, a glossary should be added.

Travels amongst the American Indians, their Ancient Earthworks and Temples. By Vice-Admiral Lindesay Brine. Illustrated. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 8vo, pp. 422.

THE journey of which this volume is the outcome was made in 1869, and our author's

object was to examine the mounds and earthworks of the Ohio valley and the ruined temples of Guatemala and southern Mexico, with the view of determining, so far as might be, their origin. But while this was his main purpose, it is but fair to add that he was by no means neglectful of what he saw and heard in other directions. Accordingly, there are portions of the volume in which he has gathered together a number of facts which are of interest socially and politically rather than archæologically, and which for this reason will prove peculiarly attractive to the casual reader. Especially is this true of the first two or three chapters, in which we have a somewhat gossipy account of the author's observations and experiences in Boston and elsewhere in the towns and cities of the Atlantic coast. Thus, for example, basing his conclusion upon what he had seen of the effects of emancipation in the West Indies, he tells us (p. 6) that there was not much probability that the negro children who were then at school in our Southern States would ever rise to an equality with the white races (*sic*) around them. Upon this point the testimony of the Catholic missionaries among our Indians is of importance. In fact the problem is the same, whether it relates to the Indian or the negro, or whether, as is unfortunately the case at present with us, it has to do with the Indian and the negro at one and the same time. Accordingly, when these missionaries tell us (pp. 35, 111, 276, 372, etc.) that the efforts of the past three hundred years to improve the intellectual character of the tribes committed to their care have been useless, it may well teach us to look with patience upon the struggles of a people who did not enter upon the upward race until we were nearing the goal. However, be this as it may, opinions upon these and similar topics are in the nature of *obiter dicta*, and though the questions involved, relating as they do to the future of the negro and the Indian, are as important as when they were first broached, and call upon us quite as loudly for solution, yet they may be passed over without affecting the force of our author's conclusions upon subjects that came more immediately within the sphere of his inquiry.

Among these, the mound question, as it is called (including under this title the shell-heaps of Maine and the ancient mines of Wisconsin as well as the earthworks of the Ohio valley), chiefly appeals to us. It may even be said to take on an added interest, since our author (p. 387) evidently inclines to the opinion that the so-called mound-builders originally lived in the Ohio valley, and that, having been driven from that region at some time in the distant past, they moved southward and established themselves in Guatemala, where they built the immense works at Patinamit and Utatlan. He also tells us (pp. 64, 103, 382, etc.) that there was no such difference between the civilization of these mound-builders and that of the Indians who were found here when the whites first landed as would justify the inference that they belonged to different races, and hence he concludes that they were one and the same people. To this conclusion, so far as it relates to the identity of the mound-builders and the Indians of historic times, we do not object. The trend of opinion among competent investigators has been in this direction for some years past; and the recent report of Cyrus Thomas, in the publications of the Bureau of Ethnology, is so exhaustive of the subject as to render any further discussion unnecessary.

But while we are in full accord with our author's conclusion upon this point, there are a number of statements leading up to it which are not accepted, or which can be explained in a different way from that which he has adopted. For instance, so far was it from being the custom of our Indians (p. 68) to torture and kill their prisoners that it was the exception. Even among the fierce and haughty Iroquois in the heyday of their power, almost one-half of their fighting men ('Jesuit Rel.' A. D. 1660, p. 6) were adoptions; and this would have been impossible if the massacre of captives had been the rule. So, too, blue eyes and red hair among the Mandans can be satisfactorily accounted for without the intervention of the Welsh or any other pre-Columbian arrivals; and as for the squares and circles—including those that are wrongly said (pp. 99, 102) to have been erected under the direction of European surveyors—it is only necessary to call attention to the fact that our Western farmers, when fencing in their fields, rarely have the use of mathematical instruments, and that although thus handicapped, they find no difficulty in "running off" squares as large as any of those in the Ohio valley, with the aid of three straight sticks and a good eye. The circles might, perhaps, give a little more trouble, but even they are not beyond the compass of a boy with a string.

In regard to the temples, etc., of Guatemala and southern Mexico, there is not much to be said. Some of the more elaborate among them were in use when Europeans first appeared upon the scene; and, thanks to recent investigations, it is no longer necessary to invent a band of civilization-bearing refugees from Spain (p. 422) or anywhere else, in order to account for the progress of the people who built them. In fact, so radical is the change of opinion on this subject that not only is the development attained in certain favored centres, as, for example, in Mexico and Peru, believed to have been of indigenous growth, but there is a large and growing school of ethnologists who hold with Brinton ('American Race,' p. 44) that wherever there was such a centre, the advance was not monopolized by the people among whom it appeared, but was enjoyed to nearly an equal degree by neighboring tribes of different stocks. In other words, the idea that the civilization of tribes like the Aztecs and Quichés differed in kind from that of the Pueblos and the Indians that lived east of the Mississippi, is no longer entertained. Unquestionably there were differences in architecture, and perhaps in some other respects, but they were more than counterbalanced by the resemblances, and were far fewer than can be found in any of our cities. Even in those instances in which the disparity was marked, it may have been due, as Bandelier suggests, to the exigencies of another climate and of varying natural resources.

Cossack Fairy-Tales and Folk-Tales. Selected, edited, and translated by R. Nisbet Bain. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE field of folk-lore is being more industriously worked than ever, and Mr. Bain contributes the most recent volume on that subject. It is hardly fair to say of the Ruthenian folk-tale, as the translator states in his introduction, that it "has managed, owing to favorable circumstances, to preserve far more of the fresh spontaneity and naïve simplicity of the primitive folk-tales than her more sophisticated sister, the Russian *Skazka*." The effect produced upon a person conversant with Russian folk-tales by the perusal of the majority of the stories in this volume is, that they are more or less familiar, not only in general outlines, but in definite incidents and phrases. While it might be difficult or impossible to point out a perfect mate in the tales of Great Russia to any one of these tales of Little Russia, it is nevertheless a fact that the latter are annoyingly reminiscent. They even contain passages and incidents which are parallel to or identical with passages and incidents in the *byliny*, or epic songs. The Great Russian tales may have been derived from these Little Russian forms, like the Epic Songs of the Kieff Cycle, which are no longer known in the land of their birth, but are still handed down by oral tradition among the peasants of the far north. But it must be remembered that Novgorod the Great formed another cradle of original folk-lore in the Northwest, and that Kieff was settled by colonists from Novgorod.

The Great Russian tales and epics are no more "sophisticated" than those which are presented to us here, though the latter will always seem less sophisticated in the original because of the piquancy and soft mellowness of the dialect in which they are written. Again, while they are, as a rule, no doubt of great antiquity, they have not escaped the intrusion of modern foreign elements, such as that in "The Wondrous Story of Ivan Golik and the Serpents." Ivan is cast into the sea and is swallowed by a great whale-fish, in whose maw he finds wagons containing tobacco-pipes and tobacco, which he uses until the whale feels uncomfortable and swims ashore, when Ivan is rescued. While this Jonah incident may have been introduced and improved upon in very early times, the tobacco interpolation cannot date back further than the seventeenth century, at which time the plant was introduced in Russia.

In "The Vampire and St. Michael" we have the original of Gogol's famous story, "Vy." It must be confessed that the original is far more racy and delightful than the modernized version which Gogol published many years before an attempt had been made to collect the Cossack legends of his native Ukraïna. "The Sparrow and the Bush" is the counterpart of "The Old Woman who went to Market," while "The Golden Slipper" is a perfect and beautifully characteristic version of "Cinderella." The oppressed stepdaughter drives in splendor to church, not to a ball, and the fascinated Tsesarevitch secures both of her slippers by placing pitch on the spot where she is wont to stand there. The prince is represented in the illustration as sitting in church on a handsomely carved bench. The illustrator should have known that no one sits in a Russian church, and that the design of the carving is not Russian. In general, it may be said of the illustrations that they are fairly decorative, but are neither national nor characteristic.

The most thoroughly national and charming tale, "The Tsar and the Angel," narrates how the Tsar, "who was so very proud that he feared neither God nor man," waxed wroth at some words of Holy Scripture which the priest read in church. "To say such words to me," thought he—"words that I can never forget, though I grow gray-headed!" So he orders the priest to smear those words over with grease and never dare to read them again. The angel comes to the priest's assistance, and trains the haughty Tsar to be a good sovereign by making him poor and a vagabond on the face of the earth, and reigning in his stead until the Tsar has "picked up wisdom, if but little."

"The Ungrateful Children and the Old Father who went to school again" offers a very ingenious and amusing version of the state of affairs with which "King Lear" has made us familiar. The four ungrateful sons, among whom the old man has divided his property during his lifetime, shirk the duty of taking care of him, and decide to send him to school, though he has never learned his letters, because "there will be a bench for him to sit upon there, and he can take something to eat in his knapsack." The aged father cleverly outwits them, and makes them care for him until he dies. The only tragedy is furnished by the sons' wrath and disappointment after his death, and the comedy by the comment of their neighbors: "You see, he learned something at school after all! He was a long time before he *began* learning, but better late than never. It appears to us 'twas a right good school you sent him to."

The translation is spirited and good. The book is entertaining and valuable. Nevertheless, it is surprisingly lacking in the poetry which one would expect from a race so rich in poetical ballads, and which undoubtedly originated the majority of the deeply poetical epic songs. The tales are greatly inferior in poetry, invention, wit, and literary quality to the Esthonian Folk-Tales recently reviewed in these columns.

Papers and Notes on the Glacial Geology of Great Britain and Ireland. By the late Henry Carvill Lewis, M.A., F.G.S., edited from his unpublished MSS. by Henry W. Crosskey, LL.D., F.G.S. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

No single epoch in geology has been the subject of more study and speculation than the glacial period in Great Britain. There were first recognized the traces of a former ice invasion of the land, and it was from British geologists, as well as from Agassiz, that Americans took their first lessons in glacial geology. It is therefore somewhat singular, and at first sight paradoxical, that from an American geologist, and a very young one at that, there should come the first comprehensive and rational explanation of a multitude of glacial phenomena that have been for years in controversy among British glacialists, and that his views should meet such general acceptance among English geologists that one of their number was willing to edit his posthumous manuscripts.

The scientific career of the young Philadelphian, Prof. H. Carvill Lewis, was a very brief but brilliant one, and his early death was a distinct loss to science. After completing his studies of the great terminal moraine of the North American ice sheet where it crosses the mountains and valleys of Pennsylvania, he was seized with a desire to study similar phenomena in the smaller area of Great Britain, where he would have the benefit of detailed maps and of the observations of a host of trained geologists who had preceded him. He found these observations recorded in over 2,000 articles, the authors of no two of which were entirely in accord as to the proper interpretation of the phenomena observed. The thoroughness of his work is testified to by the fact that, after spending some time in the field with various English geologists, one of them remarked to him that he knew more about the subject than they did themselves. He spent considerable time in Europe, part of which was occupied in the study of petrography under German masters, and resulted in a paper on the origin of the South African diamond deduced from microscopical study of specimens from the Kimberley mines, which excited great interest throughout the scientific world, and met with almost universal acceptation as a good working hypothesis. He had gathered most of the material necessary for a proposed work on the glaciation of the British Isles when he was taken down by typhoid fever on his last voyage to England, and died a few days after his landing at Liverpool.

His last request to his devoted wife, who had accompanied him on all his geological excursions, was that his friend Dr. Crosskey would prepare this material for the press. Only a geologist can appreciate the arduousness and delicacy of such a task as the working up of the field-notes of a fellow geologist, and he can best understand why the editor has published the greater part of the material in the unfinished form in which it stood in Prof. Lewis's note-books. The resulting volume is in consequence perhaps less interesting to the general reader, but it is invaluable to the geologist or geological student, as showing the methods by which one of the best geological minds of the modern school arrives at its conclusions, and with what completeness field-notes may be taken. Dr. Crosskey does not subscribe to all of Prof. Lewis's deductions, and it is possible the latter might have found occasion to modify them to some extent after further investigation; but in the main they present the most plausible interpretation of the salient features of British glaciology.

The Latin Language: An Historical Account of Latin Sounds, Stems, and Flexions. By W. M. Lindsay, Fellow of Jesus College, Oxford. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1894.

THERE was a time, not so very long ago, when it was the fashion for scholars in this country to fancy that little if anything was to be learned in classical studies from the English. This idea, carried to an extreme though it was, our transatlantic friends partly deserved, and in it they were partly the victims of that prejudice against things English which, arising at an early time, was at its fiercest, perhaps, during and just after our civil war. It was deserved because the proverbial insularity of the Englishman apparently shut him off from all that was being done by German philologians—work that Americans were quick to appreciate—while Porson's famous epigram,

> "The Germans at Greek
> Are sadly to seek,"

saved over from a former generation and used after it had grown stale, seems to have expressed pretty well the average British classical scholar's feelings about the Teutons.

But it is a pity to suppose, as many still do, that the English have not outlived this superstition, or to go on fencing one's self out from the fruits of British scholarship whether grafted on German trunk or springing independent from the soil. The folly of slavishness to such prejudice is apparent when one thinks of the names (not to go further back) of Jowett, Blaydes, Jebb, Sandys, Butcher, and Campbell among Greek scholars, of Munro, Nettleship, Sellar, Ellis, Furneaux, and Mayor among the Latins, of archæologists like Gardner, Head, and Miss Harrison, of the historian Freeman, and of a host of the unfamiliar. And in narrower fields activity is hardly less, for whether or no we agree with the conclusions of writings like those of Haigh on the theatre, of Roberts on epigraphy, and of Monro, whose book on the modes of Greek music was lately reviewed in these columns, yet their words are at least always inspiring of thought, and, together with translations of indispensable works such as Teuffel's and, above all, Brugmann's, they show that ignorance of what is doing abroad can no longer be charged against our cousins of England. And now comes an Englishman who is the first since Corssen to give us a book "devoted to a separate investigation by comparative philological methods of the Latin language, its declensions, its conjugations, its formations of the various parts of speech, and the changes of its pronunciation and orthography."

The partial table of authorities quoted by Mr. Lindsay shows clearly enough that there is little that is "insular" about him. Among them German writings are in a strong majority, but we note also many names that are French, Italian, Greek, English, and even (confusion to Sydney Smith!) American. And the author of this volume of 650 pages laments that the comparatively backward state of our knowledge of Oscan, Umbrian, and Pelignian has prevented him from making it longer by considering more fully than he has done the relations of these languages to the Latin. The merest glance over the pages shows that we have here a thesaurus of information which is sure to be of the greatest value—"no prize composition to be heard and forgotten," but a work which will long be as useful to Latin scholars as Prof. Smyth's 'Dialects' is to be to the Greeks.

There are ten chapters in the book, on the following main subjects: The alphabet (12 pages), pronunciation (133), accentuation (48), Latin representations of Indo European sounds (96), formation of noun and adjective stems (49), declensions, etc. (54), pronouns (31), the verb (94), adverbs and prepositions (47), conjunctions and interjections (20). These are also subdivided into sections. The whole swarms with references to the ancient and modern sources, so that if one is not inclined to agree with Mr. Lindsay on a point of doctrine, he may search the appropriate scripture for himself. This we shall leave to the discretion of readers, for obviously it would be unfair to the author to pick out here and there points on which we chance to disagree with him and to hold them up to criticism. We all have our little fads, and in no branch of philology do we hug them closer than in the very subjects which Mr. Lindsay has treated. A book of this sort can be thoroughly tested only by long thumbing, and not by one or two readings. That this one will stand the test and commend itself as an indispensable handbook, seems at present no matter for doubt. To those who wish to try Mr. Lindsay in point of clearness and method of statement, we commend what he has to say on hidden quantity, double consonants, syllabication, position, and the nature of Latin accent.

Old and New Unitarian Belief. By John White Chadwick. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. 1894. Pp. xii, 246.

THE series of nine lectures here gathered into a volume are well worthy of preservation and of the attention of a larger public than Mr. Chadwick's Brooklyn congregation, for which most of them were originally prepared. The author belongs to the more radical wing of the Unitarian body, though he expresses it as his judgment that "it may well be doubted whether any Protestant sect is so well agreed at present on the main lines of its belief and

faith as 'the unsectarian sect called Unitarians.'" He cordially accepts the claims of modern Biblical criticism in their extremer forms; he frankly rejects all supernaturalistic conceptions, though he denies with equal positiveness the validity of the assertions of the pure materialist. In Mr. Chadwick's opinion, "before the century completes its round, the pure humanity of Jesus will be as generally received among us [Unitarians] as the unity of God." And this "pure humanity" implies no thought of perfection. The author's hope of immortality draws its strength not merely from the natural cravings of the human heart, but from "the scientific doctrine of the persistency of force," the "doctrine of correlated growth," and "the Darwinian doctrine of the survival of the fittest." His "great salvation" is "salvation by character."

Mr. Chadwick's affection for Parker and his school is conspicuous; but he takes his readers into his confidence as to his own spiritual development:

"I remember well enough how hard it was for me to give up the supernaturalist position. Body and soul seemed parting company. But I remember with much sadder self-compassion the agony of mind and heart when I could not maintain any longer the cause of Transcendentalism as formulated by Theodore Parker, or prophesy any more in its name. But from out the darkness there came hands that pluck ed me out of the horrible pit and miry clay, and set my feet upon a rock; and I found a new song in my mouth.

"It was the development of the scientific spirit that made such a change come o'er the spirit of our dream. . . . I think I am not wrong in my imagination that for many Unitarians of the more thoughtful kind there was a period of thick darkness somewhere along from 1860 to 1880, sooner or later as the individual was quick or slow to recognize the force of the scientific criticism on both the supernaturalist and the Transcendentalist positions."

Yet this exposition of more radical Unitarian thought is not the most valuable feature of these lectures for the general reader. Were it so, they would naturally call for review in the religious journals rather than in the *Nation*. Mr. Chadwick's conclusions will not command the assent of all who bear the Unitarian name—a fact which he frankly recognizes; they will certainly not meet the approval of the great majority of the religious scholars of America. But Mr Chadwick's volume has the merit of giving the best popular history of Unitarian doctrine that has come to our notice. It is not, like the work of Dr. J. H. Allen, recently reviewed in these columns, a sketch of the Unitarian movement as a whole, but a presentation of unfolding Unitarian thought regarding the cardinal principles of the Christian faith. The author, positive as he is in the expression of his own opinions, has recognized this clearly as the main aim of his volume:

"If there is one thing which I hope my book will do over and above all others, it is that it may furnish some correction of a very general impression in the Unitarian mind that Unitarianism is 'the same yesterday, to-day, and forever.' We make much of the changes which other creeds have undergone, and sometimes think and speak as if we had ourselves been mainly influential in bringing these changes about. Something we have done, no doubt; but in the meantime the same Time Spirit which has been at work on the other creeds has been at work upon ours also, and the changes it has undergone have not been less than theirs."

In pursuance of this endeavor, and under the captions of the Doctrine of Man, Concerning God, the Bible, Christianity, Concerning Jesus, the Future Life, and the Great Salvation, Mr. Chadwick has most interestingly set forth the rapid transformations of Unitarian belief. How wide and far-reaching those changes have been, especially in the American development of this way of thinking, he makes clearly manifest.

Not the least attractive quality of Mr. Chadwick's presentation is his modesty of claim for the body to which he belongs, and his charity toward those from whom he differs:

"The common asseveration, 'I am a good Unitarian,' often means, 'I am as rigid a sectarian as you will find in any of the orthodox sects.' But there are better Unitarians, who do not think that we have all the truth there is with us, nor all the goodness, who believe in our ideas, and still more in our principles, and would fain give them freest course, but who are not anxious by what name they shall be called, and whose hope is for an ever-livelier sympathy among all Christian sects and all the great religions of the world."

Altogether Mr. Chadwick has given us a valuable as well as a very readable treatise. An index is perhaps not to be expected in a collection of what were originally lectures, but had one been added, the usefulness of the volume would have been decidedly enhanced.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Book of Words. London: A. Constable & Co.
Baumbach, Rudolf. Frau Holde: Ein Gedicht. Henry Holt & Co. 25 cents.
Black, H. C. Handbook of American Constitutional Law. St. Paul: West Publishing Co. $3.75.
Brinton, Prof. D. G. A Primer of Mayan Hieroglyphics. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.20.
Brooks, F. E. Old Ace, and Other Poems. Cassell. $1.
Brown, H. F. John Addington Symonds: A biography. 2 vols. Scribners. $12.50.
Chamisso, Adelbert von. Peter Schlemihl's Wundersame Geschichte. Henry Holt & Co. 25 cents.
Davenport, B. R. "Uncle Sam's" Cabins: A Story of American Life. Mascot Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Gabillot, C. Hubert Robert et son Temps. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: *L'Art*.
Geikie, Cunningham. New Testament Hours: The Apostles, their Lives and Letters. James Pott & Co. $1.50.
Gibbs, M. B. Military Career of Napoleon the Great. Chicago: The Werner Co.
Graham, Margaret C. Stories of the Foot-Hills. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Grinnell, Laurence. The Brehon Laws: A Legal Handbook. London: Unwin; New York: Scribners. $2.40.
Guyau, J. M. Pages Choisies des Grands Ecrivains. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Hatzfeld, Prof. Adolphe, Darmesteter, Prof. Arsène, and Thomas, Prof. Antoine. Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française. A—F. Paris: Delagrave.
Haycraft, Prof. J. B. Darwinism and Race Progress. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Hill, Hilton. His Egyptian Wife. Home Book Co. $1.
Leach, Orlando. The State and Local Government of New York. Revised ed. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35 cents.
Mercier, Rev. Alexander G. He being Dead yet Speaketh, and Other Sermons. Randolph. $1.50.
Mirmont, H. de la Ville de. De Ansonii Mosella. Paris: Hachette.
Mirmont, H. de la Ville de. La Mythologie et les Dieux. Apollonius de Rhodes et Virgile. Paris: Hachette.
Pierson, Rev. A. T. Life-Power. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Renan, Ernest. History of the People of Israel from the Rule of the Persians to that of the Greeks. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.50.
Rogers, Alexander. The Rání of Jhánsi; or, The Widowed Queen. London: A. Constable & Co.
Roofer, Roof. The Fencing Girl: A London New Soul. London: Gay & Bird.
Street, G. S. Episodes. Merriam Co. 75 cents.
Tower, Charlemagne, Jr. The Marquise de La Fayette in the American Revolution. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Tyrrell, Prof. R. Y. Latin Poetry: Lectures Delivered in 1893 in the Johns Hopkins University. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Venable, W. H. Poems of William Haines Lyttle. With Memoir. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.25.
Voice, Speech and Gesture: A Practical Handbook to the Elocutionary Art. Putnams. $3.
Volkmann, Richard von. Kleine Geschichten. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Warren, Prof F. M. A History of the Novel Previous to the Seventeenth Century. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.
Watkins, M. C. American Literature. [Literature Primers.] American Book Co. 35 cents.
Whitney, Prof. W. D., and Marian P. An Introductory German Reader. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Willard, J. A. Half a Century with Judges and Lawyers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Wilmott, A. The Story of the Expansion of Southern Africa. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $2.
Wise, Lieut. H. A. Captain Brand of the Schooner *Centipede*. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Yeats, S. L. The Honor of Savelli: A Romance. Appletons.

MARCH
EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF FIFTEEN Appointed by the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association at Boston, Mass., February, 1893. Submitted at Cleveland, O., February 19–21, 1895.

1. On the Training of Teachers—Horace S. Tarbell (Chairma), Edward Brooks, Thomas M. Balliet, Newton C. Dougherty, and Oscar H. Cooper.

2. On the Correlation of Studies in Elementary Education—William T. Harris (Chairman), James M. Greenwood, Charles B. Gilbert, Lewis H. Jones, and William H Maxwell.

3. On the Organization of City School Systems—Andrew S. Draper (Chairman), Edwin P. Seaver, Albert G. Lane, Addison B. Poland, and W. B. Powell.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 7, 1895.

The Week.

THERE is a vast deal of satisfaction that Congress has at last adjourned, albeit tempered by the reflection that the meeting of the next one cannot be postponed beyond the first Monday in December. This satisfaction is expressed in some of the State Legislatures by resolutions condemnatory of Congress and congratulating the country on its final adjournment and extinction. This method of parading our likes and dislikes before the world is unmannerly and unbecoming, because it is an official condemnation of republican government. This Congress, whatever it may have done or left undone, was elected by the people. It could not possibly rest under severer censure than that which was visited upon the Reed-McKinley Congress in the elections of 1890. There is no assurance that the next Congress may not go out of office under as black a cloud as this one. If that should prove to be the case, it would be but following a fresh precedent if all the Democratic Legislatures in the country and all the Populist ones, if any, should pass resolutions congratulating themselves on the deliverance of the country from the torment of such a Congress. And so in course of time the "effete monarchies of the Old World" would expect to see our federal Government put in the pillory, figuratively speaking, rotten-egged, or tarred and feathered by the State governments every two years. This would not be a pleasing spectacle for George Washington if he could be a witness of it one hundred years after the delivery of his Farewell Address.

The action of Congress on the proposed silver conference is embraced in a clause of the sundry civil appropriation bill which provides that "whenever the President of the United States shall determine that the United States should be represented at any international conference called with a view to secure, internationally, a fixity of relative value between gold and silver, as money, by means of a common ratio between those metals, with free mintage at such ratio, the United States shall be represented at such conference by nine delegates." Three of the delegates are to be appointed by the President, three by the Senate, and three by the Speaker of the House, the last to be chosen from members of the Fifty-third Congress who have been reëlected to the Fifty-fourth. The question of sending or not sending delegates is to be determined by the President. Under the terms of the clause he would not be at liberty to send delegates to a conference called, like that of Brussels, merely for the purpose of "considering what measures, if any, could be taken to increase the use of silver in the currency systems of nations." Such a conference would not come within the terms of the law, which contemplates nothing short of free coinage under an international agreement. Nothing less than this would justify the payment of the $100,000 appropriated for the expenses. The terms of the law thus put upon the Government calling the conference the onus of calling it for that specific purpose. Since such a call is a virtual pledge that the country making it will agree to bimetallism at some ratio, the chances of any call whatever being issued are lessened rather than increased, for not even Germany is prepared to make the announcement beforehand that she will change her monetary system in any event. As regards England, it is plain that she is not ready to join in such a call, even if she should respond to one sent out by Germany. The chance of any conference being held is, therefore, only middling. It is a noticeable fact that the extreme silverites, of whom Senator Stewart is the type, are opposed to a new conference altogether. What they want is not bimetallism, but the single silver standard.

Senator Stewart's protest against going into another international conference to do something for silver is wholly justifiable. He knows from long and sad experience that, as he says, such conferences never result in anything but a "fresh blow to silver." How, as he pathetically inquires, can you hope to get anything by conferring with shameless gold-bug powers like Great Britain and Germany, who begin by saying that they will not change their monetary systems, no matter what other nations do? He sees clearly that nothing will come of it all but long and dreary disquisitions on silver, which his soul loathes, platonic resolves that something ought to be done, but that it is beyond the wit of mortal man to say what, and at the end a lot of disgusted delegates returning home to take up the burden of life again. In fact, the Populists are the only ones who think straight and see with an open vision on this subject. Stewart and Allen and Peffer and Martin and Kyle are really the only consistent friends of silver left. It cuts them to the heart to see the innocent Wolcott fooled, or pretending that he is fooled, by this international humbug. But they at least will maintain the true faith. And who can doubt that they will win in the end? It used to be said, Athanasius *contra mundum*, and we all know who won in that contest. In the great modern struggle, Pefferus *contra aurum*, the chances are all in favor of the party of the first part, and Wolcott and the other compromisers and international-conference men will take the contemptible place of the Arians in history.

The supporters of McKinley, Reed, and Harrison in the next Republican national convention will probably succeed so far as to neutralize and efface each other, while some candidate who has not excited so much bad feeling will carry off the prize. Reed has lost ground in the East since he played fast and loose with the bond sale and the gold standard, but it would be a mistake if this should prove a gain to McKinley, whose record on the silver question is much worse. In a speech in Toledo, April 12, 1891, McKinley attacked President Cleveland (he was ex-President at that time) in the following words:

> "During all of his [Cleveland's] years at the head of the Government, he was dishonoring one of our precious metals, one of our own great products; discrediting silver and enhancing the price of gold. He endeavored, even before his inauguration to office, to stop the coinage of silver dollars, and afterwards, and to the end of his Administration, persistently used his power to that end. He was determined to contract the circulating medium and demonetize one of the coins of commerce, limit the volume of money among the people, make money scarce, and therefore dear. He would have increased the value of money and diminished the value of everything else—money the master, everything else its servant."

The Scholar in Politics did a great deal of "the work of the world," with much "dust and sweat," on the naval appropriation bill in the Senate. He gave a rapid survey of foreign politics, showing how Russia is gaining strength in the Orient and is sure to come into collision with England sooner or later, and how France will join Russia in that conflict on account of her jealousy of English influence in Egypt. There is another impelling force pushing France into war. Socialism is growing so rapidly that the conservative element can find protection only by throwing itself again into the arms of the man on horseback. "When that is done," says the Scholar, "war is inevitable and instant." How does that affect us? The Scholar has an answer ready: "We are a part of the European balance of power. As in 1778 and 1812, we shall find ourselves in practical alliance with Russia and France, and in practical hostility to England and the Dreibund." Some people may remember, although the Scholar has forgotten, that in 1812 Russia and France were in deadly conflict, and that Russia was so friendly to us that she offered herself as a mediator between us and England, and actually took the first steps that led to the treaty of Ghent. No trifle of that sort stops the Scholar. Having got us into alliance with Russia and France and into hostilities with England, Germany, Austria, and Italy, he goes on to explain why

we are in a position so far removed from the tenets of Washington's Farewell Address. "It is because, so long as Great Britain remains a power on this continent, in Canada, we can be nowhere else." There is some mystery about this which the Scholar ought to explain. In 1854-'55, England was actually engaged in war with Russia, and she was "a power on this continent in Canada," yet we did not find any inconvenience in that fact. "Her fortifications threaten us," says Mr. Lodge; "Halifax is a menace to us, Bermuda is a menace to us, and so is Kingston, so is the one opposite the isthmus." Which one, Fiji or St. Lucia? "So is Esquimault on the other side; and the Canadian Pacific Road, built by the Government, cannot be justified by any commercial principle."

We think that the Scholar has made one mistake in this array of reasons why we should have a navy large enough to fight somebody. When he puts us in the attitude of siding with France against Germany in the next great European conflict, he does not reflect sufficiently on the fact that the German vote is much larger than the French vote. Indeed, there is practically no French vote in this country worth catering to. Even the English vote is larger than the French vote. So, too, it seems to us that the Scholar has overestimated the menace of Halifax and the other places he speaks of, and has misconceived the principles upon which the Canadian Pacific Railroad exists. If Halifax is a menace to us, we are a menace to Halifax. So we are even as to that. That the Canadian Pacific Railroad was not built on commercial principles seems to be acknowledged in London since the passing of its March dividend, but on the other hand we have at least four Pacific railroads in the same category. So we are more than even with Great Britain in that particular. Perhaps that is a good reason in itself for enlarging our navy. However that may be, we feel assured that when Mr. Lodge's speech is read in the cabinets of the Old World, they will be aware of the existence of a new European power with which they must reckon, and will no longer consider themselves sheltered on the West by George Washington's Farewell Address.

Some of the leading Republican Senators (Sherman, Platt, and Hoar) expressed regret on Saturday that the appropriation of $425,000 for the Bering Sea claims had been rejected by the House. Mr. Sherman feared that the effect would be to bring the principle of international arbitration into disrepute. Mr. Hoar apprehended that it would have this effect, and also that the settlement of the claims under a foreign umpire would cost more than $425,000. Senator Morgan, the man who is always wrong, brought forward the odd proposal that Congress should now investigate the separate claims, although the Paris tribunal of which he was a member provided an entirely different method of procedure. Mr. Morgan also said (as did Mr. Hitt in the House) that most of the claims were those of "rascally Americans who were violating the laws of their own country." The truth is, that seal-fishing in Bering Sea beyond the three-mile limit was not forbidden by law to either Americans or foreigners, and that when an attempt was made in 1891 to pass such a law, Senator Morgan himself opposed it and caused it to be rejected. The defeat of this appropriation is, we think, the most humiliating act of the present Congress, surpassing the vote on the gold-bond bill, because the latter concerns only ourselves, while the former affects our standing among nations. It is true that we had our election either to pay without any fuss or to make as much fuss as possible. We chose the second method, and from this time forward our single aim will be to prove that the "poachers" in Bering Sea were our own citizens, and that they are not entitled to any of the pay, although they were engaged in a lawful occupation.

Against the bill for the more effectual suppression of the lottery traffic, the lottery men had secured as their champions those two wily Senators, so confidently counted on by corporate influences, Gorman and Brice. Gorman, who so delights to play the conscientious rôle, opposed devoting to the House amendments the few minutes which a vote on them would require, on the plea that this would interfere with the appropriation bills. Senator Hoar's absence from the chamber during the night would have proved fatal to the measure; but his persistence had its reward, and in the small hours of Monday morning the bill was finally sent on its way to the President. It will seem strange to many people that express companies should oppose a measure of this kind at all, or that the business which the lottery companies give the express offices should be important enough to fight for. This business, however, is much larger than is generally understood. Indeed, if a canvass could be made of the persons at the thousands of smaller railroad stations throughout the country who combine the duties of railroad and express agents, it would be found that very few of them have not been approached by the lottery men with the offer of an agency, and that large numbers of them have consented so to act. If the new law puts a stop to this branch of the business, the lottery people will have to be very cunning to devise some substitute for it.

The accession of Mr. W. L. Wilson to President Cleveland's cabinet is a cause for genuine public congratulation. He deserves in a preëminent degree the title of "the scholar in politics," for his career in the House has shown him to be the possessor of a trained and philosophic mind, which he has applied to the problems of government with absolute devotion and with unswerving allegiance to high ideals. No member of the House serving with him has been his equal in this respect. His speeches have been the production of a scholar and a thinker, far removed from the low plane of partisan politics, appealing directly to human reason, and based upon prolonged and intelligent study of the fruits of human experience. His absence from the House will be a distinct loss to that body, and an irreparable loss to his party's representation there, for among the old members who will remain, and among the new ones who will come in when the new Congress assembles, there is not one who gives any sign of possessing the high qualities which distinguish him. In putting him into his cabinet President Cleveland has not only spared the country the loss of his services, but has strengthened his Administration with an adviser whose counsel is certain to be of great value.

A fortnight ago the Michigan Republicans met in State convention and heartily commended the course of the Republican Congressmen from Michigan who had refused to substitute the word "gold" for "coin" in United States bonds. Upon this the few forlorn Democrats left in the State pricked up their ears and determined, if the race was to be for cheap money, to make sure of coming in first. So their convention on Thursday resolved boldly "in favor of the free and unlimited coinage of silver and gold at a ratio of 16 to 1, . . . regardless of the position of any other nation with respect thereto." It would be hard to beat that platform, but as to beating the candidates that stand upon it, that is another affair. Last year's platform of the Michigan Democrats declared "in favor of the free, unlimited coinage of silver," and the result was that they were able to elect a grand total of exactly one member of the lower house of the State Legislature. What have they against that lonely man that they want to drive even him out of public life?

There never was a party which had so much trouble with its own members as the Populists. They have never come into power in any State without speedily accusing the officials whom they had elected of "selling them out." They cannot even devise any way of getting the news straight in Populist newspapers. The "National Reform Press Association" held a convention at Kansas City the other day, and grappled with the question, "How can we get reliable telegraph news independent of the monopoly plutocratic press associations?" Several speakers ad-

vised the establishment of a news bureau with "a faithful Populist" in charge who should take the leading newspapers of the country, clip "reliable news" from their columns, and send it to the Populist papers. This was an extraordinarily sensible proposition for such an assembly, but it proved to be utterly impracticable, for nobody could meet the objection that it would be impossible to find a man who would remain "faithful to the party." A suggestion that the chairman of the national committee would be a good man to take charge of such a bureau was greeted with derision, as a number of the leaders accused him of designs to betray the Populists into the hands of a new third party. The matter was finally turned over to a committee of five, but nobody seemed to expect that they could solve the problem how to keep a Populist honest more than a few weeks.

South Carolina is to have a constitutional convention. The proposition has been mooted for years, but it remained for ex-Gov. Tillman to push the scheme through. It was at first expected that he would try to run the convention in the same high-handed way that has characterized his conduct towards all branches of the Government, but he has given the State a surprise by proposing a compromise under which the old conservative element is to be given half of the delegates. The offer seems to be made in good faith, and is accepted in the same spirit. The greatest question before the convention will be the proposed elimination of the negro vote. An effort will probably be made to follow the example of Mississippi by adopting a provision imposing what may be called a flexible educational qualification. In Mississippi a man, in order to exercise the franchise, must be either able to read the Constitution "or to understand the same when read to him, or give a reasonable interpretation thereof." This was intended to catch the black illiterate while letting the equally ignorant white slip through, and of course such a provision opens the way for fraud. Other propositions urged by the Bourbons in South Carolina for the same purpose are the imposition of a heavy poll-tax and the apportionment of school money between the two races according to the amounts of their taxes respectively, which would discriminate terribly against the blacks. Vigorous opposition, however, is made to this policy by some prominent and representative white men, an eloquent protest having recently been made by Col. John J. Dargan of Sumter, who pronounces such schemes "outrageous, disgraceful, abhorrent to every idea of liberty."

A very excellent point was made by Gov. Morton in his memorandum on the West Troy police bill, and emphasized later in his informal explanation of that memorandum. He says that the "condition of parties in November should not be taken as a criterion for the selection of officers of a merely local character several months afterwards; and candidates representing local issues should not be deprived of office while receiving more votes than any other candidates simply because they do not belong to one of the two great political parties into which the State or nation may have been divided months before." That shows up very clearly the absurdity of all bi-partisan boards which have general administrative duties. A police board equally divided between the two political parties which cast the largest vote in a national election, shuts out entirely the great body of voters who disregarded party lines in order to secure a reform municipal administration. Under a bi-partisan control of that kind, the majority of citizens who elected Mayor Strong would have no representation whatever in the Police Department, for the minute a man ceased to be a regular party man he would be ineligible to a position on the board. The Platt-Lexow plan of electing members of the board is the most extreme form of the evil which the Governor condemns, and he cannot, after this utterance, approve that plan if it shall ever reach him.

The most important bibliological event that has ever occurred in this city is the consolidation of the Astor, Tilden, and Lenox libraries, which has at length been agreed upon. The plan converts the three libraries into a great public library for the city of New York, managed by a committee of twenty-one, to which each library contributes seven members. This is the happiest possible solution of various problems. The late Mr. Astor was so convinced of the injury to the Astor Library of its association with his name and family, that he directed his son to sever all connection with it, which the son has done. The Lenox Library, valuable as its contents are, has, for some reason or other, whether distance from the centre of population, or tradition of earlier seclusion, failed to attract readers to any great extent. The history of Mr. Tilden's trust we all know. Two millions of money belonging to it await expenditure in accordance with his wishes, but no plan for turning the sum to the best account has, in spite of much deliberation on the part of the trustees, ever been agreed upon. The present scheme offers a happy deliverance from the main difficulties.

On February 3 the Swiss voters were called on by a referendum to pass upon a new law relating to the diplomatic representation of the country. Owing to the increase of emigration and the growing importance of Swiss interests abroad, it was thought desirable to appoint full consuls in place of the consular agents who alone have been employed heretofore. There was no particular opposition to this proposition, but coupled with it was another to empower the central Government to appoint ambassadors and fix their salaries without the necessity of taking a popular vote. This was repugnant to the sturdy Swiss democrats for two reasons. In the first place, they share the general feeling of a democracy about foreign ministers, who are thought of as a lazy and useless set, paid high salaries to do nothing but practise the social graces in the great capitals of the world. In addition was the danger into which the principle of the referendum itself would be brought if so important a matter as this could be withdrawn permanently from its scope. Whatever the motives or the arguments, the opposition proved effective, and the whole measure was defeated by a vote of 222,396 to 171,732.

The ministerial crisis in Norway has, within a fortnight, entered upon a new and significant stage. The King, being in Christiania, summoned Mr. S. Nielsen, the president of the Storthing, and asked for a plain statement of the programme which the party of the Left proposed to present to the Storthing. King Oscar is said to have shown a somewhat conciliatory disposition, and the Radical leaders have met him half-way, and retreated from the position they assumed in the last Storthing in regard to the burning question of a separate consular service for Norway. They are now willing to concede the right of Sweden to discuss the question and to offer suggestions, provided the negotiations are conducted through a Norwegian ministry, chosen from the leaders of the Left. A year ago the claim was stubbornly maintained that the consular question was a distinctly Norwegian one, and must be decided by the Norwegian Government, without any interference on the part of Sweden. A mutual *rapprochement* seems thus to have taken place, and a peaceful and rational solution of the difficulty is within the pale of probability. The Government organs are beginning to reflect this changed attitude, and all talk of war is, on both sides, discountenanced. The King has during the last few days issued a manifesto, in the shape of an open letter to President Nielsen, in which he tacitly abandons his former position that Sweden can never permit the establishment of a Norwegian consular service. He emphasizes the necessity of mutual concessions, and declares that the consular programme can be carried out only if Norway will give assurance of a disposition to treat this and all other questions relating to the union in a peaceful and conciliatory spirit, which will conduce to their final settlement. The answer of the Left to this letter is also couched in cautious and temperate terms, and there is every reason for believing that the end of the long and bitter constitutional struggle is not far distant.

CONGRESSIONAL STATESMANSHIP.

THE Congress which died on Monday represents the wisdom of the Democratic party applied to the governmental problems which confront the American people. It has suffered no let or hindrance in administration. The Congress which expired four years ago to-day represented Republican wisdom applied to the same problems. In that Congress Republican policy was in control of all departments of the Government. The intervening Congress, the Fifty-second, had a divided responsibility. The questions pressing for solution upon the Fifty-first Congress were almost identical with those which the Fifty-third Congress has had to face. They were questions of revenue and finance. A dispassionate statement of the solutions adopted by the unfettered Republican Congress of 1889–'91, in comparison with those chosen by the untrammelled Democratic Congress of 1893–'95, is the only way to make a just apportionment of praise or blame, and to show the present level of congressional statesmanship irrespective of partisan considerations.

The main difficulty which met Reed's Congress on the threshold was that of the swollen revenues and the huge balance in the Treasury. Let this be stated in the words, not of a partisan opponent, but of the party's own finance minister. Secretary Windom's first annual report showed that the Treasury surplus, applicable to the purchase of bonds, would be by June 30, 1890, $163,484,042. In regard to this he said:

> "It is manifestly wrong to take money from the people for the cancellation of bonds, to the saving of only about 2 per cent. of interest, when it is worth to them perhaps three times as much in their business. It is rather through a reduction of customs receipts and internal taxes that an unnecessary accumulation of money in the Treasury should be avoided."

How this business proposition and good advice was received by the Fifty-first Congress can be stated in a word. Deliberate means to squander the surplus were chosen. The annual bill for pensions was marked up $75,000,000. In an unprecedented bounty law $10,000,000 more was disposed of. Customs duties, instead of being reduced, were increased, confessedly at the behest of their beneficiaries, and, to make sure that nothing should be left in the Treasury after Tanner and the bounty-men took their hands out of it, a tax which had existed since the foundation of the Government, and which was bringing in a revenue of $40,000,000 a year, was repealed. The net result of these dealings with the Government revenue was to bring the Treasury into great straits in the closing months of the Republican Administration. The gold reserve fell to the danger point. The available cash balance was reduced to $11,000,000, in place of $163,000,000. The secretary of the treasury said a Government loan would have to be made, and had bonds prepared for issue.

Republican wisdom, taking a turn at the currency, wrought in a sad sincerity as follows: The Fifty-first Congress inherited a vicious and onerous silver-coinage law, requiring the purchase of $2,000,000 a month of silver, and giving the option of buying $4,000,000. It was not unaware of the dangers of this law. The secretary of the treasury frankly told it that the law was a standing peril to the national finance, and that the arguments against it were "justified by the laws of trade and finance, and by the universal experience of mankind." It might have been expected that the Congress would take steps at least to diminish the evil. On the contrary, it deliberately doubled it. The secretary of the treasury was ordered to purchase 4,500,000 ounces of silver a month. This action was not excused as a necessary concession to highwaymen, but was extolled by all the accredited Republican organs as a great stroke of conservative and constructive legislation.

The Fifty-second Congress was in a state of chronic deadlock, and no assignment of responsibility can fairly be made in its case. But the Fifty-third had a free hand, and how has it dealt with the same questions of revenue and currency? As far as undoing the awful blunder of the Fifty-first Congress on the silver business is concerned, its success has been great. It has stopped the silver purchases outright and, we believe, for ever. The thing was doubtless done *malgré lui.* It was done with a fearful straining of the whole machine, but it was done. That claim on the gratitude of the American people they are not now disposed to disown, and they will be less and less disposed to disown it as time rolls by and makes more clear to them the great salvation it brought them, or made possible for them, in matters financial. But here praise must end. Congress could repeal bad legislation; it could not enact good legislation. Its action on the urgent question of the greenbacks, of banking, of Treasury certificates, of gold bonds, has been imbecility heaped on imbecility—the helpless floundering of irreconcilable factions in a quagmire.

Touching the problem of the Government's revenue, the record is a checkered one. The business panic complicated everything, so that it is as yet impossible to say how the Treasury balance between income and expenditure will stand after normal conditions have returned. But grievous sins of omission and equally grievous sins of commission must in any case be charged. A revenue of $30,000,000 from a slight increase in the tax on beer was to be had for picking it up, but was passed by. The tariff as a revenue-producing measure was lost sight of. To crown all, the income tax was snapped like a concealed trap.

We leave our readers who look on this picture and on that to say for themselves in which the shadow predominates. For ourselves we will only say that four years are too short a time for a myth to grow up, and that those who are pointing back to Reed's Congress as the golden age of congressional statesmanship would do well to wait until the memory of its doings grows less vivid. To those who object that the comparison arouses little hope for miracles of statesmanship from the next Congress, we have no comfort to offer except that it is always well to know the worst. The chief moral of all is the one forced home upon us from so many other sources, namely, that American public finance is a national disgrace, from its lack of rational system, and above all from the lack of knowledge, convictions, and courage on the part of those set to administer it.

REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT IN OPERATION.

THE almost universal commendation of President Cleveland for his action in the late financial crisis has one bearing little noticed. If he was right, Congress was wrong. If he represented a sweeping popular sentiment, as multiplied evidence shows that he did, then House and Senate were in defiance of that sentiment. But those bodies, particularly the House, are the chosen representatives of public sentiment. How came it about that instead of obeying they flouted it? This is a mystery which many people have been puzzling their heads over the past month. The mystery will not appear so dense, however, if we attend (1) to the manner in which these so-called representatives are chosen, and (2) to the kind of men they are when chosen.

The theory of representative government, as laid down by Mill and other writers, is simple and beautiful. The voters in a given congressional district put their heads together, look over the field, choose out the man whom they think fittest to represent them at Washington, and send him there. He is to be no automaton, he is to be left at liberty to express his opinions if he has any, but in the great matters in issue, politically, he is to vote as the men would have him who elected him to office. If this theory were carried out in practice, it is obvious that a House of Representatives running counter to the general convictions and wishes of the people on so important a question as the national credit and currency could not be conceived of as possible.

But a little attention to the way representatives are actually chosen will help one to understand why they act as oligarchs, not representatives. They are elected by oligarchical methods. Far from the electors having free selection of their representatives, they are shut up to the narrowest possible choice—usually to a choice of evils. Their candidates are selected for them by a party which is itself an oligarchy, and are further determined by a boss or a petty committee

of that party. Take the last election in the Fourteenth District in this city. The voters were shut up to a choice between Quigg and Connelly. One boss determined one nomination and another the other. Yet, on the theory of representative government, Quigg is the spontaneous choice of the 43,000 voters—or at least of the 24,000 who voted for him; and when he runs Platt's errands, writes Platt's edicts, and votes Platt's votes, he has the might and majesty of a great electorate behind him. This is a good illustration of Representation as she represents, and helps us to understand how representatives of public opinion can oppose it. They are not real representatives, but a lot of oligarchs, chosen by oligarchs, and running the Government to suit themselves.

Especial and sufficient reason why the House of Representatives should so lamentably misrepresent the country on financial questions is to be found in the class of men who compose it. But the smallest fraction of them have any practical acquaintance with banking or trade or manufacturing. The great, the overwhelming, majority of them are lawyers. In the Fiftieth Congress, 203 members of the House were lawyers; in the Fifty-second, 200; in the last Congress there was the appalling number of 243. We say appalling, not that we have any objection to lawyers; but we have decided objections to the kind that, for the most part, get into Congress. They are the third or fifth-rate members of the profession—of the narrow-minded, cross-roads order. A "composite" biography, true in general for the great mass of them, would read about as follows, in phrases taken literally from sketches of their lives furnished by themselves to the Congressional Directory:

"Was born in 1838; worked on a farm until he was sixteen; took up the trade of blacksmithing; taught school for two years; read law with the Hon. Gabe Bouck of Minturn's Corners; was admitted to the bar in 1866; nominated for Prosecuting Attorney against the most popular man in the Republican party and triumphantly elected in 1869; held several other county offices; was never defeated; member of Forty-eighth, Fifty-first, and Fifty-third Congresses; said of him by his home paper: 'In all relations of life, as a neighbor, friend, and public official, he has been faithful to every trust, zealous as a church member, Sunday-school worker, and legislator.'"

Is it any wonder that a House dominated by men of such training and antecedents should display a certain crudity in dealing with nice questions of finance? Add in the twenty-two farmer members, who are at least as crude and hazy in their notions about the currency, and it is not surprising that the thirty-three members of the House who come from active commercial pursuits, from banking or manufacturing, can make so little impression on the great majority. The complaint is an old one. In the Forty-fifth Congress, when the House was madly rushing to repeal the resumption act, Congressman Chittenden said with perfect truth:

"We, the representatives of the people, have discussed this question of currency for more than fifteen years, during which time more than five hundred paper-money devices have been brought here. For more than five years we have devoted our energies to the interests of bankrupt speculators exclusively."

That is precisely what is to be expected from a lot of small-minded country lawyers turned politicians. For a large part of their lives they are thrown into daily contact with men who are anxious to cheat their creditors, and nothing is more natural than that they should endeavor to shape national legislation so as to enable them to do it. They come out of communities where elementary instruction in finance has never penetrated, where everybody is trying to get a little money by hook or by crook, and what more inevitable than that they should want to vote all their old friends a generous *per capita* out of the Treasury?

In the campaign of education on the finances which must come, nothing is more important than to cut down the number of lawyer-politicians in the House, and swell the numbers of true and capable representatives of the business and commerce of the country. Most of the present Congressmen who may be classed as business men come from New York and New England. The cities of the South must see to it that they do not allow themselves to be throttled by cross-roads lawyers. Party names are of little account in this matter. A leading trade journal justly says:

"The nominal politics of a real representative of a commercial and manufacturing section is a secondary consideration; practical business men of diverse political views as regards the hundred non-essentials of a political creed, are invariably in perfect accord upon questions which concern the financial credit and the commercial and industrial prosperity of the country."

It is time we had some currency legislation from Congress designed for the benefit of solvent business men instead of bankrupt speculators.

BIMETALLISM IN ENGLAND.

The English bimetallists last week brought a resolution before the House of Commons to the effect that, having regard to the recent expressions of Germany and France on the subject of the growing divergence between the values of silver and gold, the Government ought to coöperate with the Powers in the calling of an international conference. Sir William Harcourt promptly accepted the resolution, and said that England had always listened to the suggestions of friendly powers for conferences touching common interests, and would continue to do so; that no communication had been received from any quarter on this subject, but that if any should be received, it would be treated with all due courtesy. He reminded the House that the failure of the Brussels conference could not be charged to England; that Germany had preceded England in declaring that she would not change her monetary system, and that England had voted in favor of the Rothschild plan of taking steps to arrest the decline of silver, while Russia and the countries of the Latin Union had voted against it and defeated it. Thereupon the resolution was adopted without a division.

Meanwhile Germany seems to be rather backward in coming forward. The Reichstag voted, a few weeks ago, in favor of a new conference to promote bimetallism. The united commercial bodies of Germany happened to hold their annual convention shortly after this vote was taken in the Reichstag, and they, by unanimous vote, passed a resolution opposing any such movement. The Government thereupon took a position of masterly inactivity, hoping evidently that the project would "blow over." Then followed the resolution in the House of Commons, which will probably revive the spirits of the German contingent, and may compel the Government to do something. One remark of Sir William Harcourt must, nevertheless, give great uneasiness to the German chancellor, or whoever is charged with the duty of formulating the call for the conference—viz., his expression of a hope that the call would not be for the purposes of academic discussion, but would embrace definite proposals. There is nothing so repulsive to bimetallists as a definite proposal—as, for instance, to consider a coinage ratio between gold and silver. They always sheer away from this.

In the Brussels conference, for example, after the academic discussion had proceeded a certain time, Mr. Forssell of Sweden asked the American delegates what ratio they would consider the most practical and equitable, whether 15½ or 16 to 1, or a ratio nearer the market value of silver. Mr. Allison replied that the delegation had had no conference on the subject. They would, of course, prefer their own ratio of 16 to 1, but they would accept that of 15½ if it were more agreeable to those countries which had the largest amount of silver. He agreed that the question of ratio was a fundamental one, but he thought that a more important one was the question how many countries would join in a bimetallic treaty at any ratio. Mr. Forssell said that the interesting reply of Mr. Allison led him to put to the delegates of the United States a second question, viz.: What number of states would, in their opinion, be necessary to make a bimetallic treaty effective? In the way of rendering the discussion practical a reply to this question would be of great value. The reply to this question was interrupted by a speech from M. Tirard, one of the delegates of France, after which Mr. Allison said that since France was not disposed to join in any scheme which would increase her silver holdings, he thought that a reply to Mr. Forssell's query was unnecessary.

The position of France at the present time is decidedly interesting. She holds the largest stock of gold of all the na-

tions. The Bank of France alone holds $400,000,000 of this metal, and the quantity in circulation is also larger than that of any other country. Any plan of bimetallism which should expose her gold hoard to depredation by silver-producing countries would cause a chill in all her commercial veins. Upon this point M. Tirard was very emphatic in the Brussels conference. He said that France had no cause to complain of the present monetary situation, and that she did not complain. She had endeavored to come to an agreement with the United States at the conference of 1881, which was a sort of continuation of that of 1878. Later, in 1889, a monetary congress was held in Paris during the Exposition, but nothing came of it. France was the country of all others which had the largest quantity of metallic money, both gold and silver. This was due to the minute subdivision of properties and employments, which, being very small, were not adapted to the use of bank checks to the same extent as in countries where industry is more consolidated and centralized. She ceased to coin silver because she was confronted with an ever-increasing volume of that metal. Why should France permit the free coinage of silver when she was already amply provided with it? She alone possessed as much as all the other states of Europe put together. The Bank of France, he said, holds as much as all the other banks together; "consequently I have the right to say that she has quite enough."

While this is as true to-day as it was when M. Tirard uttered it, the Government is confronted by the same pressure from the agricultural class which that of Germany has to meet and to which Sir William Harcourt yielded when he accepted Mr. Everett's resolution on Tuesday week. The land-owners of all these countries are in distress by reason of the low price of wheat, and they think that the low price is due to something else than an over-supply of the article itself. A change in the money standard, they think, could not make matters worse, but might make them better. So they are pushing with all their might in all three of these countries for bimetallism. It is a very interesting situation for us. If the bimetallists should by any means carry the day, Uncle Sam is ready to supply them with silver at any ratio they may choose to adopt, and will take gold in payment if they force it upon him.

A PESSIMISTIC OUTLOOK.

THE *Journal des Économistes*, in its last issue, makes a review of the situation of the world at the close of 1894 which is terrible reading for an optimist. In the first place, it says, the expenses of government in Europe have in ten years increased 22 per cent., while the population has increased only 10 per cent. In this total the military expenses have figured as 23 per cent. of the whole, those of the United States, through its pension list, included. The public debts of Europe have been increased $5,600,000,000. In countries which have grown too restless under the taxation thus caused, such as France, Russia, Sweden, resort has been had to "conversion," or compulsory lowering of interest. Italy is on the verge of bankruptcy, and Greece is actually bankrupt. Except in England, very few articles escape taxation, and now there is a general turning towards a progressive income tax as the best mode of getting at people who already pay on everything they buy or consume. At the same time there is a strong tendency to turn over to the Government those branches of industry in which individuals now make the most money—the manufacture of tobacco and of matches, the transportation of letters and parcels, the telegraph and telephone.

On top of all this come the taxes for the protection of native industry. In France, in Italy, in Spain, and in Germany these taxes have all been increased. In fact, America may be said to be the only country in which they have been reduced. M. de Molinari, the writer of the article in question, estimates the tax paid by the French consumer in wheat alone at about $150,000,000 annually, for the profit of about 800,000 landholders. Calculating in the same way the cost of protection to meat, fish, sugar, tools, etc., he sets down the cost of protection in France at $400,000,000. Nevertheless, one effect of the tariff wars with foreign states in which the Government has engaged, has been the emigration of many French factories to Belgium and the closing of others. Against these increasing burdens, nothing but the extraordinary progress of science and invention during the last twenty years would have enabled the world to make head.

But now, when taxation has apparently reached its uttermost limits, there comes the spectre of socialism to deepen the prevailing gloom. Nobody but ardent socialists, who are a comparatively small body, believes that any large state will ever be organized on a socialistic basis. Any such organization would involve slavery in some form or other, and slavery the mass of men will always resist, sword in hand if necessary. But the agitation for socialism almost necessarily diffuses through the working class a sense of wrong or hatred, more or less intense, of the owners or accumulators of property, and a strong desire to throw on "the state" the care of themselves and their families. The great plan of giving everybody a pension when he reaches the age of sixty is one of the worst blows ever dealt against prudence, frugality, and the habit of saving. The tendency, too, of the labor movements, especially on the continent of Europe, is to lower the value of character for commercial purposes, and to make the retention of places depend more on the strength of the organization a man has behind him than on his personal value to the employer. No reason for supposing that a socialist "state" would be managed by any better men than those who now manage states has ever been given; but the belief has spread largely among the poor and more ignorant class, and is to some extent fostered by preachers, philanthropists, and professional socialists, that if a government with enormously increased powers were set up with men like Powderly, Sovereign, and Debs at the head of it, the happiness of the masses would be largely increased.

To cap the climax, the power of issuing currency has been laid hold of as one potent means of promoting human welfare, and stands now in the forefront of measures of relief for distress, and, though the most patent of human delusions, has been found thus far the hardest to combat, because it has seized upon considerable numbers of persons who pass as economists, but are in reality philanthropists in whose brain "economy" is simply a mode of catching votes. This confused state of the popular mind about the currency has been well illustrated among us by the popular belief, in many parts of the country, that if silver money were set afloat in large quantities, poor people would somehow get some of it into their pockets—an hallucination which has evidently grown out of the "per capita" idea—that is, that every country needs a certain amount of money "per capita." This does no great credit to human intelligence, but it is one of the political forces of the day.

The civilized world is, in fact, apparently threatened with a calamity somewhat similar to that which overthrew the Roman Empire—that is, the seizure of the powers of government by semi-civilized men, or civilized men acting under their direction, and the management of states without the benefit of recorded human experience. From that shock it took a thousand years to recover; that is, there was no recovery until the world rediscovered what the barbarians had buried. No such disaster can overtake us, because there is no danger of the destruction of the great instruments and products of civilization. We have the press and printing, which the mediæval world had not, and we have science, and the habit of discussion, and the practice of government by a majority vote; so that, although our Goths and Vandals may make us for a good while very uncomfortable, they cannot make the world over.

ITALY IN AFRICA.

MANTUA, February 11, 1895.

How Italy drifted into Africa is now a matter of history; that she means to remain there, despite the Mahdi, and with or without the consent of the Abyssinians, is a stubborn fact, proved not only by recent battles here against Dervishes, there against rebel chiefs, but also by her occupation of positions which were not contemplated, or at any rate not avowed, in 1890, when the convention between Menelik

II., King of Shoa, supreme ruler of Abyssinia, and Humbert I., King of Italy, for mutual protection was ratified. Whether King Menelik be a faithful or a faithless ally is an open question; an absolute sovereign he is not, as the twenty-four ras (or feudal lords) who own the territory exercise royal functions, being responsible to the crown for little more than the local taxes which are paid in kind; waging war on one another, offering their services to the governor of the Italian colony, or suddenly attacking his outposts, at their own savage will. Since 1891 a radical change has been effected in Italy's moral and material methods in Eritrea, whose civil and military governor, Oreste Baratieri, a chip of the old Garibaldian block, an enthusiastic believer in colonial expansion in Africa, has inherited not only many of the military qualities of his chief—deliberate premeditation, sudden, swift action, the following up of victory to its just limits, thus far and no further; but also the great Liberator's precepts and practice in dealing with his own officers and soldiers, the enforcement of just and humane action in their dealings with native populations, and especially with native troops; and we may add Garibaldi's practice, in his brief, pithy reports, of giving every officer or special corps their special and due share of merit.

Baratieri, born in 1841, at Condino in the Austrian Tyrol, escaped from the college of Arco at the age of eighteen. Captured and punished, he effected his second flight in time to join Garibaldi in 1860 and land with the Thousand at Marsala, won his spurs at Calatafimi and on the barricades of Palermo, was promoted for his brilliant conduct on the Volturno, and received the medal for military valor. After the disbandment of the volunteers, he entered the crack bersaglieri corps as captain, and at the head of his company kept an Austrian brigade at bay for three hours at Custozza—a feat signalized as "wonderful" in the report of the Austrian staff. As editor of the *Military Review* his articles on military matters were translated into German, and Gen. Moltke paid him high compliments during his attendance at the manœuvres of the German army. Baratieri, like Gen. Bixio, was from the first a fervent believer in Italian colonization in Africa; and shortly after the disastrous affair of Dogali, he obtained "permission" to exchange into one of the corps destined for Massowah, to the great grief of his regiment, where he was adored by officers and men.

Affairs in Africa were in a muddle. After the disaster of Dogali, reinforcements were sent to repel the "King of Kings," who was marching to support Ras Alula, when, turning aside to rout the Dervishes, he was slain, and Crispi, taking advantage of Menelik's friendly offices, negotiated the famous treaty, at the same time inducing the sultans of Obbia on the Somali coast to recognize the protectorate of Italy. By the first treaty with Menelik, recognized as Emperor of Abyssinia, the Italian protectorate ended at Asmara; later they demanded an extension south to the Mareb. To this, Menelik or the ras demurred; also the Emperor protested against the seventeenth article of the treaty, which *bound* him, according to the Italian translation, to treat with no European power save through the Italian Government, whereas he maintained that in the original the text ran that he *might* do so if he chose. This was the first rift within the lute. Then Ras Alula imprisoned and ill-treated the Italian Salimbeni and his companions. Count Pietro Antonelli, sent on a mission by Crispi to Menelik, obtained a very clear insight into the state of affairs. Menelik was anxious to keep on friendly terms with Italy, but the ras who had been devoted to King John, the warrior King of Kings, despised Menelik; many would have supported the claims to the throne of the ambitious Ras Mangasha of recent notoriety, he being the illegitimate son of King John. Meanwhile Gen. Orero had occupied Adua, in Tigre, then withdrew, and in June, 1890, a serio-comic general reconciliation took place. Ras Alula embraced Salimbeni; Ras Mangasha, Ras Alula, and Antonelli also embraced, and swore on the cross and on the Bible an everlasting friendship, and for a time things went more smoothly. The Italian possessions were styled the colony of Eritrea, and Gen. Gandolfi was named civil and military governor.

The best account of the colony in 1890 was given by Sydney Sonnino, now Minister of Finance. Though hopeful of the future, he was impressed by the military disorganization, the want of roads, the wasteful expenditure. The colony was going from bad to worse when, in 1892, the Italian officers being no longer able to keep the native troops in hand, and desertions being frequent, Rudini gave the command to Baratieri, who had his own views as to "African colonization," and would remain at his post only so long as he was allowed to carry them out. From the first moment of his arrival he made it known that what was required in Eritrea was a few picked officers and men as leaders of the native troops, friendly dealings with Menelik and all the ras who proffered friendship, with a sharp watch kept by the Italian residents in all the "protected" territories; absolute distrust of the Dervishes, who, after the occupation of Keren and Agordat, showed themselves more than ever hostile to the Italians. In less than a year a change for the better was everywhere visible; public security was established, stations of carabinieri, with natives under their command, were posted at Asmara and Keren, at Assab, Archico, Moncullo, Dogali, Ghinda, Godofelassi, Nocra, enabling the tribes to cultivate their lands in peace, fearless of raids; new roads were traced and made; the kidnappers of the Beni-Amer tribes were placed under strict surveillance, so that no more girls or children were carried off, and so thorough was the inspection of caravans that the slave-traders found it next to impossible to embark the slaves captured in the Sudan at Massowah, as for years had been their practice. The colony was divided into the district of Massowah, where the administration, judicial, social, and political, is carried on as in Italy, and into dependent territories, where the native laws and uses are respected and applied as far as possible; tribunals of arbitration was set up at Keren and Asmara, judges of peace in the villages, and everywhere resident officials bound to keep the governor "up to date" on all military and local matters. The roads from Ghinda to Asmara, from Asmara to Keren, traced by military engineers, were made chiefly by the natives, and so was it with the digging of artesian wells and the erection of lighthouses. Public hygiene has had close attention: all the water is analyzed, the cisterns cleansed and others constructed; a commission superintends the food sold; the houses are now built of stone to replace the straw huts. Schools where Italian, Arabic, arithmetic, hygiene, and gymnastics are taught have been opened for girls and boys, and bread distributed to encourage attendance. The division of lands was commenced to define what belongs to the tribes, what is ecclesiastical property, how much the state can take possession of and distribute to the natives and to Italian emigrants. Finally, the entire military department was reorganized.

Baratieri from the first maintained that if Italy is to succeed in Africa, it must be with native troops under Italian officers, with few or no Italian soldiers save for the engineering and artillery departments. Hence he divided the native troops into permanent and auxiliary, with departments in Barca, Saraè, Oculè-Kusai, and in the territory round Asmara, with telegraph lines insuring communication between them. Hitherto the governors and commanders-in-chief have resided exclusively in Massowah. Baratieri decided to pass half the year on the high table-land of Asmara, and personally inspected at unexpected moments camps, forts, hospitals, police stations, etc. "Keep your men well in hand and get hold of their hearts," is his constant advice to the Italian officers. With the ras he has tried to keep on friendly terms, but, while putting faith in them to a certain extent, has kept his own powder dry. As to the Dervishes, he has always expected them to attack at any moment. In November, 1893, they took advantage of his absence in Italy, whither he had gone to confer with the Government on military and civil matters, to make a desperate assault on Agordat. I must pass over the details of the successful defence of that place by Col. Arimondi, left in command by Baratieri. On the Governor's return he at once laid his plans for future operations, concentrating ammunition and provisions in Agordat. On the 12th of July, 1894, he assumed the command of the corps destined to march on Kassala—56 officers, 41 Italian soldiers, 2,510 ascars (native Abyssinian troops), 146 horses, 248 mules, 183 camels. Everywhere they found traces of the recent raids of the Dervishes, villages destroyed and abandoned. The enemy were encamped to the north and northeast of the city. At six A. M. on the morning of the 17th of July the van opened fire on their cavalry, just setting out for a raid; then the Italian cavalry charged, and the attack became general, lasting uninterruptedly for three hours. At ten A. M. Baratieri and Arimondi were in the marketplace victors, and a halt was ordered, as the troops had marched all night before the combat.

The Governor's first care was to liberate some 100 Egyptian prisoners, and to enforce respect on the part of his troops for the members of the various tribes gathered there to cultivate the fertile shores of the Gasc, to whom he distributed quantities of the dura found in the depots of the Mahdi. Numbers of them asked to be allowed to go to the Eritrea colony; others, finding that the Italians meant to hold Kassala and build a fort there, preferred to remain. The Mahdi fled across the Atbara, leaving 52 banners, 2 guns, 600 muskets, 700 lances, 200 camels, mules, and horses. On the 23d the Governor quitted Kassala, leaving Major Turitto, with some hundred natives and their officers and engineers, to complete the fort which King Humbert himself named "Fort Baratieri." The absolute silence maintained, the rapid march and instantaneous victory, astonished the colony and Italy; the ras of Abyssinia were profuse in their congratulations and offers of native bands to guard the frontiers against fresh attacks of the Mahdi. Baratieri accepted their offers, but evidently distrusted their intentions, bidding his residents keep a sharp lookout on their movements.

The rest of the year passed quietly. The Pope consented to send to Eritrea an Apostolic Nun-

cio, who received a grand welcome, gladdening the hearts of the Italians by his encomiums on "our" brave King Humbert, "our" gracious Queen Margaret. The exchange of the Italian sisters of charity and Italian Capuchins for the French Lazzarists added to their satisfaction. In November Baratieri appealed to the European residents to form a body of volunteers, and in one day 320 citizens of Massowah responded to the appeal. He had asked for no reinforcements, but had strengthened the garrisons of Asmara, Keren, and Kassala, when suddenly came the news of the rebellion of Batha Agos, one of the Abyssinian commanders, who, from the earliest days of the colony, had given proofs of friendship for the Italians, and had been promoted by Baldassera and later by Baratieri. Seizing the "residents" and the telegraph officers, he was preparing to raise the whole province when Capt. Castellazzi and other officers marched against him, killed or captured the 300 armed followers, killing Batha Agos himself at Halai. Baratieri, rightly suspecting that the rebellion of the bands of Oculè-Kusai, commanded by Batha Agos, was not an isolated case, but was probably fomented by Ras Mangasha, and possibly by Menelik, marched promptly to Adi Ugra, where he established Arimondi, now major-general, in command. Later, convinced of Ras Mangasha's treasonable intent, by forced marches he proceeded to Adi Sadi, where from a height he saw an immense mass of Tigrine troops marching northwards. At dawn the enemy's two camps were visible. The artillery, well posted, opened the ball; the troops converging to the right attacked the whole front of the enemy, who, though taken by surprise, responded en masse and soon made a move to turn Baratieri's left wing, but were outmanœuvred. The battle raged for twelve mortal hours, the enemy bringing up a strong reserve force at three P. M., but at five they were silent, and during the night they decamped, leaving their wounded, arms, banners, and some tents on the field. Baratieri followed in hot pursuit till the enemy reached the fastnesses of Agamè. The Italians, 3,600 all told, thus routed 10,000, led by Ras Mangasha in person. Not a single soldier deserted, so that Menelik's boast that the "Abyssinians, brave against the Dervishes, would never fight against their brethren in blood and faith," falls to the ground. On the 18th, leaving two companies in observation at Senafè, Baratieri returned with the rest of the troops to Asmara, everywhere fêted by the populations and the clergy who are weary to death of the turbulent ras. Ras Mangasha's correspondence with Batha Agos and Menelik has been seized, but Baratieri's final report has not yet arrived.

At present all is quiet at Kassala. Ras Mangasha, deserted by the mass of his troops, seems still seeking to form a fresh army. What Menelik and Ras Alula, who is with the King, think or meditate is not known. Baratieri does not desire reinforcements, save a few officers, material, and telegraph wires. He has just been promoted from the rank of major-general to that of lieutenant-general. His telegrams and brief reports demonstrate his pride and satisfaction at the conduct of the native troops and Italian officers all. But Italy in Africa has her hands full to hold her own against Dervishes and rebel ras. J. W. M.

SOME CONTINENTAL LIBRARIES.—V.

FLORENCE, February 18, 1895.

ITALIAN Government libraries exist in the following places: Bologna, Cagliari, Catania, Cremona, Florence, Genoa, Lucca, Milan, Modena, Messina, Naples, Padua, Palermo, Pavia, Pisa, Parma, Rome, Sassari, Turin, and Venice. Of these Florence has four, a larger number than any other city except Rome; and the principal one, the Biblioteca Centrale Nazionale, may be called the dean of the entire faculty. It is the largest collection of books in Italy. Its foundation as a public library was laid in the eighteenth century by Antonio Magliabechi. In his will this lover of books and men left his large collection "to the poor of the city of Florence." From that time to the present the library has been the recipient of many gifts and bequests, which, with its purchases, have made it a collection of over 435,000 volumes and more than 450,000 pamphlets, 18,000 MSS., and 11,000 musical compositions, according to the last printed report of 1893 and a statement made by the prefect, Signor Chilovi, in November, 1894. It occupies eighty-seven rooms—three floors of three palaces—and, even with this, is embarrassed for space. A new building is anticipated in the not distant future.

The first attempt to furnish the library with books by means of a tax on the issues of printing-offices was made in 1736 by the Grand Duke of Tuscany, Gian Gastone, who directed that a free copy of everything published in Tuscany should be deposited in this library. There were many difficulties in the way of carrying out this law, owing chiefly to the objections and evasions of the printers, and it was virtually inoperative for many years. In June, 1870, Victor Emanuel extended the law to cover the publications of the entire kingdom, resulting in an average addition to the library of ten to twenty thousand volumes and pamphlets per year. Evasions of the law are still not infrequent, especially in the case of costly publications. In the eighteenth century, a hundred years before the confiscation of the monastic libraries under Victor Emanuel, the Grand Duke Pietro Leopoldo had suppressed certain religious houses and given their books to the Magliabechiana, and the French Government when in power did the same thing. In 1861 the Palatina and the Magliabechiana were combined and took the present name of the Biblioteca Nazionale. One of the most interesting acquisitions of recent years was that of the collection of Savonaroliana got together by Count Carlo Capponi, and sold by his heirs in 1883.

The main entrance to the Library is from the portico of the Uffizi. The reading-room, on the first floor, has been full every time I have visited it, and the one table out of the nine reserved for the use of women has been well patronized. The majority of the readers seem to be students from the University and Higher Institute, with a sprinkling of professors, priests, professional men, etc. This room contains the larger part of the original Magliabechian bequest, and a bust of the very ugly but strongly individual face and head of Magliabechi surveys the room. Among the current periodicals (about one hundred and fifty) placed here for reading, I counted some fifteen to twenty American magazines, among which were several such popular ones as *Harper's Monthly*, the *Century*, the *Popular Science Monthly*, and the *Literary News*. An adjoining room, called the MS. room, is for the use of those students who need extreme quiet in the pursuance of more absorbing work.

The catalogue used by the public is a general one, compiled in 1847 and transcribed in 1860–'64, in thirty-two large volumes. The large influx of additions after the promulgation and enforcement of the tax on all Italian publications found the library somewhat unprepared for the additional work thus made necessary, and lacking sufficient space in its catalogues; and a supplementary catalogue on cards became necessary. The Palatina, and the Targioni, the Nencini, Passerini, and Guicciardini collections have each a separate catalogue, and there is one of incunabula and an index to the collection of ancient music. A general catalogue of the entire library, arranged in twenty classes, was undertaken in 1864, but given up for reasons of necessity, and another begun about ten years ago, which is still in the making. In the matter of classification, no one system has yet been applied to the whole library; some collections are arranged by size, some by subject-matter, some by literary form. The bound periodicals are grouped by the decimal classification of Mr. Melvil Dewey, the New York State Librarian. The inventory is kept on cards, with the exception of that of pamphlets, which is in volumes, and is placed in a locked case to which only a few of the employees have access. The catalogues are open to any one who wishes to consult them, though lack of space prevents their use by many persons at one time. The same lack of room prevents the exposition of all reference-books and periodicals, and a careful selection is therefore made of those which experience shows to be most in demand.

The library lends books under the usual conditions of Government libraries, and the former prefect of the Nazionale, Signor Sacconi, was in favor of extending this privilege, leaving it optional with the librarian in each case to say how many books should go out to one reader, and how long they might be kept. In seven years he reports but one book lost by lending, and that by accident and not through any evil intention on the part of the borrower.

An interesting comment is made by the same good authority on the system of competitive examinations for the filling of library positions. In the case of the superior employees, scholarship, while necessary, is not all that is necessary, and he claims that in making it the sole test, as is the case in competitive examinations, no regard is paid to moral character or to executive qualities. The librarian or prefect is obliged to accept as subordinates persons whose qualifications fit them for only a part of their work, and who need constant supervision. He arrives at the conclusion that these officers should be of two classes, those chosen for their scholarship and knowledge of books, who may eventually be fitted to take the highest work of the library, the choosing and buying of the books, and those who show administrative ability, and who must be retained in the offices requiring executive skill, but who cannot expect promotion into the upper grade just mentioned. The same difficulty exists in choosing the prefect and the librarian, and Signor Sacconi makes the suggestion that, where several Government libraries exist in the same city, each be placed under the charge of a librarian or executive officer, and altogether under one prefect, who shall be a scholar of reputation and shall attend to the symmetrical growth of all the collections under his charge. This suggestion was made in 1883, in a MS. "relation" on the Biblioteca Nazionale, to which I had access through the kindness of Signora Sacconi-Ricci, daughter of the former prefect of the Nazionale, and herself assistant-librarian of the Marucelliana. So far as I know, no steps have been taken towards adopting it, but to me it seems a very reasonable proposition.

The alumni, who had formerly to serve at least a year gratuitously, are now allowed a nominal payment. They must have a doctorate in law, literature, or philosophy, or the diploma of the school of paleography in Florence, and must pass a competitive examination. From thirty-four years of experience, Signor Sacconi records it as his belief that the test of competitive examinations alone is quite as apt to give poor assistants as good ones. The nature of the examinations for the superior positions of a library I have already indicated in a previous letter. The usual method of procedure after an examination is the appointment, by the minister of public instruction, of the most successful candidates to a year's trial, with a stipend of one hundred lire a month. If the year's work prove satisfactory, the alumni are placed on the roll in the lowest class of the category to which they belong. The necessity of inquiry into the moral character of the applicant was made most evident in 1870 and 1871, in the Nazionale, by a series of thefts carried on through several months by one of the distributors. A second-hand book-dealer in Florence sent regularly to the library to indicate to this employee the books he desired, and the employee found means of abstracting them.

The heating of the Nazionale is accomplished at present by furnaces, and the rooms used by the public have always seemed to me warm and comfortable. Up to 1867 the ubiquitous scaldino or brazier was the only means of heating, and was abandoned because it was found that the ashes were annoying to readers and injurious to the books. There is apparently no dampness anywhere in the library. The hours of opening of the library, summer and winter, are from ten to four. The number of volumes given out in 1892, from the last printed report of 1893, was more than 66,000, to more than 56,000 readers. These are not as large numbers as those reported by the Vittorio Emanuele at Rome, but it must be remembered that the latter library is open in the evening, and that it supplies a much larger population. Nearly 3,000 volumes were lent in Florence, and more than 1,000 to other libraries in Italy, while more than 100 were borrowed from other cities. The right to a copy of all Italian publications includes periodicals and newspapers, and the Nazionale has therefore a collection, constantly increasing, of 900 newspapers and 1,200 magazines. It collects and preserves everything, down to railway time-tables and play-bills. At present, order is being brought out of the chaos of 60,000 legal memorials presented in the Italian courts. To this library, since 1886, has been given the task of printing fortnightly a Bulletin of the most important Italian publications, and this admirably conducted work is known and appreciated wherever there are libraries. The Bulletin formerly issued by the Vittorio Emanuele of Rome, of modern foreign works in Italian libraries, has unfortunately ceased publication. In this the library containing the work was always indicated by a mark opposite its title.

The rarities of the library are numerous, and space forbids the mention of more than a few, and these chosen rather at haphazard: A MS. of the 'Divina Commedia,' of the fourteenth century, with the marginal notes made in Dante's lifetime; a letter written by the poet's son, Dante d'Jacopo Alighieri; a MS. of the 'Decameron' written in 1396 by a Benedictine; Brunetto Latini in a MS. of 1285; and, of incunabula, a copy of the third book printed by Fust & Schœffer in 1459; the celebrated Maguntina Bible; a Terence with marginal MS. notes by Politian—in fact, several works with notes from the same source; the first book printed in Florence, by Cennini, who rediscovered the secret of printing after a careful examination of the issues of the German press; the first illustrated book printed in Italy; the Florentine Homer of 1488, presented by the editor to Piero de' Medici, etc. Of editions of Dante there are Ridobeatina's, a copy that belonged to Ariosto and that bears his signature and notes, one with Landino's commentary and illustrations by Botticelli, the same on parchment, a unique copy, presented by Landino to the Signory of Florence, etc., etc. Of Aldines, the library has 1,087 volumes, and of Elzevirs, etc., 352 volumes, and the Savonaroliana numbers 347 editions.

The funds at the disposition of the administration amount to about 52,000 lire ($10,400) a year. The admission of women into library-work has been conceded in no Continental country except Italy, I believe. One woman is employed in the Vittorio Emanuele, three in the Biblioteca Nazionale, and one as assistant-librarian in the Marucelliana. Most of these ladies I have met, and found deeply interested in their work, as well as in the comparisons we were able to make between libraries here and at home. I should fail greatly in what is a pleasure as well as an obligation if I did not speak more fully of one of these, Signora Giulia Sacconi-Ricci. From the moment of my entrance into the Marucellian Library and my kind reception at the hands of the librarian, the Cavalier Bruschi, and Signora Ricci, I felt myself in an atmosphere of "mental hospitality" both to people and ideas. There is not, in the six or seven rooms of the library, such an overplus of books but that everything is kept in the best of order, and the silence in the reading-room, which was generally well filled even in the worst weather, was less disturbed by conversation than in any library I had yet visited. In the room reserved for women and presided over by the assistant-librarian, there were always a number of university girls or teachers, industriously turning the leaves of books of reference or consulting MSS., etc.; and the occasional tributes of flowers brought by them to Signora Ricci testified to her popularity and gave a feminine and home-like air to the room. The reference-books and bibliographical collection are kept in this room, and men occasionally study here if they prefer, but for the most part they "go to their own place."

The Marucellian collection is rather more modern in character than most of the libraries here, confining its purchases chiefly to modern books of importance. Its hours are from nine to three in winter, nine to five in summer, and from six to nine on winter evenings. In these evening hours it is apt to be crowded, as many as two hundred persons frequently requiring to be waited upon in one evening. It is the only library open in the evening, I am told. The collection amounts to about 120,000 volumes and pamphlets, including very few rarities, but a great many expensive art-works, and a collection of one hundred volumes of rare engravings illustrating the history of the art with great completeness. This collection was made by Francesco Marucelli, founder of the library. In addition to its own catalogues, the library possesses a card-catalogue by subjects of the Biblioteca Nazionale, formerly owned by Signor Sacconi and by him presented to the Marucelliana. Of its own collection there are a bound MS. catalogue by subjects, kept in the reading-room, an alphabetical catalogue in twenty-two volumes which is free for public consultation, and one of incunabula on loose sheets, fastened by an invention of Signora Sacconi-Ricci's, the catalogue itself having been beautifully made by her on the Hammond typewriter. The most interesting bit of antiquity in the library is the MS. of the 'Mare Magnum,' compiled by Francesco Marucelli. It occupies one hundred vellum-bound volumes, and was put into print a few years ago by the labors of Professor Guido Biagi.

More interest in the progress of librarianship and a better acquaintance with the technical literature of the profession in other countries were evidenced here, it seemed to me, than in any other library I had visited. The cataloguing rules of Prof. Karl Dziatzko, for example, had been translated from the German into Italian by the librarian and published in Florence, and the assistant-librarian's devotion had even impelled her to visit libraries and take notes on them, in the course of her wedding-journey a few years ago, the results of her investigations appearing in book-form after her return.

There still remain to be spoken of the Riccardiana, the wonderful Laurenziana, and the great subscription library of the city, Vieusseux's; but these must wait for time and space to do them justice. MARY W. PLUMMER.

Correspondence.

ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your editorial on Elementary Instruction in the *Nation* for February 21, in speaking of the Report of the Committee of Fifteen, you mention the report of my subcommittee on correlation of studies as disappointing, for a number of reasons which are very clearly, but not, I think, quite fairly stated. For instance, you say, "Six years is ample time for the strictly elementary course, and to insist upon eight years is simply to yield to the influence of a bad but prevailing custom." This sentence comes after the statement that assent to all of my propositions is impossible, and implies that my report insists on eight years for the elementary course when six years will do. Now, as a matter of fact I have taken (as I think) great pains in the report to show that the eight-year period is too long for the work required to master the strictly elementary studies. It leads, as I point out, to a sort of mechanical thoroughness which arrests the development or growth of the pupil on a mechanical plane. I therefore suggest that two of the chief branches of the secondary school, namely, algebra and Latin or some modern language, be introduced into the last two years of the elementary school, substituting Latin for English grammar in the eighth year and algebra for arithmetic in the seventh and eighth years. In view of this recommendation and the arguments on which it is based, I am puzzled at your statement, further on, that "arguments are adduced [in the report] for postponing the use of the simpler algebraic processes."

Besides this very important matter of curtailing the time for mere elementary studies, the report recommends the substitution of a new basis for the selection of school studies. The old one was psychological and formal. According to it, gymnastics or chess-playing would stand as good a chance for selection as manual training, grammar, or arithmetic. On

the sociological basis, those studies would be adopted which prepare the child to receive the lessons of civilization and partake of its goods, contributing his own mite for the benefit of the whole, helping and being helped. The psychological basis is retained, but only in a secondary place, to assist in deciding such questions as relate to the best period for taking up a given branch of study, and the proper length of time for continuing it. A study is often continued too long in the elementary schools, and is necessarily deadening in its effects, and produces arrested development on some lower plane of activity. This danger is becoming plainer and plainer in the light of the new studies made upon children in school and out of school.

Another important departure in the sub-committee's report under question is the protest against too much English grammar, especially in the form of parsing works of literary art. Again and again in the report it is urged that the literary selection should be studied in such a way as to lead to an appreciation of it as a work of art. Literature is set forward as the leading study in the elementary school because of its value to the pupil in giving him an insight into human nature.

Again, the emphasis laid upon arithmetic in the elementary school hitherto is strongly condemned, and its mode of reasoning disparaged in comparison with the mode of reasoning employed by the mind upon practical concrete subjects involving literary, social, and moral questions.

Several other radical changes are recommended in this sub-committee's report, and on the whole it seems to me that the report will be extremely fortunate if it does not disappoint your readers rather in its radicalism than its conservatism.

Very respectfully, W. T. Harris.

Washington, D. C., February 26, 1895.

[It is true that Dr. Harris advocates the introduction of two secondary-school subjects into the later years of the elementary curriculum, but he keeps that curriculum eight years long. That is made necessary only either by bad teaching or by spinning out the instruction in the rudiments to an inordinate extent. On page 40 of his report he reduces the algebra to be taught in the elementary schools to a pretty small amount—so much so that Mr. Greenwood makes this a special point of dissent (pp. 84, 85). What Dr. Harris says as to English grammar and the undue emphasis hitherto laid on arithmetic, is entitled to all praise.—Ed. Nation.]

BARON DE MÉNEVAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The notice of Baron de Méneval's Memoirs published by the *Nation* in its number of February 21 conveys such an unjust estimate of the author of those memoirs that I deem it my duty to answer it. I have not a word to say in favor of or against the merits of the work. I only wish to call attention to certain misstatements made by the writer of the article concerning facts he evidently knew nothing about.

Speaking of M. de Méneval, he tells us that "the blood of a race of courtiers filled his veins." Later he speaks of "his grandfather in the halls of Versailles." The truth is, that M. de Méneval's family had always lived in the seclusion of the provinces, and none of his ancestors ever appeared at court. He himself was so little of a courtier that he never entered the Tuileries after 1815, and refused the peerage that was offered to him by Louis Philippe. Instead of a "light-hearted" gentleman, he was a man of retiring disposition, deep feelings, and austere character. Far from being a sycophant, he was the personification of dignity and modesty.

Further, it is said: "Méneval did live on with pen in hand." The only book he wrote is the one now mentioned; and he lived seventy-two years. Those memoirs, or rather souvenirs, were published by him in 1840 under the title 'Napoléon et Marie Louise: Souvenirs du Baron de Méneval.' They formed only two small volumes. At that time the only books or pamphlets written about Napoleon had been inspired by fear of the Bourbons and the basest ingratitude. The desire of defending the memory of the man who had been his friend and protector was not an ignoble one. At an epoch when those who had received titles, endowments, palaces, and money from the Emperor not only turned against him during his lifetime, but, after his death, assailed him with insults and often calumny, was it "canine virtue" or noble courage to defend him?

Admitting, even, that his admiration for Napoleon carried him too far, who is the most worthy of respect, Monsieur de Méneval or Madame de Rémusat?

A Grandson of Baron de Méneval.

February 26, 1895.

MEMOIRS OF LAREVELLIÈRE-LÉPEAUX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the interesting description of these Memoirs which appeared in the *Nation* of February 21 is the statement that the Director "ordered that his manuscripts should not become accessible to anybody before 1873." This is a strange misunderstanding of what the Director's son, who edited his manuscripts, says about the matter in the introduction, dated March 15, 1873. Feeling that the lapse of fifty years since his father wrote the last line of the Memoirs required an explanation, he gives a detailed account of the various delays. His father had suggested in the "Observations Essentielles" which serve as a sort of preamble, that "Comme je veux qu'aucun nom, aucun fait ne soit déguisé dans mes mémoires, ils ne devront être publiés qu'à l'époque où il sera présumable que tous ceux qui y figurent n'existent plus."

Larevellière, furthermore, did not wish his words to serve as an arsenal for an assault upon men who, however they might have differed from him during the Revolution, were now defenders of liberty against the attacks of the Bourbons. But he did wish the Memoirs edited at once, so that the first favorable moment might be seized for their publication. Soon came the Revolution of 1830, bringing an Orleanist prince to the throne. As the Memoirs contained damaging facts in regard to the older Orleanist party, the son, who believed in the Monarchy of July, did not desire the manuscript published until the new dynasty was so solidly established that it would not suffer from such revelations. The Revolution of 1848 came and went, and during the early period of the Second Empire it was impossible to undertake "une publication aussi peu conforme que celle ci au culte des idées napoléoniennes." In 1870 the work was far advanced when the disasters of that fatal summer and the siege of Paris still further put off its completion. Postponement had at last become chronic. Although the Memoirs seem to have been printed not long after 1873, as stated in the *Nation* of February 14, the son requested that they be not published until his wife's death, which occurred only four years ago. But as President Carnot's term of office was then drawing to a close, and party bitterness was likely to make an unhappy use of whatever Larevellière had said of Carnot's grandfather, a colleague in the Directory, it seemed wise to reserve the publication until the present year.

A word in regard to the Director's name. It is a pity that his son chose the current form instead of the form which the Director himself used during the most important part of his political life, *i. e.*, L. M. Revellière-Lépeaux. His baptismal name was Louis-Marie de La Revellière. Lépeaux came from one of the family estates. Henry E. Bourne.

Western Reserve University.

AN INDEX ALWAYS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At the close of your notice, February 28, p. 172, of Mr. Chadwick's excellent book, you say: "An index is perhaps not to be expected in a collection of what were originally lectures," etc. In the name of all that is decent in book-making, why should you, after your long and valiant service in the cause of good indexes in books, now condone an offence like the omission of an index from any book, except, perhaps, a dictionary? Such a book as Mr. Chadwick's needs an index as much as any; nor is it apparent why one should not be expected in a book "of what were originally lectures" as well as in any other. I have a note of two other books lately published which commit the unpardonable offence of appearing before the public indexless: the 'Life and Letters of Charles Loring Brace' and Hamilton W. Mabie's 'My Study Fire' (both series).

One may surely be pardoned, in making any allusion to your issue of this week, for expressing the intense satisfaction with which all lovers of good literature must read your editorial on "The New Criticism." It is "a most palpable hit" at a grievous literary evil, and must do good.—Very truly yours, W. I. F.

Amherst, March 1, 1895.

[We little thought our good would be evil spoken of. Our correspondent excepts dictionaries, and thereby lays himself open to our rebuke as surely as we to his. Beginning with its fifteenth volume, the 'Dictionary of National Biography' has been regularly indexed, to great advantage; and no cyclopædia is now completely serviceable without an index. —Ed. Nation.]

BAD DEBTS AND THE INCOME TAX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I desire to call attention to a manifest error in the income-tax law, or rather in the interpretation of it by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue. On page 31 of the pamphlet sent out by that office, at section 12, it is

stated that no bad debts can be deducted as losses unless the same were contracted *within the year* for which the return is made.

To illustrate the unfairness and absurdity of this proposition, let us take the case of a merchant, A, who in December, 1894, sells goods to B for $1,000. This sale is included in A's business for 1894. B is solvent when the sale is made and for a month afterwards. In January, 1895, B fails and becomes insolvent, and the $1,000 becomes absolutely uncollectible, according to the requirements of the law. Under the ruling of the Commissioner, A, in returning his income for 1894, could not deduct this $1,000 as a loss, because the debt was not contracted in that year, nor could such loss ever be deducted.

The Commissioner virtually lays down the rule that no lost debt can be deducted unless the claim was *contracted and lost in the same year*. This is on its face an absurdity. The law contains no such provision, and neither this law nor any other statute will bear any such construction. The first requisite of legal construction is conformity to common sense and the evident meaning of the statute, neither of which will sustain such an interpretation as the foregoing. The evident intention of the law is to permit merchants and others to charge off in any one year only the actually worthless debts which have become so since the previous year's settlement, and to prevent any one crediting himself with losses which do not legitimately belong to the year's business. This is the rule which all honest men follow in ascertaining the annual returns of their business, and is the only method by which the annual profit or income can be stated. It is evident that so hastily constructed a statute as the present income-tax law should receive more careful judicial construction than can be given it by the clerical force of the Revenue Department.

LEX.

CHICAGO, February 25, 1895.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS will shortly issue 'The Armenian Crisis—The Massacre of 1894: Its Antecedents and Significance,' by Frederick Davis Greene, with illustrations.

Forthcoming publications of Messrs. Scribner are 'Lotos-Time in Japan,' by Henry T. Finck; 'The Peoples and Politics of the Far East,' by Henry Norman; 'Churches and Castles of Mediæval France,' by Walter C. Larned; 'Letters of a Baritone,' from Florence, by Francis Walker; 'Essays on Scandinavian Literature,' by Prof. H. H. Boyesen; and 'The Making of the Nation,' by Gen. Francis A. Walker.

'The Story of Christine Rochefort,' about to be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., is by a granddaughter of Rufus Choate, Mrs. Helen Choate Prince.

'Wolfe,' by A. G. Bradley; 'Colin Campbell,' by Archibald Forbes; and 'Nelson,' by J. K. Laughton, will be the next additions to Macmillan's "Men of Action" series.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. announce 'Forests and Forestry,' by B. E. Fernow, chief of the division of forestry in the Department of Agriculture; and 'Marriage, the Family, and Divorce,' by Prof. Geo. E. Howard of the Leland Stanford University.

'Chambers's Concise Gazetteer' (Lippincott) has a clear field of usefulness and is decidedly to be recommended. It has been well if anonymously edited, and is in the longer articles by no means dry reading. It is selective, of course, but will answer ordinary demands in a satisfactory manner. 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' has served as a basis of compilation. Its notices of the Louisville tornado of 1890, the Seattle and Spokane fires and Johnstown flood of 1889, and the Charleston earthquake of 1886 show it to be well up to date. Often the population of places is given from two censuses, as 1880 and 1890. Accent is usually indicated, and pronunciation often in the more difficult cases, as Hawarden (pron. Harden). Not infrequently books of reference are named. The usage of this gazetteer in the case of capes is to enter under the name proper, as Horn (Cape); or a cross-reference sends us from Good Hope (Cape) to Cape of Good Hope. Only two lakes are entered under Lake, and no mountain under Mountain (except Mont Blanc, Mont Cenis). As far as possible the latter are grouped under ranges, Alps, Appalachian, White Mountains, Cascade Range (in the case of Mt. Rainier, for example); sometimes we are referred to the country, as to Russia for the Ural Mountains. The Saint names are grouped together under S. The United States is well looked after. We miss Mt. Desert.

The 'Laboratory Manual of Physics and Applied Electricity,' arranged and edited by Prof. Edward L. Nichols of Cornell University, which has recently been published by Macmillan, is admirably adapted to supply the needs of the modern physical laboratory. The first of the two volumes is intended for beginners, and gives explicit directions for the experimental work, together with some demonstrations and statements of principles. The second volume is occupied with schemes and suggestions of work for seniors and advanced students; especial attention being given to the needs of those who are preparing to become electrical engineers. The two volumes are of equal length, and together contain something over 800 pages, but do not, as the editor states, "attempt to provide a complete and sufficient source of information for laboratory students," who are encouraged to make continual reference to other works and to original sources.

Students of physical chemistry who are unfamiliar with German will welcome the translation of Ostwald's 'Physico-Chemical Measurements,' by James Walker (Macmillan). The book is written not for the beginner, but for the chemist or physicist who desires to become practically acquainted with the borderland common to both sciences. Both purpose and contents distinguish this book from the existing handbooks for the physical laboratory, and it introduces the student to a region of experimental work which has already proved of great fruitfulness to chemistry. No one is better qualified than Prof. Ostwald for the preparation of such a work. As one of the leaders in the modern field of physical chemistry, he has not only the largest practical experience in the laboratory processes which are described, but also the gift of exact and clear presentation. He has been fortunate in his translator, who has given us an excellent piece of work, in pleasing contrast to much that is inflicted on a long-suffering public.

The most important publication of the past year relating to physical chemistry is that of a second edition of Landolt and Börnstein's 'Physicalisch-Chemische Tabellen.' The accumulation of data has been so rapid since the appearance of the 'Tabellen' ten years ago, that this new edition contains more than twice as many pages (563) as its predecessor. It is all that one can ask for in a reference-book—full and exact; compiled as far as possible from original sources and the sources cited; conveniently arranged; clearly and generously printed; and well bound in covers of moleskin.

To limit the 'Text-Book of Anatomy and Physiology for Nurses,' modestly described as "compiled" by Diana Clifford Kimber (Macmillan), to the class designated in its title, is to depreciate and to neglect other deserving students. This well-arranged and admirable account of the machinery and methods of life deserves a place in every high-grade school for young women. The author, for she is such as truly as any one outside of the little group of original investigators, has the true teaching faculty, and has produced a volume that merits the admirable illustrations and the excellent make-up which the publishers have given it.

It is always tantalizing to read pathology, because the pathologist stops with his statement of damages, and only by inference, and then obscurely, shows a mode of avoidance or of repair. This is emphasized just now by the appearance of the second and concluding volume of the monumental 'Text-Book of Pathology,' by the Aberdeen professor, D. J. Hamilton, in two parts, of more than eleven hundred pages, copiously illustrated (Macmillan). The work touches every conceivable point in the long catalogue of human ills, and includes such cognate matters as systematic bacteriology and animal parasites. Where conditions or hypotheses are still undetermined, it frankly says so; where they are determined, its statements, as far as we have been able to examine, may be depended upon. We commend but cannot review this mass of erudition. It is very thoroughly indexed, and has a voluminous bibliography.

One who observes the antics of the great herd of half-groomed men who roam over the ranges of the liberal professions must sometimes think that "liberal" means free, and that, like the high seas or the plains, these ranges are open to all comers. Its best friends often mourn in this way over medicine, whether looking at the *ad-captandum* methods of the practitioner on money bent, or at the "popular" Treatments or Methods with which the market is flooded, and sometimes at the verbose and obscure Systems and Treatises that lack system and require elucidation. A monograph that is dignified but not pedantic, attentive to particulars but not to trivialities, clear in style and replete with observation controlled by study, is therefore very welcome. Such is 'The Senile Heart,' by George William Balfour, M.D. (St. And.), LL.D. (Ed.), whose right to those honors these pages show upon their face. It is a book for physicians, but the introductory chapter at least would be attractive to any intelligent reader, and connected passages all through it carry the same untechnical charm. Macmillan & Co. publish it.

M. Edmond Biré has actually given us a bulky volume of literary essays, 'Études et Portraits' (Lyon: Vitte), which is not wholly or even mostly devoted to pitching into Victor Hugo, and somehow the book is all the better for this amazing omission. There are excellent articles on Chateaubriand, in which M. Biré establishes the fact that the 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe' did not appear, even in part, before Chateaubriand's death, on Lamartine, on Balzac's unsuccessful efforts to enter the French Academy, on Marmier and the Lomé-nies, besides other writers less well known or less generally interesting.

M. Max Leclerc gives proof of prodigious

courage in publishing his second volume on education and society in England, 'Les Professions et la Société en Angleterre' (Paris: Colin & Cie.). In so chauvinistic a country as France, to uphold the superiority of England in the practical education of its people, in its management of public affairs, in its commonsense view of daily life, is to run the risk of being called a good many hard names. But M. Leclerc sees that superiority, and believes it wisest for his countrymen to realize it, to study the reasons of it, and then to go to work to acquire it for France instead of merely raging at perfidious Albion and proclaiming themselves, maugre everything, the first and most enlightened nation in the world. Two things are encouraging: that there are Frenchmen bold enough to tell the truth to their countrymen, and that their countrymen listen and profit. For M. Leclerc's book is not the only one in which, of late, very serious lessons have been very plainly taught the too long self-satisfied Gallic race.

Anselme Mathieu, a Provençal poet, and one of the seven founders of the Félibrige, died recently at Avignon. He was known, in the florid terminology of his school, as the Poet of Kisses. Early in February he fell on the ice and broke a leg, and, being seventy years old, did not rally from the shock. Sumptuous obsequies were celebrated for him, and his old friend Frédéric Mistral was a chief mourner. Of the seven founders of the Félibrige two only are now left: Mistral and Alphonse Tavau. Five are dead: Aubanel, Roumanille, Roumieux, Brunet, and Mathieu.

Public Opinion, heretofore conducted in Washington, will transfer its publication office this week to New York, with, we should suppose, a gain rather than a loss in efficiency and freshness of compilation from the press utterances of the day.

The well-known English trade journal *Timber* has in its issue of January 23 matter of particular interest for the United States and Canada, being the illustrated report of a special correspondent concerning our lumber industry. There are also several views of the Manchester ship-canal, with its "timber pond." A folded map of the canal accompanies the letterpress.

From Westermann & Co. we receive in a neat portfolio a four-plate wall-map of the world's commerce, on a scale of 1:22,000,000 (equatorial). Four side-maps exhibit Central America (West Indies) on twice the above scale, and the North Sea and its canal, the Isthmus of Suez, and the Straits of Malacca at half scale. The compiler, A. Herrich, delineates the various regular steamship routes, with length in days, the chief railroads, the cables and land telegraphs, the navigable parts of rivers, etc. Mr. Boutelle would undoubtedly cavil at this map because of the meagre showing made in it by the commerce of Hawaii in comparison with Atlantic trade; but facts are stubborn things.

A geological map of Essex County, Mass., prepared by John H. Sears, curator of geology in the Peabody Academy of Science at Salem, has been published by the Essex Institute of that city. It presents the results of long-continued and patient field work by its author over a district of great complexity of structure. There are seventeen varieties of rocks, distinguished by different colors, and twelve other subdivisions, indicated by overprinted numbers; the formations exhibited being chiefly crystalline and metamorphic rocks of most irregular arrangement. The various forms of glacial drift, by which so large an area of the county is covered, are not indicated, although drumlins, inland marshes, and coastal sand-bars are extensively developed. These might be to advantage added to a later edition of the map. The present issue is dedicated to the Lawrence Scientific School of Harvard University, where Mr. Sears carried on his petrographical studies under the direction of Prof. Wolff while the map was in preparation.

The Geological Survey of Alabama has issued a report on the geology of the coastal plain of that State by Messrs. E. A. Smith, director of the Survey, L. C. Johnson, and D. W. Langdon, jr., in an octavo volume of 759 pages with a good number of illustrations. It gives an elaborate account of the successive strata of the plain, all gently dipping southward towards the Gulf, with a total thickness of over 5,000 feet. Brief local account is given of the characteristic topographic features of the plain —especially the inland belt of lowland eroded on weaker strata, and enclosed by the Chunnenugga ridge of harder strata; but no adequate explanation of this feature is presented.

The 'Geographical Work of the Future' is the subject of a suggestive article by Mr. H. R. Mill in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for February. After passing in review the various regions yet unexplored, he shows by the diagram of a pyramid the relations of the different departments of the science, the cap and keystone being commercial geography. The discussion and coördination of the classes of phenomena in these he contends will be the work of future geographers. Other papers are a review of Dr. A. Penck's 'Morphology of the Earth's Surface,' by Prof. J. Geikie, and an account of the highest village of the Caucasus, which leaves a favorable impression both of the welfare and the morals of the mountaineers.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for January opens with an article introductory to the publication of extracts from the diary of the late Dr. G. A. Fischer, describing his expedition into Central Africa for the rescue of Dr. Junker. It is accompanied by a fine map of the German and British East African possessions between Mt. Kenia and the Victoria Nyanza. This is followed by a report of the progress in the exploration of eastern Turkestan by the expedition of the Imperial Russian Geographical Society, and a summary of the observations made at various stations in Europe of the earthquake in Japan in March, 1894.

The sixth international geographical congress will be held in London next summer, under the auspices of the Royal Geographical Society, the session beginning July 26 and lasting to August 3. An extensive exhibition of geographical materials will be opened in connection with the congress. The invitation circular, lately issued, announces an imposing list of honorary officers, and a series of strong committees on the various subjects that are proposed for special discussion. The meeting promises to be an important one, and worthy to form the main object of a trip abroad. Full information concerning application for membership may be had of the Secretary, Royal Geographical Society, No. 1 Saville Row, London, W.

A loan collection of portraits of women is to open in Boston on March 11, by way of sequel to the very successful exhibitions in London and New York. Although Gainsborough, Reynolds, Sir Peter Lely, Romney, and other English artists will be represented, and examples of the best painters of the modern French school will be shown, the strength of the exhibition will be in the Copleys, Stuarts, Allstons, Smyberts, Trumbulls, and other painters of their time, besides all the well-known artists of the present day. The collection of miniatures of all schools will be especially interesting and valuable. Only one man is to be shown in the collection, viz, Copley, in a miniature by himself.

The Notman Photographic Co., Boston, sends us an admirable portrait of the late Frederick Douglass, taken at a recent date. One could not desire a better expression of the character of this remarkable man—his fine and venerable presence, his intellectual weight and shrewd humor, the kindly eye, the oratorical mouth. His sitting attitude is easy and dignified, and the whole aspect is that of the gentleman that he was. The print is somewhat larger than the ordinary cabinet size and more nearly square, and is valued not excessively at one dollar.

—If readers were in proportion to practical claim on their attention, the best-thumbed paper in the current number of *Harper's Magazine* would be the one on "The New York Common Schools." The reforms needed in the unwieldy system by which these schools are managed were pointed out as long ago as 1858 by a precursor of Mayor Gilroy's commission of 1893; as they were defeated then by the Board of Education, neglect of the first principles of public administration has since distinguished this department of public work. Where power is divided as it is here—between ward trustees, commissioners, inspectors, and State and city superintendents—responsibility naturally falls to the ground. The "accepted formula used in making scientific skill and knowledge available for the good of the community" is also here a dead letter. Laymen not only control expenditure and prescribe the scope and purpose of the work, but provide the classification of studies and scholars; and educational experts are, though "pedagogy has become a science and the managing of public schools an art," ruled out of the city's educational work. To bring to public hearing, now that reform is again in the air, the principles on which it must proceed, is to perform another of those thankless tasks by which public apathy is sometimes overcome, oftener not. A rider to this paper is contained in the Editor's Study, where some timely words on the habit of attention as a form of mental discipline are enforced by a description of the methods by which the habit has been cultivated with remarkable success in a girls' school. St. George Mivart takes in another paper the hopeful side of the vexed question, "Can acquired character be inherited?" and Mr. Howells contributes to the number an allegorical poem, "Society," in the form of two sonnets of antithetical social imagery.

—In the *Century* Joseph Pennell begins another set of impressions of places, seeking this time his fresh woods and pastures new "Beyond the Adriatic," in company with Harriet Waters Preston, who plays verbal cicerone to the reader in the transit between Fiume, Zara, Sebenico, and Trau, on their bright quays and in their market-places and churches, breaking off within sight of Spalato. Miss Preston makes notes of this and that, and jots down one thing after another in an easy, flowing hand, without special peculiarity of stroke or flourish; but Mr. Pennell's pictures of landscape and architecture combine delicacy and breadth, prettiness and vigor in a manner that stamps their authorship at a glance. "Jean Carriès: Sculptor and Potter," is written

about by a panegyrist, Émile Hovelaque, in a strain plethoric in adjective and unshackled in simile. Nevertheless, Carriès, the inventor of a new earthenware, *grès*, whose exhibit in 1892 of works in bronze, wax, and pottery obtained for him, at the demand of his fellow-artists, the cross of the Legion of Honor, and who died untimely last July, at the age of thirty-eight, emerges from eulogy a singularly interesting figure, a workman of the mediæval type, and an artist (amply illustrated here by reproductions) of spontaneous creative imagination. Mr. Bunner undoubtedly weakens the force of his onslaught upon the novelist who writes with a moral purpose by his illustration of the plain man who, expecting to be interested during the dull hours of a journey "in the joys and sorrows, ups and downs of other human beings not unlike himself," finds himself able to understand "but little of the spiritual struggles of the personages of his book." There are still other human beings, however, who find spiritual struggles the most vital dramas of life; and the plain man, whose "moralities are of a simple, practical sort," obviously needs a guide at the book-stall. To demand that all novels shall be written down to his comprehension is to take a step in literary levelling as yet in advance of the time.

—The first paper in *Scribner's* is also the first of a series which will be continued through the year by the President of Brown University on the "History of the Last Quarter-Century in the United States." In this history the reader is to go, he is told, "upon a rapid excursion through vast tracts, with frequent use of the camera, and not upon a topographical survey." This forecast accurately defines the defects of the plan upon which the history, thus far, is written. Vague apprehension and an indefinite topography suffice, in general, to satisfy the lax interest of the ordinary mind. Espe cially do they so in regard to the principles that underlie our particular institutions and their practical application to concrete problems. The true function of the periodic literature that treats of these is to disseminate definite and precise ideas, even at the necessity of presupposing some patience on the part of the reader. Bird's-eye views and kodak methods are not likely to accomplish this aim. William F. Apthorp's article on "Orchestral Conducting and Conductors" is one from which the tyro in musical knowledge may derive a new point of view in regard to the office and evolution of the modern magnate of music, whose two-fold temptation is, it is shown, to exagge rate the effects of a score or to infuse it unduly with his individual musical temperament. That such temptation increases with the composer's increasing tendency to express himself less and less fully in his notation, and to leave more and more to the conductor's, or performer's, interpretation, can be easily understood. The eternal necessity for unity and symmetry of musical form is a capital theme on which to dwell when excitement and overstimulation are sought in music no less than in other fields, and when such catchwords as "barrier-spurning subjectivism" have found their way into musical discussion. "Bedding-Plants," by Samuel Parsons, jr., is an article full of healthful and pleasant suggestions, accompanied by attractive illustrations from photographs taken by the author's direction.

—The contents of the *Atlantic* are, in part, a pleasant bit of blank verse; the clever first half of a charmingly conceived story; and the prettiest possible sketch of a locality in southern Calabria. The verse, which is by Clinton Scollard, describes "Evening in Salisbury Close"—as it may be seen by some eyes at some times; the story, by Grace Howard Peirce, has for heroine a high-born maiden in the Reign of Terror; the sketch, by Elisabeth Pullen, bears the aptly adapted title, "Bova Unvisited"; and all combine, in the order named, graces of imagination with no less noticeable graces of expression. Prof. Lanciani makes interesting popular reading out of the specialists' explorations of the seats of the Roman oracles, and supports thereby his plea for Rome as "the best centre for the study of practical archæology." For students of social problems, or for the small minority that affects enlightenment on social subjects, H. Sidney Everett's article, "Immigration and Naturalization," covers important points, especially directing attention to the neglect of legislation concerning aliens as at the root of dishonest and wasteful mismanagement of municipal affairs. Equally serious in import is Prof. Shaler's discussion of the "Direction of Education." Although its immediate practical end is an increase of co operation between masters of fitting-schools, public and private, and college authorities, with a view to the better development of the student's individual capacity, the argument by which this end is introduced is so broadly human, and involves so much social forethought, that any reader's thinking may well be stimulated by its perusal.

—M. Victor Turquan contributes to the *Réforme Sociale* an interesting study of the movements of population in France from 1846 to 1891. The number of inhabitants increased from 35,400,000 in 1846 to 38,067 000 in 1866. In consequence of the war with Prussia and the loss of the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, it fell in 1872 to 36,103,000, rising gradually to 38,343,000 in 1891. From other sources we learn that in 1893 the number of births slightly exceeded the number of deaths, after having fallen below it for several years, so that the population is probably now somewhat greater than in 1891, especially as there has been a perceptible increase in the number of marriages. It is thought that this increase is due to the cessation of the influence of the mortality of the war of 1870 upon the marriage-rate, from which it may be inferred that, if peace is maintained, the number of marriages will continue to be in excess of the average of 280,000 per annum for the decade 1881–1890. It is to be considered, however, that the number of divorces shows a steady increase, and that the number of illegitimate offspring has attained the highest figure ever known, the percentage being 8.8. Moreover, the increase in population in 1893, so far as it is shown by the excess of births over deaths, is confined to the female sex, the number of males having actually diminished.

—M. Turquan's researches bring to view the operation of other causes which may in time affect all inferences drawn from movements of population in the past. Chief among these is the tendency to aggregation in cities, where the birth-rate is lower, at the expense of the country, where it is higher. The line between rural and urban communities in France is drawn with reference to the existence of a concentrated population of 2,000 souls; that is to say, even if a commune contains more than 2,000 inhabitants, it may not be classed as urban if this population is scattered, and not gathered about a centre. It appears that in 1846 the rural population numbered 26,753,000, while in 1891 it had decreased to 24,032 000. On the other hand, the urban population rose from 8,646,000 to 14,311,000. Representing the movements with a diagram, we have two steadily converging lines which will meet about 1925 or 1930, when the urban and rural population will be equal. By very elaborate investigations M. Turquan determines that between 1886 and 1891 the deaths among the urban population exceeded the births by 1,129, while among the rural population the births were in excess by 191,744. But the urban population increased in numbers during that time by 518,000, while the country population diminished by 585,000; indicating a net immigration to the cities from the country of some half a million souls. The minor discrepancies in the figures are explained as due to an excess of emigration of Frenchmen from France over the number of immigrants from foreign countries. In order to fix more precisely the directions of these movements, M. Turquan computes the numbers of communes of various sizes at the different periods under review. There has been a considerable increase, even of recent years, in the number of very small villages; *i. e.*, those of less than 300 souls. There has also been a notable increase in the number of communes having over 5,000 inhabitants. Communes having from 300 to 5,000 inhabitants have materially diminished in numbers; some of them having risen above the 5,000 limit, but more having fallen into the lower grades. The gain in population appears, therefore, to have been made almost exclusively by some 400 or 500 cities, at the expense of the small, but not the smallest, towns. It would be interesting to compare these results with the movement of population in the United States; but we fear that our census has been so mismanaged as to deprive inferences from its reports of all scientific value.

—An important function of the new parish and district councils in Great Britain is the increased opportunities they offer to women for public service. After twenty years, the number of Englishwomen who had secured places on the Poor Law Boards amounted to only about 200: at one bound this feminine contingent has nearly doubled. Indeed, nothing shows more clearly the conservative temper of the average British voter than the disparity in numbers between the women returned, in the recent local elections, as parish councillors and those returned as district councillors—the difference being as 1 to 10. The duties of a parish councillor have yet to be generally accepted as falling within the province of woman's experience, while it is quite otherwise as regards the duties of a poor-law guardian, which in future in rural districts will be discharged by the district councils. The proportion of women returned at the head of the poll is large: out of a group of 458 women candidates (outside of London), 377 were elected, "10 per cent. without contest, and 20 per cent. at the head of the poll," while in most cases women who had been serving as guardians, etc., were reëlected. At Girton Parish (Cambridgeshire) the junior bursar of Girton College, Miss Jackson, heads the list, a similar honor falling to the wife of the rector of Lanivet (Cornwall) in the election of district council. Old Boston (Lincolnshire) has returned Mrs. Bedford, treasurer of the Woman's Liberal Association, and at North Burley (York) Mrs. Priestly, the honorable secretary of the Low Moor Women's Liberal Association, distanced all competitors by 300 votes; at Morpeth (York) two ladies received 410 and 391 votes respec-

tively, the best male running having only 175. Among other successful heads of polls may be mentioned Mrs. Leopold de Rothschild, Miss Twining, Lady Elcho, Lady Jackson, the Lady Mayoress of Leamington, and the Countess of Warwick.

—Dent's edition of Malory's 'Morte Darthur' (New York: Macmillan), the first volume of which we noticed at length some months ago, is now completed by the publication of volume ii. We have little to add to our former notice. Except for the Introduction by Prof. Rhys, on which we have already commented, the work contributes nothing to the textual or literary history of the 'Morte Darthur.' The footnotes are quite as sporadic in the second volume as in the first, and the "General Glossary" (of five pages!) usurps a name it does not own. As a drawing-room edition, however, the book is decidedly successful. The paper and the printing are a positive delight; the mere blackness of the ink is a source of physical and moral pleasure. As for Mr. Aubrey Beardsley's "designs," they are neither better nor worse than in the first volume. They have the same merits—merits of which the public has heard enough from the eccentric artist's admirers—and the same glaring defects. Among the latter we count as almost the least the queerness and ugliness of some of the pictures; it is their occasional flippancy and shallowness, and their more than occasional irrelevancy, that most offend one. As decoration they are often effective; as illustration they almost always fail. We doubt if Mr. Beardsley has, or cares to have, any understanding either of the Arthur legend itself or of Sir Thomas Malory's rendering of it. Nor can we believe that he really intended to *illustrate* the book. The title-page comes near the facts: "embellished with original designs." Some of the subjects selected for these embellishments show how little the artist concerned himself about the story in comparison with his interest in effects in black and white. "La Beale Isoud at Joyous Gard" is an example—a superb piece of decoration, which throws no light on the story, and in itself means no more, perhaps, than "the pride of life." Even more disappointing is the lack of imaginative veracity shown in "How Sir Bedivere Cast the Sword Excalibur into the Water"—a design which in other respects has much merit. As for the chapter-headings, we continue to like them in the main, but some of the gaunt figures are tiresome.

—'Florence,' by MM. Lafenestre and Richtenberger (Paris: Quantin) is a compilation based chiefly on the official catalogues of the various picture galleries at Florence. Occasionally a reference is made to the opinions of Crowe and Cavalcaselle and of Bode. A laudable feature is copious quotation from Vasari, and the history of the vicissitudes of the various pictures has also been attended to in a praiseworthy fashion. The hundred phototype illustrations have been chosen, on the whole, with great tact. A number of pictures in the Pitti and Uffizi, as, for instance, the "Pico da Mirandola," the tiny "Madonna with Music-making Angels," "The Religious Allegory," and the "Portrait of Luigi Cornaro," are still entered by the authors as by an unknown Tuscan, by Titian, by Basaiti, and by Titian respectively, although in the galleries themselves the labels have already been changed, in obedience to modern criticism, to Botticelli, Correggio, Bellini, and Tintoretto respectively. The necessary information given about the painters betrays on the part of the compilers lack of acquaintance with recent research. The date of Gentile da Fabriano's death, for instance, is given as "about 1450," although documents establish that he was dead in 1430; Lotto's birthplace is given as Treviso, although it has been proved again and again that this artist was born in Venice. But, whatever its faults, the book serves the purpose at least of an inexpensive souvenir of the pictures at Florence.

THE APPROPRIATION OF LAND.

Land Systems of Australia. By William Epps. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. 1894.

THE establishment of property in land has always been one of the most troublesome problems of civilization, and a history of the various theories and expedients adopted in securing peaceable enjoyment to the occupants of definite portions of the surface of the earth would be a library in itself. From the point of view of abstract justice, as it appears to Henry George and as it appeared to Herbert Spencer before he discovered what was involved in the opinion, every human being is entitled to an aliquot part of the inhabitable surface of this planet. The first stumbling-block encountered by this theory is the existence of independent sovereign governments. Whatever titles these governments recognize among their own subjects, they do not admit that the soil within their jurisdictions can be possessed by aliens. Still more serious is the difficulty arising from the expenditure of labor and capital upon land. Most men recalcitrate at a theory of justice which does not recognize claims for "unexhausted improvements"; but if the new-born babe is required to purchase his aliquot portion of land at the cost of the improvements that have been made upon it, his right becomes of a very shadowy character. And finally the institution of the family complicates the case hopelessly; for it will never be generally admitted that children have not a peculiar claim to the possessions, landed or other, of their parents.

Most societies, finding it impossible to comply with the requirements of natural justice, have cut the Gordian knot by getting the land as speedily as possible into the hands of private owners. Once there, the operation of the laws of alienation and devise brings about a constant readjustment, which, however far from ideal justice, makes the system at least tolerable. We are approaching this condition in the United States, since there is now little really desirable agricultural land open for settlement under the homestead acts, although there is an immense area of arid land which can be used only for grazing, but which the Government has hitherto refused to make available for that purpose. Sooner or later, however, the Government will be compelled to legislate concerning this land, and when that time shall arrive, the experience of the English colonies in Australia will be found to afford many useful precedents and many grave warnings.

Mr. Epps's book is therefore of value to American readers, and although the multitude of details necessarily makes it painful reading, many of its lessons and conclusions are too important to be uninteresting. He takes up the legislation affecting land tenure that has prevailed in New South Wales, Tasmania, Victoria, Queensland, Western Australia, South Australia, and New Zealand; a method necessary to completeness, but which involves much repetition. It will suffice for our purpose to glance briefly at the experiments which have been made by New South Wales and New Zealand, and to consider the difficulties with which they are at present confronted.

New South Wales was first settled by convicts transported from England, and for many years leases were made by the Government only on condition that the lessee employed convicts in proportion to his holding, while all settlement beyond certain narrow limits was prohibited. The introduction of grants in fee at fixed prices, and afterwards at auction, caused a rapid alienation of land, and the abolition of the system of transportation in 1840 made the colony more attractive to free immigrants. The appropriation of land through sales at auction was conducted in the first place according to the "Wakefield system," the theory of which was that only small contiguous areas should be disposed of, at a high price, the proceeds to be applied to bringing in agricultural laborers. But the theory collapsed before the rush of the "squatters." In spite of the prohibition of the Government, settlers pressed on beyond the prescribed limits, and formed a community outside of all laws. Many of these squatters were convicts, and, whoever they were, the Government was impotent to prevent their crossing an imaginary line 500 miles in length, or to bring them back after they had crossed it. There was nothing to do but to make the best of the situation, and the squatters obtained legal recognition of their right to the use of grazing-lands upon payment of a small license fee. Attempts were made from time to time to compel the squatters to purchase a part of the lands which they occupied, while the squatters tried to get their tenancies converted practically into estates in fee. In 1847 a system of leasing was adopted which resulted in the most frightful speculation and corruption, many of the squatters finding that the lands occupied by them had been leased by Government officers; and as these leases carried with them a right of purchase, great tracts of land available for settlement passed into the hands of absentee landlords.

These leases, however, proved to be feeble muniments of title. Under the influence of the popular outcry against land monopoly, acts were passed in 1861 providing for the "selection" of lands as homesteads, and for the leasing of pastoral lands for short terms. These acts were, according to Mr. Epps, "the cause of more heart-burning, public immorality, and private chicanery and class antagonism than any measures ever passed in Australasia." Upon the one hand, these laws enabled the "selectors" to blackmail the squatters by selecting such portions of their "runs," especially those bordering upon the streams, as were indispensable to the use of the remainder, and by impounding their cattle. Upon the other hand, the squatters were enabled to buy up the selected tracts or to select them for themselves through "dummies." Under the law as amended in 1875, a family of five persons above the age of sixteen years could take up 12,000 acres. The fundamental vice of the law, as declared in the report of the land commission of 1883, was that "it offered for sale to one class of occupants the same land which was simultaneously assigned under lease to another class."

The system has been improved during the last decade, but it still fails to give satisfaction. Between 1861 and 1891 the urban population increased from 160,000 to 730,000; but

the rural population increased only from 190,000 to 388,000. Between 1879 and 1891 the area of estates under 200 acres scarcely increased at all, while the area of those of 1,000 acres and upwards more than doubled. The average size of estates has increased from 315 acres in 1876 to 816 acres in 1892. Of the total area occupied as freehold, only 2 per cent. is under cultivation—less than half of 1 per cent. of the total area of the colony, and little more than one acre per head of the population. The value of agricultural produce is declining, and the quantity is altogether insufficient for home consumption. It would seem from these figures that the pastoral industry is ordained by nature for this colony, while the efforts of legislators have been directed towards discouraging it. Even this industry is now threatened, since the introduction of rabbits a few years ago has been followed by their prodigious multiplication, to the ruin of pasturage; the graziers being unwilling to incur the expense of protecting leaseholds whence they may be presently evicted without compensation for their improvements.

We have left ourselves little space to describe the history of land tenure in New Zealand, although, when we consider that the early settlers were established under the auspices of the Church of England and the Free Church of Scotland, it is evident that an interesting comparison might be made with the convict settlements of Australia. To some extent we find a repetition of the experiments and blunders of New South Wales, but we can comment only upon some recent legislation. Prior to 1892, lands were leased, in perpetuity, but subject to periodical reappraisement of rent, with the idea of securing to the state the "unearned increment." Since that date, however, leases are made for 999 years at 4 per cent. of the value at the time of selection, the "single-tax" theory having as to this feature collapsed. But the most important innovation is that which forbids any man holding 2,000 acres of land to acquire any more of the public domain. Furthermore, there is a special tax upon non resident landowners, and a graduated land-tax intended to disintegrate large estates, in addition to the regular tax upon land. This graduated tax is imposed upon land valued at over £5,000, after deducting the value of improvements, but not mortgages, rising from one-eighth of a penny in the pound to fifteen times that rate upon valuations over £210,000. When we consider that of the total freehold area of 12,410,000 acres, not less than 7,026,000 are owned by 584 persons, that of the remainder 1,075 persons hold 2,144,000 acres, while the 3,240,000 acres left are divided among 41,518 owners, it is not surprising that a policy hostile to such aggregations of property should find favor. The results of this policy are awaited with eagerness by the other Australasian colonies, nor will they be without interest for the older nations of the earth.

Much credit is due to Mr. Epps for his indefatigable labor in collecting and arranging a mass of inaccessible materials in such a manner as to enable us to understand this interesting phase of the development of the institution of property. It is to be hoped that his work may attract the attention of our legislators, who have yet to deal with the problem of disposing of the arid grazing-lands of the United States, which constitute one-third of its area.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Early London Theatres (In the Fields). By T. Fairman Ordish, F.S.A. [The Camden Library.] London: Elliot Stock; New York: Macmillan.

Technique of the Drama; An Exposition of Dramatic Composition and Art. By Gustav Freytag. Translated by Elias J. MacEwan, M.A. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.

Génie et Métier. Par Hippolyte Parigot. Paris: Colin; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.

Les 36 Situations Dramatiques. Par Georges Polti. Paris: Le Mercure de France; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.

Le Théâtre à Coté. Par Adolphe Aderer. Paris: Quantin; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.

Among the books which every earnest student of the drama needs is a treatise describing the English theatre in the time of Elizabeth and James, in which the construction of the playhouses, the organization of the companies, the hours of performances, the arrangement of the stage, and the disposition of the spectators should all be set down in order clearly and simply, with brief references to the authorities relied on for every important assertion. Such a treatise would help us to understand the physical conditions under which the great English dramatists worked, just as Mr. Haigh's invaluable volume on 'The Attic Theatre' enables us to explain for ourselves not a few of the peculiarities of the Greek drama, and just as the late Eugène Despois's most useful little book on 'Le Théâtre-Français sous Louis XIV.' makes clear to us the circumstances under which the plays of Corneille, of Molière, and of Racine were first produced before the public. A like volume devoted to the Spanish stage in the days of Lope de Vega and of Calderon is also much needed. But to us, speakers of English, using the language of Shakspere as our mother-tongue, a clear explanation of the Shaksperian theatre is a crying need. This book Mr. Ordish has not given or attempted to give us; but he has greatly facilitated the labor of the student who shall undertake the task. Of late years an immense collection of separate items of information about the players and playhouses of England under Elizabeth has been amassed by arduous research under the lead chiefly of that faithful scholar, Halliwell-Phillipps. This information Mr. Ordish has utilized in an attempt to tell the history of the leading theatres outside the city gates—the Theatre and the Curtain being the chief of these; and he intends to prepare a second volume on the theatres within the limits of the City of London. Perhaps the prime merit of the present work is that it brushes aside boldly the reckless misstatements of John Payne Collier, and leads us back again to the actual records which Collier was willing to treat as cavalierly as possible.

The influence of the physical conditions of the theatre of a country upon the form of its drama cannot but be enormous; and yet very few critics have given due weight to it. That the Greek drama differs so widely from the Spanish, and that the English drama of Elizabeth contrasts itself so sharply with the French drama of Louis XIV., is due in part, no doubt, and perhaps chiefly, to the differences of race and of time; but it is due also in great measure to differences in the physical conditions of the theatres for which Sophocles and Calderon, Shakspere and Corneille wrote their plays. It is quite impossible that the Greek and the Spaniard, the Englishman and the Frenchman, should use the same technic, however much they might be in agreement as to the fundamental principles of dramatic construction. That they are in substantial agreement in the use of certain principles there is no doubt; and it is to a discussion of these generally accepted principles that Freytag devoted his 'Technik des Dramas.' Freytag had the advantage of being himself a working playwright, considering the stage from the inner side of the footlights, and having, therefore, a keener sympathy with dramaturgic difficulties than is possible to a merely academic critic. He drew his examples chiefly from the Greek drama, from Shakspere, and from Lessing, Goethe, and Schiller, ignoring the drama of Spain and France, for the most part. From a sentence in the introduction it may be inferred that Freytag is not acquainted with the remarkable verses of Lope on the 'Arte nueva de hacer comedias.' Mr. MacEwan's translation is fluent in the main, although it seems forced now and then; and he has apparently not troubled himself always to verify the original English which Freytag cites in German; thus, we find that the *Friar Lawrence* of "Romeo and Juliet" appears (on p. 33) as *Lorenzo*.

Closely akin, in some respects, to Freytag's book is M. Parigot's collection of essays, in which the intent is to show how much skill and craftsmanship underlies genius. Every man must serve his apprenticeship if he wishes to be a master of the craft. The genius can shorten the years of service and can learn the trade more swiftly than his less-gifted rivals, but sooner or later the trade has to be learnt, for all that; and the great dramatists of all times and peoples have all of them been cunning artificers. Merely as playwrights, seeking how best to make a play please, amuse, interest, entertain an audience, Sophocles and Shakspere, Molière and Ibsen have had few rivals. Corneille is the master of the technic of the drama whose processes M. Parigot has chosen to study and to expound to us; and his analysis is most illuminative, and makes clear phases of Corneille's art not hitherto plain to us. Akin to this study is an extremely interesting discussion of the relation of the vaudeville, the comedy of ingenious intrigue, with the larger comedy of manners, in which M. Parigot shows that, even in the best comedy of manners, construction plays a very important part. Another instructive paper gives us many new facts about the original manuscripts of the younger Dumas's plays, showing how the playmaker and the phrasemaker, both of which are in M. Dumas, contended for the mastery, and how the playmaker finally conquered the phrasemaker.

In one of his conversations with Eckermann, Goethe said that Gozzi, the Venetian dramatist, had declared that there were only thirty-six possible dramatic situations, and that Schiller had tried hard to find more, but he could not make out even as many as Gozzi. This chance saying of Goethe's is the text of M. Polti's volume. M. Polti has analyzed some thousand plays, and he has made a list of what seem to him to be *the* thirty-six situations he found therein; and under one or another of these main situations, with their several varieties, he has been able to classify all the situations in all these plays. A limitation of the number to thirty-six is arbitrary, of course, and another investigator might easily have arranged the results of his research under twenty heads or under fifty. Perhaps, also, Mr. William Archer is right in thinking that M. Polti has erred in attempting a classification by the situation, which is

the mere outward expression of an emotion, instead of a classification by the emotions themselves. None the less is M. Polti's labor not without interest. He has enabled us to see that certain situations were often used by the Greek dramatists, and are now almost wholly neglected by modern playwrights. He shows us that certain other situations seemingly fertile in dramatic effect and in histrionic possibilities have been most insufficiently attempted at any time. He gives us added evidence, were any really needed, to disprove Mr. Swinburne's assertion that Victor Hugo is a great dramatist of the race and lineage of Shakspere. That is to say, under his Situation XIX. "To kill one of his kin unknown" (to be found in the "Ion" of Euripides, the "Merope" of Alfieri, the "Mahomet" of Voltaire), he finds it easy to classify all of the ten plays of Hugo, and he discovers variants of this situation actually five times repeated in the single play of "Lucrèce Borgia." Yet such a situation must be very rare indeed in real life; and it does not occur once in all the thirty-nine plays of Shakspere, who preferred to deal with stronger subjects than a situation as accidental as this.

While M. Francisque Sarcey is the regular dramatic critic of the *Temps*, that best and most dignified of Parisian journals, contributing a long and elaborate review of the week to the paper which bears the date of Monday morning, although it appears on Sunday afternoon, the daily theatrical notes, items of gossip, bits of news, "first-night" impressions, are the work of M. Adolphe Aderer, who also from time to time contributes longer articles on subjects connected with the stage. For the *Temps* he recently prepared a series of papers describing the many organizations now existing in Paris for the purpose of giving occasional performances of new plays; and these papers appear now in a volume with a prefatory note by M. Sarcey. It needed a volume like this on 'Le Théâtre à Coté' to enable a foreigner to understand the prodigious theatrical activity of France. In addition to the regular theatres relying almost wholly on the contemporary French dramatists, and very rarely indeed producing any adaptation of any foreign play, there are also at least a dozen really important societies—of which the "Théâtre Libre" is the best known, and the "Cercle Funambulesque" (for reviving the delicate art of French pantomime) is the most original—there are at least a dozen societies giving perhaps half-a-dozen performances each during the winter, at each of which performances only new plays are acted. To any one interested in the contemporary drama M. Aderer's little book is most instructive. It is a great pity that the projectors of the unfortunate "Theatre of Arts and Letters" here in New York had not possessed the taste and the tact which more than one of the directors of these Parisian analogues has given proof of.

A History of Egypt: From the earliest times to the Sixteenth Dynasty. By W. M. Flinders Petrie, D. C. L., Edwards Professor of Egyptology in University College, London. With numerous illustrations. London: Methuen & Co. 1894.

To most readers the fact would be of small significance that unmummied bodies have been found in Egypt, buried in a crouching or bent position with their faces toward the east. Similarly, it would awaken no interest to be told that a scarab of an uncertain king was ornamented by a "discontinuous scroll" and by "vertical lines down each side of the name," and also that the circle which is used in the writing of the same king's name contained two transverse marks. Even to the average person interested in Egyptian antiquities, the exact location of a place called *Hat-Nub* would appear to be of decidedly minor importance. Yet these are three points brought out by Prof. Petrie because they have very important bearings upon some of the hardest problems that face the student of Egyptian origins, history, and chronology.

A difference in burial customs points to a difference of religious belief and practice, and hints at a difference of race and previous ancestral home. Relations are found to exist between the Egyptians and the inhabitants of Punt, a land on either side of the Red Sea at its southern end—the Somali coast and southern Arabia. Further investigations seem to indicate that these peoples originated in the Persian Gulf region, and that they spread thence, passing up the Red Sea, a portion of them branching off to Egypt by way of Kosseir and Koptos, settling first at Thinis and thence descending to Memphis, and the rest proceeding northward to Phœnicia and thence westward along the shores of the Mediterranean to northern Africa and even to Spain.

One of the dark periods of Egyptian annals is that between the seventh and the tenth dynasties. Prof. Petrie finds a cause for a part of the uncertainty in the fact that the royal power fell into gradual decay during the seventh and eighth dynasties, so that, at the close of the eighth dynasty and during the ninth and tenth, the land was governed by territorial princes and local rulers, over whom finally a foreign king gained supremacy. The name of this king has generally been read as Ianra or Iannias, and he has been identified with one of the Hyksos rulers mentioned by Josephus. The circle with the two transverse lines mentioned above differs from a circle with a central dot, and this difference makes a change from the name Ianra to the name Khyan or Khian, a formation foreign to Egyptian usage. The peculiar method of ornamentation employed upon a scarab bearing the name of this sovereign, upon which stress is laid, fixes his reign previous to the period of the eleventh and twelfth dynasties, because only then in the whole extent of Egyptian history was this style of ornamentation in vogue. We thus get a glimpse of a period of foreign invasion which seems to account for the retreat of the princes of the tenth dynasty toward the south. This period was like that of the Hyksos invasion, but was long anterior to it.

The bearing of the location of *Hat-Nub* upon questions of chronology is too complicated for treatment here; suffice it to say that it, in connection with other data, serves as a basis for the calculation of the approximate time required to transport stones on a falling Nile from the quarry to the capital, and hence the approximate day of the month when such an operation was undertaken in the reign of Merenra of the sixth dynasty. This enables one to fix the time when a given date fell in a certain part of the Egyptian changeable year, and, by means of reference to its location in a given Sothic period, to translate it into terms of years composed of three hundred and sixty-five and a quarter days. The degree of uncertainty that has reigned in the dates of events in what is called the Old Kingdom has been simply startling, and Erman only stated the fact when he said that a difference of a thousand years might exist between the date assigned to a given event and the time when it actually occurred. But the combination of the astronomical with the regnal method of computation gives us an approximation which is believed by Prof. Petrie to be within a century at the outside. Combined with the system of calculation by "dead reckoning" it is found that a date for Menes, the first king, may be provisionally assigned at about 4800 B. C. (4777). This date differs from that of Mariette (5004) by only about 200 years, while it is nearly 1,000 years below that of Champollion (5867), 800 below that of Wiedemann (5650), 400 above that of Brugsch (4400), and about 900 above those of Lepsius (3892) and Lieblein (3893). The date of Wilkinson (2320) is most "orthodox," but it is more than doubled by Petrie. It is to be noted that the approximate nature of this assignment is insisted upon with reiteration by Petrie; but that it indicates a long step in advance is undoubted.

The volume under consideration is the first of six, which are to cover the Dynastic, the Ptolemaic, the Roman, and the Arabic periods of Egyptian history, and in the last two Prof. Petrie is to have the coöperation of J. G. Milne and Stanley Lane-Poole, respectively. When completed, the series will present the best compendium of Egyptian history for the use of the student in English, if not in any language. That of Brugsch is brilliant, but it is padded with much that is conjectural or rhetorical. That of Wiedemann is simply invaluable, and will remain so on account of its multitudinous details. The present volume is somewhat on the plan of Wiedemann, but is more condensed in parts and in others supplemented by the results of years of research expended by Petrie himself in the land of the Nile. He has also improved upon his predecessor by giving a large number of illustrations, and also the hieroglyphic forms of the names of many of the Pharaohs. Mariette's 'Aperçu' (translated by Brodrick) is merely a brief outline, which is in part superseded already, and this remark denotes the fault to be found with most histories of the Pharaohs that are ten years old and upwards. The best previous history is that of Eduard Meyer, and it is not superseded entirely by that of Petrie.

There are those who will think that Prof. Petrie has not been wise in his treatment of proper names. It may be slightly more correct to write *Tahutmes* than *Thothmes*, but the gain is not very marked, and the second form has the right to the ground by long occupation. But in writing the first form the author departs from the general usage of the book, and is inconsistent either way. But this, though not at all an isolated case, is only as a "grain of sand in the marble of the Parthenon." He has arranged his material in a perspicuous way, has illustrated his work quite profusely, and has made the ground of chronology more firm. Succeeding volumes will be looked for with interest by students of Egyptian history, because they come from masters. For popular reading, in the ordinary sense, the present volume is scarcely adapted because of its detail, but the sections which summarize whole dynasties or periods are brief, clear, and good, so that the outline of the history is easily available to one who wishes to skip the facts of single reigns.

General Hancock. By General Francis A. Walker. [Great Commanders.] D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. 332.

GEN. WALKER frankly states that the inclusion of Gen. Hancock's name in a list of "Great

Commanders" must be regarded as an enlargement of the natural meaning of the title, since his service was always subordinate, and he was never subjected to the supreme responsibilities of the leader of an independent army in the field. Still, all who admire a splendid soldier will be glad to have any phrase made elastic enough to include a career which was a model for nearly everything that a brave and patriotic officer would desire to be and to do. In every part of his war service he bore himself so that he was naturally looked to as one fit for the next step in promotion; and we are not called upon to decide whether he would have been equally brilliant if the last test had been applied, and he had been appointed to lead a great army.

Born of intelligent parents in Pennsylvania in 1824, he entered the Military Academy at sixteen and graduated in 1844, just before reaching his majority. Of powerful physique and fine presence, his bent was towards the active and athletic side of a soldier's life. In intellectual work he does not seem to have advanced beyond the lower third of a class no way greatly distinguished. This forces on our attention the fact that the business of the soldier is fighting, and that the qualities that brought Hancock a great harvest of glory in the fierce struggle at the Spottsylvania salient were not necessarily those which secure a high academic standing. There must, of course, be the ordinary education which fits a man for the not inconsiderable business of a corps command; but the essentials, after all, were unflinching courage, perfect presence of mind in the midst of the most startling dangers, the tenacity of will which does not accept defeat, the power to infuse his own heroism into others, and the common sense which fully comprehends the problems of a field of conflict not too large to be within the scope of actual vision. Accomplishments of every sort may adorn the soldier, but the characteristics which make success sure in the larger positions that are still subordinate, are those which are thus indicated; and all these Hancock had in a remarkable degree.

He had another trait which was by no means so common as one could wish. He was cheerfully and heartily obedient to those placed over him in command. His was no perfunctory obedience which was willing to do only the thing commanded. He took in the full spirit of his orders, and was willing to go any length in making their execution a success, without sticking in the letter. This gave him the solid place in the confidence and esteem of Grant and Meade which was repeatedly and strongly attested by them.

The warm affection which Gen. Walker feels for his former commander is the natural outgrowth of his war-time relations to such a man. A young staff-officer in the military family of such a soldier would naturally worship the man whom he followed; and when the kindness of heart of the chief and his generous qualities added a sincere personal affection to admiration and loyal attachment, the junior's sentiments would become almost filial. Whatever would seem excessive in the praise which is lavished, becomes thus additional evidence of the noble qualities which could rouse such devotion in the heart of one whose keen and critical intellect has been distinguished in multifarious fields of investigation and administration.

Perhaps a word ought to be said, by way of helping to hold level the scales of historical justice, in relation to Meade's order sending Hancock on the 1st of July to the field of Gettysburg to assume command over Howard, the senior in rank. We are told that in three or four less prominent cases Meade did the same thing. Whether one or several, such orders were illegal in fact, and in an instance arising later, when Sherman issued a similar order with an arrangement by which it was amicably submitted to the War Department, Gen. Halleck announced the decision which explicitly declared that in such a case the senior among the corps or other commanders has the legal right to command, unless the President shall by special action order otherwise. By no implication could the power be exercised by a general in the field. The military hierarchy is fixed by the articles of war, which are part of the United States statutes. The special assignment permitted to the President not only must theoretically be exercised by himself, but was in fact uniformly so done, in a long series of orders of similar tenor to that by which Gen. Hancock received his assignment as corps commander, which gave him precedence over other major-generals not so assigned. They were issued from the War Department "by direction of the President," published "by order of the Secretary of War," and signed by the Adjutant-General of the army.

On the question of fact, whether Hancock did actually exercise any authority over Howard, the statements of the two officers are conflicting, and the disinterested testimony seems to reduce it to a question of form more than of substance. Gen. Walker was absent by reason of wounds received before that time, and therefore does not speak as a witness.

The author is also very frank in notifying his readers that, having published a history of the Second Corps, it has been almost a necessity that he should make free use of this material, adding, however, whatever might be needful to make a full biographical sketch of the striking figure which has the chief place in both books. The story of Hancock's administrative service in New Orleans, his relations to Andrew Johnson's Administration, and his own candidacy for the Presidency, is all told with admirable candor, and the narrative retains its attractiveness to the end. The habit of dealing with census statistics, and of seeking close logical form for the expression of reasoning in economics, has not deprived the author of the power of making a vivid and most effective narrative, full of color and of deep feeling.

My Study Fire. By Hamilton Wright Mabie. Dodd, Mead & Co.

THE faults of manner of this second series of Mr. Mabie's abbreviated essays are largely due to the conditions of their production. Their quality has obviously been adapted to the quality of the audience to which they are addressed, and they suffer in consequence, as the actor suffers who is compelled to play long and constantly to undiscriminating houses. If the groundlings could have been left out of account, and Mr. Mabie had been always stimulated by the consciousness of ears quick to sift the easily fetched paragraph from the genuinely and individually developed thought, the most glaring defects would, there is reason to believe, have been absent from his work. He would presumably have been more chary of generalizations—about the "Attic Greeks," for instance; he would probably never have written such sentences as that about "the tumultuous music of a virile song," and others of its kind; and he would, it is likely, have been more on his guard against quoting authors and others in the heterogeneous fashion of the country people who open a Bible at random to find a text suited to any emergency. More careful trains of reflection—if not a sense of humor—would, there is little doubt, have prevented the putting together of Theocritus and Froebel as twin authorities, or would have made impossible a ridiculous medley like that produced by citing, within the space of ten lines, "Phidias or Pericles or Plato," George MacDonald, Socrates, and Hamerton.

To what the essays teach, on the other hand, no exception need be taken. A writer performs a valuable service when he persistently and plainly tells a restless and excitable generation of readers that intervals of withdrawal from external rush and hurry are essential to their soul's salvation; that without periods of solitude and silence there can be no true mental culture; that "there is something in us which even our ideals must respect, and that something is our own individuality." He is as timely as he is frank when he insists that "to rush wildly with the maddened throng after Browning for one short winter, to be diverted the next season by Ibsen, is to carefully destroy all hope of coming into real contact with either of these writers"; and he shows himself in advance of most of his contemporaries when he tells them that "the eternal charm of beauty lies in its complete severance from all trace of work." Moreover, he becomes not only a profitable, but an uncommon, companion to most readers when his pages suggest, if they do not explicitly say, that it ought to be possible to enjoy the society and even appreciate the wit or wisdom of individuals, without first discovering them to be labelled in large letters as having appeared in print, been prominent in movements, or exhausted a specialty.

Two of the most thoroughly attractive essays in the volume are the first, "The Book and the Reader," in which Mr. Mabie reveals, in a highly agreeable style, the variety and resources of his own mind; and a later one, "A Poet of Admiration," in which a brief sketch is given of the life and verse of Arthur Hugh Clough. Here, instead of the circuitous round, through Mlle. Scudéry, Howell, and Thackeray, which introduces, for instance, "The Lowell Letters," we have the subject presented so directly, with so much vividness and relevancy, that it is the more to be regretted that it is the only paper in the collection which Mr. Mabie has chosen to treat in just this way.

Across Asia on a Bicycle. By Allen and Sachtleben. The Century Co.

THE mere title of this little work shows that we have to deal with a remarkable journey. It is certainly extraordinary that two young Americans should have undertaken, as soon as they had graduated from a university in Missouri, to complete their education by a trip around the world on their bicycles. Of this trip by far the most difficult and interesting part was their ride across Asia, and they have done wisely in confining their narration to that portion of their experiences, though the story is well enough told to have made us glad of a bulkier volume. Starting from Constantinople, they rode across Asia Minor, Persia, Transcaspia, entered China at Kuldja, then crossed the Gobi Desert and the whole empire to Pekin and Tientsin, where the natural conclusion to their adventures was an interview with Li Hung Chang. They overcame mountains and deserts, suffered many hardships as well as occasional breakdowns, and, though they did much walking, seldom availed them-

selves of other means of conveyance than their bicycles. The chief incident not in direct pursuance of their journey was an ascent of Mt. Ararat, which is well described. The little volume in which they relate their experiences is an example of simple, unassuming narrative, while the few general reflections thrown in here and there are unusually sensible. What the travellers underwent is told in such a quiet, matter-of-fact way that one is in danger of forgetting the extreme difficulty of their achievement. Next to the qualities of courage, endurance, and good temper that they must have been continually called upon to show, their success was chiefly due to the boldness and novelty of their enterprise, which excited the curiosity and sympathy of both Europeans and Asiatics, even in China, where—

"Had we been travelling in the ordinary way, not only these favors might not have been shown us, but our project entirely defeated by local obstructions, as was the case with many who attempted the same journey by caravan. To the good will of the mandarins, as well as the people, an indispensable concomitant of a journey through China, our bicycles were after all our best passports. They everywhere overcame the antipathy for the foreigner, and made us cordially welcome."

There are not many people who could and would make such a trip, nor very many who would describe it so modestly if they had done so. The illustrations selected from our wheelmen's photographs are profuse and interesting.

Henry of Navarre and the Religious Wars. By Edward T. Blair. Lippincott. 1895.

THIS very beautiful volume is refreshingly free from all pretence of scholarly merit. It is a simple narration of the fortunes of the very interesting personage who stands at the centre of all the schemes of French parties during the later period of the religious wars. It frankly places the personal element in the foreground, and makes love affairs, court intrigue, and jealousy of quite equal importance with the deeper movement of politics. The same lack of scientific interest is seen even in the treatment of the numerous illustrations with which the book is embellished. Here was a capital opportunity for reproducing contemporary work after the fashion of the Germans, but, instead of this, we have chiefly photographic representations of modern paintings of the "ideal" sort. To crown this childishness, not one of these paintings is furnished with so much as the name of the artist.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe. 1895. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Baldwin, Prof. J. M. Mental Development in the Child and the Race. Macmillan. $2.60.
Beach, C. F., Jr. Commentaries on the Law of Insurance. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $12.
Bolton, Mrs. Sarah K. The Inevitable, and Other Poems. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Collins, J. C. Essays and Studies. Macmillan. $3.
Cowell, E. B. The Jātaka; or, Stories of the Buddha's Former Births. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Dowden, Prof. Edward. Poems by Robert Southey. [Golden Treasury Series.] Macmillan. $1.
Esclangon, A. The French Verb Newly Treated. Macmillan. $1.25.
Fetter, Norman. Handbook of Equity Jurisprudence. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Glazebrook, R. T. Mechanics: An Elementary Text-Book. Cambridge: University Press: New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Halle, Ernst von. Trusts in the United States. Macmillan. $1.25.
Harris, W. T. How to Teach Natural Science in Public Schools. 2d ed. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50 cents.
Hughes, Rev. H. P. Essential Christianity: A Series of Explanatory Sermons. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Jusserand, J. J. A Literary History of the English People From the Origins to the Renaissance. Putnams. $3.50.
Kitson, Arthur. A Scientific Solution of the Money Question. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Klenze, Camillo von. Deutsche Gedichte. Henry Holt & Co. 90 cents.
Lansdell, Rev. Henry. Chinese Central Asia: A Ride to Little Tibet. 2 vols. Scribners. $5.
Macaulay and Carlyle on Samuel Johnson. Henry Holt & Co. 40 cents.
Malthus, T. R. Parallel Chapters from the First and Second Editions of an Essay on the Principle of Population. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Massey, Susanna. God's Parable, and Other Poems. Putnams. $1.
Mason, James. The Art of Chess. London: Horace Cox.
McDonald, Donald. Sweet-Scented Flowers and Fragrant Leaves. Scribners. $1.50.
Meinhold, Wilhelm. The Amber Witch. London: David Nutt; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Pendleton, Louis. The Sons of Ham: A Tale of the New South. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Phillpotts, Eden. Some Every-day Folks. Harpers. 60 cents.
Raymond, Walter. Tryphena in Love. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Raymond, Prof. G. L. Pictures in Verse. Putnams. 75 cents.
Reinach, Théodore. Textes d'Auteurs Grecs et Romains relatifs au Judaisme. Réunis, traduits et annotés. Paris: Leroux.
Roberts, Morley. The Degradation of Geoffrey Alwith. Chicago: C. H. Sergel Co. 50 cents.
Saint-Pierre, Bernardin de. Paul and Virginia. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Sargent, Lieut. H. H. Napoleon Bonaparte's First Campaign. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Satterlee, Rev. H. Y. A Creedless Gospel and the Gospel Creed. Scribners. $2.
Schreiber, Th. Atlas of Classical Antiquities. Macmillan. $6.50.
Scollard, Prof. Clinton. Ford's The Broken Heart. Henry Holt & Co. 40 cents.
Seidel, Heinrich. Leberecht Hühnchen und Andere Sonderlinge. Boston: Schoenhof.
Shiel, M. P. Prince Zaleski. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Skeat, Rev. W. W. The Student's Chaucer: A Complete Edition of his Works. Macmillan. $1.75.
Sorauer, Paul. A Popular Treatise on the Physiology of Plants. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
State Education for the People. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.25.
Wallace, A. Popular Sayings Dissected. F. A. Stokes Co. 75 cents.
Warden, Florence. Kitty's Engagement. Appletons.
Wildenbruch, Ernst von. Harold: Trauerspiel in Fünf Akten. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 40 cents.
Young, Mrs. Virginia D. "Beholding as in a Glass." Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Zévort, G. La Peinture sur Etoffes. Paris: Librairie de *l'Art*.

BY THE AUTHOR OF
THE PRISONER OF ZENDA,
A MAN OF MARK.
A Tale of a Revolution in the Republic of Aurelaland, South America, by ANTHONY HOPE. Narrow 16mo, Buckram, with Frontispiece by Wechsler, 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 14, 1895.

The Week.

CONGRESSMAN SAYERS, chairman of the committee on appropriations, has prepared the usual comparative statement of the appropriations of the last Congress and of the two preceding ones, Mr. Henderson of Iowa making a similar presentation in behalf of the Republicans. According to Mr. Sayers, the totals are these:

Fifty-first Congress.....	$1,035,680,109
Fifty-second Congress..	1,027,104,547
Fifty-third Congress....	990,338,691

Mr. Henderson's figures agree with those of Mr. Sayers as to the Fifty-second and Fifty-third Congresses. As to the Fifty-first, he makes the amount $988,417,183. Thus, according to Mr. Henderson's showing, the billion-dollar Republican Congress was a little less extravagant than the billion-dollar Democratic one, but the difference is not sufficient to carry a stump orator very far. The principal item in all these tables is that of pensions, which were in round numbers:

Fifty-first Congress.....	$288,000,000.
Fifty-second Congress.....	335,000,000.
Fifty-third Congress.....	293,000,000.

Mr. Sayers shows that the last Congress authorized no new river-and-harbor works, although it was obliged to vote $20,000,000 to meet old contracts, and that while voting $23,000,000 for the new navy on old contracts, it authorized only $8,000,000 of additional work. In the way of new buildings, it authorized only $5,660,000, of which $4,000,000 was for one building at Chicago which was indispensable. The Fifty-first Congress authorized $8,000,000 for new buildings. Mr. Henderson, on the other hand, considers the diminution of appropriations by the last Congress both deceptive and cruel, having been due to a slackening of zeal in pension work. If this work had been pushed with the zeal displayed by Corporal Tanner and his successor in office, the amount called for would have been $20,000,000 greater than it was, and the appropriations would have been the largest of any Congress since the war.

Assistant-Secretary Curtis denies officially the statement published on Friday that the Treasury Department was dissatisfied with the gold deliveries of the bond syndicate under their contract for the supply of coin. It takes so much time to contradict lies in the newspapers, especially those relating to the sale of bonds, that it would be well for Congress to create a new office—that of third assistant secretary—to attend to that business exclusively as long as we have a public debt. He ought also to be put under the civil-service rules, and not be liable to removal with a change of Administration, because experience and alacrity in detecting and exposing fallacies affecting the national finances would be worth millions to the people every year. The Boston *Herald*, for example, says that the "gold payments by the present syndicate are made with much greater slowness in the present settlement than in either of the other adjustments of bond purchases." This is a fallacy. Although not exactly a lie, it has all the effect of one because nine readers out of ten will assume that they are too slow for the public good, and a majority will think that the syndicate are not living up to the terms of their contract. Both of these lurking suggestions are deceptive. Mr. Curtis contradicts both when he says that the amount of gold already deposited on the foreign account is in excess of the contract requirements, that, all told, the syndicate is ahead of its agreed deposits by some $9,000,000, and that the withdrawals of gold by the public since the contract was made have not been in excess of those which are usual at this time of the year. Consequently the fact, if it be a fact, that these gold payments are made more slowly than some former ones, is of no more consequence than the eclipse of the moon or the backwardness of the weather.

The serious risks which the syndicate taking the last Government loan had to face have been steadily decried by our light-hearted financiers of the press and by the lee-shore wreckers. No risk at all, they have affirmed. The loan was certain to go off like hot cakes. Anybody could get $30,000,000 of gold in London by whistling for it, and as for preventing gold exports, nothing could be easier for a person who really gave his mind to it. But the organs of the investing world of London thought differently. The *Investors' Review* broke into ribald laughter when it read of the President's simple-minded belief that the syndicate could control foreign exchange as it had contracted to. Did these American "babes in political economy" imagine that "a compact of this or of any kind with financiers can circumvent the operation of a natural law"? The *Review* was going to have the gold back again as fast as it was shipped here. But two months have elapsed, and not a dollar has been exported. The syndicate has done, so far, exactly what it agreed to. It has not violated any natural law of trade, because it is a natural law of trade that you can prevent gold exports if you are willing to sell bills at a loss. This is what the syndicate appears to have done. On the general question of the loan the *Review* said:

"In the circumstances the British public ought not to relieve the finance houses of a dollar's worth of the 'coin' $62,317,500-loan sold to pay the buyer-syndicate about 3¾ per cent. on the 8th February, and if our insurance companies take it they will rue the day. A United States loan issued abroad under the conditions now dominant there—and to all appearance likely to continue dominant—would be dear at 5 per cent."

Comptroller Eckels contributes to the March number of the *Forum* a timely article on the currency question, the main feature of which is that the Government's legal-tender notes must be retired and cancelled, and that this reform must precede every other. He considers it an encouraging sign of the times that so many men in public and private life are willing to take a positive stand on this question and to work for the promotion of sound principles of finance. We consider it an encouraging sign that the comptroller of the currency himself is fighting for the retirement of the greenbacks. Probably all of his predecessors in office have been of the same mind as Mr. Eckels, but the circumstances under which they administered their offices having been those of an abundant gold reserve, and hence of comparative tranquillity, the time was not favorable for a crusade against the greenbacks. It is favorable now, and Mr. Eckels sets a good example by improving the opportunity.

Lodge's article in the *Forum* on "Our Blundering Foreign Policy" has not the advantage of his pretty map in red and blue, with which he awed the Senate week before last, but it equally exemplifies kindergarten methods of instruction. Children, and, we had thought, children only, need to be told with so much solemnity that bad men are not nice, and that it is a shame not to tell the truth, respect one's parents, and love one's country. This is the burden of his remarks, which will certainly encourage all true patriots by showing them that we have at least one Senator who boldly says he is in favor of everything that will make our country good, great, and glorious, and is unalterably opposed to every public measure that is, directly or indirectly, pernicious and unpatriotic. Lodge plaintively objects to having "Americanism" like his put in "quotation-marks and treated as an opprobrious and dishonoring epithet." But what are printers to do? Must they violate, at Lodge's demand, not only every international law, but every rule of punctuation as well? It is the ordinary rule to put quotation-marks about any word used in an odd, affected, or ludicrous or mysterious fashion; and as long as Lodge's "Americanism" continues to be used in that way, it will get the "double-quotes" every time in all well-regulated printing-offices. It is all very well for him to go to war with Great Britain, but is he ready to take

the responsibility of quarrelling with a proof-reader?

Over another matter connected with the exigencies of printing does the Senator stumble. We refer to the necessity of getting a magazine article in type long before it is finally published. This exposes the writer to the peril of asserting things which he himself and the public find out, too late, to be the things that are not. Thus Lodge affirms in his article that "we have done nothing to check the continued aggressions of the British upon the territory of Venezuela"; but almost on the very day the statement appears it is given the lie by the publication of the Government's annual volume on foreign relations, which shows that the Venezuela boundary dispute has "had Mr. Bayard's unceasing attention," that "his persistence has modified Great Britain's attitude considerably, and that the long controversy is in a fair way to reach a termination satisfactory to all concerned." One thing is certain, if the controversy is settled, it will be passed by hereafter in as stern silence by Lodge as the Mosquito protectorate is, as the successful Chinese and Japanese treaties are. If any miserable un-American critic says this is distinctly unfair and a blunder in a great historical writer, the triumphant answer is ready for him, How can you better expose "Our Blundering Foreign Policy" than by making big blunders yourself?

Senator Morgan, in the intervals of promoting international hatred and bloody wars, is a tender-hearted philanthropist. In an address delivered last January before that ridiculous pro-slavery survival, the American Colonization Society, he expanded his noble breast in sympathy for the oppressed of all the earth. He had his eye particularly on the Armenians, whom he would have emigrate to this country *en masse*. To make room for them he would send all the negroes to Africa, much as he would hate to "give them up," sorely as his "heart would be lacerated if the negroes should go back home." But "there must be partings in the world," and Senator Morgan would arrange the partings and arrivings as follows:

> "I would march a grand procession across the Atlantic Ocean, bearing banners and torches, and singing the songs of rejoicing, composed of five millions of Armenians, and as they come from one shore I would have another procession going from our shores, composed of five millions of negroes returning to their homes. If any man can produce, even out of the most fervid imagination, a picture brighter or happier than that, which stands within the very touch of reality, let him rise and do it. Oh, how proud I would be to contribute my aid in forming that grand procession! How would the nations then again distribute themselves; the Africans bearing our civilization into the Dark Continent, and the Armenians bringing the light of Christianity as it first shone upon the altars, where it can never be extinguished, into this beautiful Christian republic of ours."

We hesitate to set our fervid imagination against the Alabama Senator's, yet we can easily conceive a brighter and happier picture than his. It would be a procession, which he could powerfully contribute his aid in forming, of all the blatherskites and burlesque statesmen out of the Senate, with or without banners and torches, and a procession into it, to take their places, of an equal number of honest and serious legislators. We should be willing to put it to popular vote tomorrow (the negro and Armenian vote barred), which spectacle would awaken the greatest general rejoicing.

Mr. Scott, the corporation counsel, did a public service last week when he declared, in the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, that the low tax-rate of last year about which Gilroy made such a clatter was fictitious, or, in plain language, a fraud. Mr. Fitch, the Tammany comptroller, was obliged to admit that this was the fact, and the president of the Department of Taxes and Assessments, Mr. Barker, was obliged to acquiesce in the same view. It is only a few weeks since Gilroy sailed away to Europe, giving tongue to the last to the old Tammany lie about the low tax-rate, the wealth of New York, and the blessings of Tammany rule. Everybody connected with the Gilroy administration knew it was a lie. As matters stand to-day, nobody knows what the income from the tax levy will be, but of one thing there is no doubt, it will be far from adequate to meet the expenses of the government. That is a Tammany legacy to the city which the taxpayers will have to pay. Next year's tax-rate will have to be raised to meet the deficit, and when it is announced, there will be a great Tammany uproar about the cost of reform rule. It is a great pity that the author of the tax-rate fraud was allowed to get out of the country without a thorough investigation. Enough has been revealed about him already to show that as the one Tammany statesman with a "business record" he was the most blatant deceiver of the whole gang, and if his record in the Public Works Department, both while at the head of it personally and while he had "Mike" Daly at its head as his dummy, could be gone into, we should doubtless discover why it is that he is able to be travelling in Europe for an indefinite period.

A most commendable plan for useful public work for the community between elections has been formulated by Good Government Club O. It is based on the belief that municipal reformers should take a kindergarten lesson in municipal duties before venturing to instruct others, that they should acquire a rudimentary knowledge of the portion of the city in which they live before attempting more ambitious duties embracing the whole community, and that this knowledge should embrace all city departments, beginning first with the housekeeping or street-cleaning of the home district. The first step of the plan is to divide the Fourteenth Assembly District, in which the club is situated, into sections, election districts, and blocks, placing each block in charge of a person living on it, and requiring him or her (for women are to share in the work) to report upwards through assistant inspectors, inspectors, and section leaders to the chairman of the executive committee, who shall make the final report to the head of the Street-Cleaning Bureau or other city department responsible for the work under consideration. It would be difficult to conceive of a more useful field of activity for a Good Government club than this. The idea is to have the work so divided up among many, and so thoroughly systematized, that quick reports can be made and the results placed in the hands of the municipal authorities without delay. Club O intends also to send out circulars to the residents, relative to city ordinances, and instructions for the children of the district to report to their parents concerning rubbish, etc., in the streets, and thus educate the youth of the district in habits of cleanliness. The street-cleaning commissioner will be only too glad for coöperation of this kind, for not only will it help him in educating the public in regard to papers and rubbish in the streets, but it will enable him to put his finger more quickly upon delinquent subordinates in his department who are not properly attending to their duties.

The debate in the English Parliament on Thursday on the non-payment of the Bering Sea claims was temperate and wholly devoid of accusation or reproach, yet it was of a kind not calculated to increase our national pride. Not only was no provision made by Congress for paying the claims, but none was made for carrying out the alternative proposition to have them arbitrated according to the decision of the Paris tribunal. When the House, under the lead of Hitt and Cannon of Illinois, voted against paying the lump sum of $425,000, Secretary Gresham sent to the Senate committee on appropriations, where the deficiency bill was pending, an estimate for $50,000 to pay the expenses of the court of arbitration, which was the next step required by the tribunal. Such an amendment was reported by the committee. When it came up in regular order, Senator Sherman moved to substitute the sum of $425,000 in order to have done with the whole business, as he believed that it would be cheaper in the end, and that it would save the principle of arbitration from a damaging blow. Mr. Sherman's motion was supported by Senator Platt in a moderate tone and by Senator Hoar vigorously. At this critical moment the Jingo Senator from Alabama (Morgan) arrived on the scene. He had been absent when Senator Cockrell reported the $50,000 amendment

for the Court of Arbitration. Morgan at once began speaking against both propositions and in favor of an entirely new plan, that of a congressional investigation of the claims. In the course of this speech he reached the limits of Jingoism by accusing Great Britain of an intention to pay the money out of her own pocket in order to establish a moral claim on us for the money at a future time. When Senator Cockrell saw that this dreadful man was going to talk the session out, he cut the matter short by withdrawing his own amendment, which carried with it the Sherman amendment. So we stand before the world with a distinct blot on our 'scutcheon. We have not only refused to pay the sum which our own Government judged to be reasonable, but we have refused, or at all events failed, to take the next step, which we agreed to take. We promised in the most solemn manner to do one of two things, and we have not kept the promise. This may be high fun for the Jingoists; but Americans who visit Europe this year will perhaps not carry their heads quite so high as they usually do.

The latest champion of bimetallism in the English Parliament, Mr. Everett, amused the House of Commons much the other day by enforcing and illustrating the mystic character of silver and the divine purpose in lodging it in the earth. This sacrosanct nature of silver has been abundantly described already. In 1873, when the silver agitation first began, it was asked with much force, Why did the Hebrew patriarchs use silver in their daily transactions? Why, for instance, did Abraham pay for the cave of Macpelah in that metal if its use was not divinely ordained? And it has been more recently pointed out that, though the increasing spread of scepticism in the guise of science, falsely so called, has made its rôle in Hebrew history seem of less account, nevertheless a decent regard for ancient traditions and sacred beliefs requires that it should still be treated with a certain reverence. Mr. Everett undertook to show, and showed, that it is not necessary to rest the claims of silver to this reverence on the Bible or the Talmud; that its place in the currency of the world is part of the order of nature; and that in trying to make it a subsidiary coin, or throw it out of circulation, we are fighting against the forces of the universe. For says he:

> "The two metals [gold and silver] had been linked together in the speech of man and had been devoted to the same common use. There was a remarkable duality in nature. Red wheat and white wheat was used for a common purpose. The Creator had given us two eyes for the common purpose of sight and two ears for the common purpose of hearing, and we were created of two sexes [laughter], which only fulfilled the highest functions of their being by union in marriage."

He might have pursued the analogy much further had it been necessary. Two feet, two hands, the common use of horses in pairs, two oxen to the plough and the wagon, twins among children, two paddles to steamers, brown and loaf sugar, domestic and imported clothing, bicameral government, are all proofs that duality runs through nature with an unceasing purpose.

The Spanish Government was interpellated in the Cortes on Thursday respecting the attitude of the United States towards the Cuban revolt. In reply it was stated that our Government was faithfully discharging its duties as a neutral, and was, in fact, taking extraordinary precautions to prevent the organization of expeditions in this country to assist the Cuban revolutionists. All this is as it should be, yet it is no wonder that some Spaniards are ready to question our good faith. Senator Call of Florida introduces a resolution every year to annex Cuba. He does it, it is true, with a wink to the Key West cigar-makers, but the wink is not visible across the Atlantic. Senator Lodge chooses this happy occasion to say that Cuba will soon "become a necessity to us." This is the language of a highwayman, to whom the traveller's purse is equally a "necessity," and is to be had by means as honorable as those Lodge seems to have in mind. But the Spaniards do not understand that the grave Massachusetts Senator thus advocates international piracy with his tongue in his cheek, despising the silly voters whom he thinks to fool by his braggart words. With all the raging of the reckless Jingo press and our valiant Senators, it is reassuring to know that the Administration has no sympathy with filibusters or buccaneers. Whether the same could have been said of the Administration four years ago is highly doubtful.

A new argument for French colonial enterprises has been found. They are to fill up the rapidly decimating ranks of French servants. "Will you tell me," said a minister a few days ago to one of the most renowned of France's African soldiers—"will you tell me what good your Sudan is ever going to do us?" "Certainly," replied the general; "it is going to furnish you, twenty years from now, with the only people who will deign to black your boots or cook your meals." It is no doubt true that the servant question is getting to be almost as burning in the land of a fixed social hierarchy and traditionally well-trained domestics as in happy-go-lucky America. We have seen letters of great Spanish ladies complaining of the sudden insolence of their ancient retainers; the wail of the poorly served is audible in France, and what sort of democratic bees are buzzing in the heads of English servants may be inferred from such realistic pictures of them as 'Esther Waters.' The new French idea of meeting the difficulty seems likely to be the next resort of distressed civilization. It was anticipated some years ago by a comic paper which pictured the coming servant in the person of the Esquimaux maiden who would not object to sleeping in a cold room, the Zulu damsel who wouldn't mind a heated kitchen, and the other *Calibans* and *Audreys* of the ends of the earth who would fardels bear and groan and sweat in our behalf. But it is clear that this remedy could be only temporary, as the passion for equality and fraternity would surely, in time, reach and pervert the blackamoors as it had their predecessors before them. Whichever way we look at it, the future for civilized man looms dark and servantless. Sir William Harcourt told lately of a duke whose affairs were in desperate shape and who got a man to look into them. It was found that he had three high-salaried French chefs, and it was suggested that he might get on with two. But the duke rebelled, and plaintively said to his creditors: "Surely, you will let me have a biscuit when I want it." As things are going we shall all have to be content with a biscuit or a crust before long, as the trouble is swiftly spreading in all ranks of society, from a dustman down to a duke, as they now say in Parliament.

The reply of Prince Hohenlohe to the Reichstag on the subject of a new silver conference was made in writing and was very carefully worded. "Without prejudicing," he said, "our imperial currency, one must confess that the differences in value between gold and silver continue to react upon our commercial life. Following out the train of thought which led to the convocation of the Silver Inquiry Commission, I am ready to consider, in conjunction with the federal governments, whether we cannot enter into a friendly interchange of opinions as to common remedial measures with the other states which are chiefly interested in maintaining the value of silver." This, as the London *Economist* points out, is in no sense different from the position taken by Germany in the Brussels conference, for, although she declined to take part in the discussion or the voting in the conference, she might have taken part in both, as England did, without changing her determination to adhere to the gold standard. The situation in Germany is this: The landowners are in despair because prices of cereals are low. They think that a change in the standard of value might help them. The manufacturing and commercial classes, whose products fell in price some years ago, are now well pleased to see the prices of agricultural products come down. They are opposed to any tinkering with the currency. The Government is not obliged to do what the Reichstag wants any more than President Cleveland is obliged to do what the House of Representatives wants. It should be observed that President Cleveland is not authorized, in any event, to take part in a new conference for "a friendly interchange of opinions," but only for one to take positive steps for international bimetallism.

PARTY DISCIPLINE AND APPROPRIATIONS.

THE customary wrangling and recriminations over the appropriations of Congress are now well under way. In the press and in the supplementary issue of the *Congressional Record*, one set of party leaders assert that they have been wise and economical, while also patriotic and generous, in voting money for Government purposes, while another set assert that the appropriations were never so extravagant and wasteful, and at the same time so poorly adapted to make the country great and majestic at home and abroad. Chairman Sayers affirms, and adduces the figures to prove, that the appropriations of the Fifty-third Congress were below those of the Fifty-second by $36,000,000, and below those of the Fifty-first by $45,000,000. On the next page Mr. Henderson, for the minority, affirms, and adduces *his* figures to prove, that the appropriations of the Fifty-third Congress were greater than those of the Fifty-first by $31,000,000.

There is nothing new about this, and we refer to it only because it exemplifies once more the state of hopeless chaos in which American public finance continues to flounder. Nothing like it is to be seen in any other civilized country. One set of men are put to the work of levying taxes to raise the public revenue, and another set, separate and irresponsible, vote it away. The first set are not allowed to lay revenue taxes pure and simple, and if they were, would not know how much money to provide, as there is no way of guessing in advance how much money will be spent. The set nominally in control of the spending—that is to say, the chairmen and the majority members of committees—are not really in control, as they are subject to constant raiding and overruling by the mob of log-rollers and grabbers into which the House always resolves itself in the last two weeks of its life.

This was especially conspicuous in the last hours of the Fifty-third Congress. Chairman Sayers and his faithful lieutenant, Mr. Dockery, protested and appealed, stormed and threatened, but all in vain. Party lines went to pieces, and the responsible leaders of the House were ridden down again and again as by a charge of infuriated bisons. Notably was this the case with the sugar-bounty vote. Mr. Dockery put the case as strongly as possible. The Government revenues were short $110,000,000. To sustain the gold reserve $150,000,000 of bonds had been issued. Yet in this fiscal situation the House was coolly asked, in the closing hours of the last day of the session, to vote away a gratuity of $5,238,000. The strongest leaders on both sides were against it. Mr. Reed was against it, and Mr. Cannon and Mr. Payne—that is, the next Speaker, the next chairman of the appropriations committee, and possibly the next chairman of the ways and means committee. But the gratuity was voted in a mad rush, the most telling, and at the same time the most shameless, argument in favor of it being made by Mr. Beckner of Kentucky, who said:

> "I know, Mr. Speaker, how prone the public men of the South have been to construct out of material claimed to be found in the Constitution breakwaters against the gulf stream of governmental expenditure, so that its warmth and vivifying powers may be confined to the North, but in this case all sections are interested; and, while it is on my mind, let me warn my Southern friends that they can overdo what in a remarkable degree would be highly commendable. The younger generation are looking with eager eyes and yearning hearts on the industrial and commercial movements which have made the East, the Middle States, and even the new West so prosperous and rich. They are impatient over the quibbling about constitutional phantoms which obstructs the development of the dear South land for which nature has done so much."

It should be noted, too, that the evil is a growing one, and that the old barriers in the House and Senate rules against the warm and vivifying gulf stream of governmental expenditure have been deliberately broken down. When the chairman of the appropriations committee had complete charge of all appropriation bills, he was able to make a better fight against the spendthrifts. Mr. Randall was for years, as such chairman, the terror of jobbers and schemers, and used, in fact, to be able to keep something like unity and reason in the system. He could say with a good measure of truth, as he did at the close of the Forty-sixth Congress, that "every description of undue appropriation of public money has been prevented." But the jobbers and the schemers soon put an end to that. In 1883 the river and harbor committee was given a free hand for its log-rolling raids upon the Treasury, and, pleased with the results of that move, the yearning and eager seekers after appropriations succeeded, in 1886, in taking away from the appropriations committee the army bill, the naval bill, the consular and diplomatic bill, the post-office and Indian bills. Is it surprising that the expenses began to leap up? A similar throwing down of the bars is now proposed in the Senate. Mr. Gorman used his power as member of the committee on appropriations to strike out some $3,000,000 from the wasteful naval bill, and instantly a Senator gave notice that he should move to have the appropriation bills broken up in the Senate as they have been in the House. Divide and conquer, is the motto of the raiders.

To state the perils of the system at their worst, it must be added that the old motives for public economy are disappearing or have disappeared. Said Mr. Dockery, when protesting against one particular largess:

> "If I read aright the public sentiment of the country as it is reflected in the daily press, if not on this floor, the people of the United States will call to a severe account their representatives who, in times of pressing distress, with thousands of laborers out of employment, with widespread industrial paralysis, approve the policy proposed by this bill."

But he was very much mistaken. There is no evidence of a widespread desire for frugality in government. The hard times are only a new argument for lavish appropriations—the more needy people there are, the greater the call for warm and vivifying sums out of the public treasury. The Governors of half-a-dozen States have had to send special messages to their Legislatures this year warning them against the alarming extravagance of the appropriation bills. Provided a fair share of the swollen appropriations reach the eager and yearning in his district, a Representative will get but the warmer welcome from his constituents if he goes home with a consistent record for approving public extravagance.

But while this is so, the urgency of devising some means to prevent legislatures and Congress from bankrupting the country is great, on partisan as well as patriotic grounds. No party can safely see its leaders in the House trampled upon by a mob of needy and unprincipled jobbers. The numbers of the latter are all the while increasing, as are also their audacity, their skill in conspiracy and intrigue. As a measure of self-preservation, then, party leaders must find some way of keeping them under. A thorough-going remedy it is idle to hope for. To ask irrational men to adopt a rational system is to cry in the wilderness. Other civilized governments themselves take exclusive charge of revenue and appropriation bills. To suggest that at Washington would have no more effect than an east wind blowing over the capitol. Equally futile is it to talk of amending the Constitution so as to allow the President to veto separate items in an appropriation bill. That method works admirably in many State constitutions, but that would be an argument against it with the Washington politicians.

A tentative and practicable remedy might be found in extending party discipline to appropriation bills. They might be settled in a party caucus, and subordination required to the responsible chairmen as a test of party loyalty. This is done now in the matter of electing a doorkeeper or a chaplain, or of passing some partisan bill; why should it not be done in the matter of conducting the public finance? A precedent in point could be found in the government of towns in some States, where the sums to be voted for town expenses are settled in party primaries and then submitted to the voters. The appeal should be made to party responsibility and party discipline; that is often practicable where an appeal to reason and experience is not. In some way American parties must take in hand our headless finance. Their own existence as well as that of the Government is threatened by the increasing throngs of lobbyists and log-rollers who sit in Congress in the guise of legislators, and

whose swinish rush for public money is becoming more disgusting and dangerous year by year.

A SILVER PARTY.

An address has been signed and published calling for the formation of a new party, whose principal aim shall be the "immediate return to the constitutional standard of gold and silver, by the restoration by this Government, independently of any foreign power, of the unrestricted coinage of both silver and gold into standard money, at a ratio of 16 to 1, and upon terms of exact equality; the silver coin to be a full legal tender, equally with gold, for all debts and dues, public and private." The signers declare emphatically that there is no dependence to be placed on either of the old parties. On this point they say:

> "There is no hope whatever that the Republican party, as a party, will change its policy, give up the gold standard, and restore the bimetallic standard. The Republican party is committed by its leaders, by its record, and by the press behind it, to the gold standard, supported by gold bonds, and to the retirement of the greenbacks and the surrender of the issue and control of paper currency to the banks."
>
> "No less persistent and effective is the control of the money power over the organization of the Democratic party. While undoubtedly a large majority of the members of that party are opposed to the gold standard, they have been powerless to control the party organization against it, and much less to secure through it the restoration of the bimetallic standard."

Another address has been issued simultaneously, signed by R. P. Bland, W. J. Bryan, and twenty-nine other Democratic members of the last Congress who have failed of reëlection, urging all Democrats to make the money question the paramount issue, and to endéavor to place the Democratic party on record in favor of the "immediate restoration of the free and unlimited coinage of gold and silver at the present legal ratio of 16 to 1, without waiting for the aid or consent of any other nation, as it existed prior to 1873; such coin to be a full legal tender for all debts, public and private."

This is a political programme that we have ardently desired to see carried into effect. It is now nearly twenty years that the country has been harassed, and political parties wrenched, and the national resources wasted by the silver question. This question has been only a side issue, but has nevertheless embarrassed both parties from the beginning. It has embarrassed the Democrats more than the Republicans, and is likely to embarrass them in still greater degree. A considerable number of leading Democrats are now in favor of an outright declaration for free coinage in order to head off the new party. The Republican silverites are not of this desperate kind. Of the Colorado and Montana members it may be said that their bark is worse than their bite. They will threaten and bluster up to a certain point and then they will surrender. Such Senators as Teller and Wolcott have no idea of disrupting the party. In this particular they are squarely at issue with the Nevada Senators, who are already members of the new party. The proposition for another monetary conference came from Wolcott and was stoutly opposed by Stewart, who described it as a new attempt to dodge the issue and to stave off a decisive battle in this country for free coinage. We think that Stewart's diagnosis is the true one, and that it applies to both parties alike. The eagerness with which the Democrats welcomed it was quite suspicious.

Now the interesting question is whether Bland, Bryan, and the other tailless foxes can make a sufficient break into the Democratic party to make it an out-and-out silver party, or whether they will merely succeed in attaching themselves to the Populists. In the latter event they will be stigmatized as deserters and their career will be short. Mr. Bland's maximum achievement will be to deliver the State of Missouri over to the Republicans, and not only to fail of the senatorship himself, but to defeat Vest also. This result is as likely to take place in 1896 as any really doubtful thing in the range of politics. Mr. Bryan has accomplished the same thing in Nebraska, but it was an easier thing to do, because that State is naturally Republican.

One way or the other—either by putting a new party in the field or by putting the Democratic party on a free-coinage platform—it is to be hoped that the issue may be squarely made in the next Presidential election. The question must be fought out. The old dodges and devices of buying a little silver to stop the mouths of a few people will no longer serve the purpose. It is time that the people should say whether they want a fifty-cent dollar or not. It is time that they should say it in plain words, and not by obscure phrases in national platforms and by nominating men whose positions are known just as Mr. Cleveland's was known in 1892, and as Mr. Bland's is known now. An attempt will be made by the "boomers" of McKinley to push the tariff to the front, but it will hardly succeed, because the tariff is not the uppermost thought of the people, and because the position of McKinley on the silver question would expose the party to losses in the Eastern States. Everything points now to the kind of battle which the silverites have issued the challenge for. Let us hope that it may not be postponed beyond 1896.

JOURNALISTIC DEMENTIA.

The effect of wealth on the journalistic mind is a subject of considerable pathological interest which we commend to the attention of the Academy of Medicine. The condition of excitement into which the press has been thrown during the past fortnight by the marriage of one rich woman and the divorce of another, in fact seems hardly distinguishable from a species of dementia. Unlimited space is given up to both events, and the illustrations include portraits of the entire families of the plaintiff and defendant in the divorce suit, and of the various houses which they inhabit. The particulars of the divorce suit, too, are discussed in one paper as the "biggest divorce suit ever known in the world," and pointed out as particularly interesting to the brakemen on a railroad from which one of the parties draws his income. It must be remembered, too, that this stuff is greedily read by all classes; and if we were to infer the character of the population from its consumption, using the standards supplied by ordinary life and by other kinds of literature, we should say that the United States was inhabited exclusively by servant-girls, 'longshoremen, and hackmen. Upon the effect of such compositions on the youth who are pouring out every year from the common schools we need not comment. This is probably not yet fully visible, but it will become more and more so as the years roll by.

It is not their indecency that is their worst fault; it is their unutterable silliness and vulgarity. One who knew no better might fairly imagine that a lot of vicious boys had got hold of the press, and were amusing themselves with bringing civilization itself into ridicule. The most marked feature of these compositions, in fact, is their puerility. Nobody who was not accustomed to them would suppose they were the work of grown-up people. Childish hilarity, irreverence, and, we may add, childish inventiveness, are their leading characteristics.

What is most curious about this press problem is, however, that it is apparently insoluble. The silly youths who run this great machine—only a handful, after all, in number, and objects of more or less ridicule when they show themselves *in propriâ personâ*—seem to hold this great nation in a kind of slavery. The press is, to the vast mass of the town population, at all events, an object of dread and dislike. We have heard denunciations of its mendacity and inquisitiveness from people of all classes and conditions. But no mission set before the American people seems more hopeless than escape from it. The exclusion of the British from this continent, the provision of a sound currency and good banking system, the purification of the suffrage, and the abolition of the spoils system, all seem easy and practicable compared with the reform of the press. Clergymen preach about it, magazine writers write about it, and it is a common topic of conversation at nearly every social gathering in the land. There is hardly any one, rich or poor, who has not suffered from "the newspapers," and especially those who have passed through some notorious sorrow or misfortune. Travelling Americans hang their heads for shame when they see an American newspaper in a foreign reading-room. They hang them still lower when it is thrust into their hands on the wharf when they return to their native land.

But nobody seems able to suggest any

remedy, and, what is worse, the grumblers over the wicked journals are often their most diligent readers. One too often finds that the bitterest denouncers of the bad newspapers are familiar with everything they contain every day, repeat their gossip, enjoy their "digs," and especially the bits of blackguardism with which they annoy decent people. Here is the root of the evil. There is no surer reflex of the popular taste than journalism. It may be asserted that every country has the kind of newspapers it calls for. It is through this cranny that the proprietors of blackguard newspapers effect their escape. They say they furnish only what the community calls for, and show their "sales" and their fortunes in proof of the statement. Of course there is always a certain action and reaction going on between the public and the press. The press in some degree creates the tastes which it gratifies, and the journalist's plea that he only publishes what he knows he can sell, might be set up by the vender of obscene literature. But the main fact remains that the public gets the kind of press it wants, and which it could kill or discourage if it chose.

For the press there are certain excuses which, while they do not solve the problem, are worth consideration. Fewer and fewer able young men go into it as a calling, owing to the absence of all prizes in it and the insecurity of tenure. It is recruited largely by men who shrink from the early drudgery of the regular professions, or desire to step rapidly into a salaried place, or enjoy the variety and excitement of a journalistic life, or the power of secretly bombarding or annoying their seniors. Most of these men begin in the reporters' room, which, as generally managed, is the grave of seriousness and truthfulness and high ambition. Moreover, the proprietors, in catering for a salacious and frivolous public, as they consider it, do not encourage young men who are burdened with thoughtfulness or attainments. They want the livelier, more unscrupulous and imaginative kind who "write up" the divorce cases and pursue the rich into their bedrooms. Yet it is from the ranks of these youngsters that the editorial places are filled, and by the time the young journalist reaches his place he is apt, in good truth, to look on the world as a stage, and the men and women on it as bad actors, and humanity itself, with all its hopes and fears, as simple "copy." It will thus be seen that the press problem is mainly an economical problem. No other calling would be better off which offered no more prizes or security, and in which personality was so completely suppressed, and tyros enjoyed power in no way dependent on their experience or capacity.

THE PROGRAMME OF THE UNIONISTS.

THE combination of Tories and seceding Liberals in England, commonly known as the Conservative party, shows a disposition to change its name. Many of its members now habitually speak of themselves as Unionists rather than as Conservatives, and it must be admitted that the latter title has ceased to be altogether appropriate. It is true that this party may claim such conservatism as is implied in the maintenance of the House of Lords, the Established Church, and the present terms of union with Ireland; but the welfare of society consists of weightier matters than these. Concerning these weightier matters there are now decisive indications that the Unionists are about to offer to the country a policy so far removed from conservatism as to make it obviously expedient and becoming to drop the name.

This is manifest from the recent utterances of Mr. Balfour in commendation of Mr. Chamberlain's scheme of social reform. It is even more positively established by the declarations of the Duke of Devonshire, a statesman hitherto distinguished for moderation. Mr. Campbell-Bannerman, he said, had objected to the new Unionist policy of social legislation that no one could tell that the Unionists were all agreed. "We are all agreed," said the Duke. "There is not one of the great national interests at the present moment in the condition in which we could wish it to be. Agriculture, after all, our greatest national industry, has never been in such a condition of depression, and manufactures and industrial interests are rapidly sinking into the same condition. The mining and manufacturing interests of this country are gradually sinking. . . . We ask Parliament to address itself to the task of considering measures for the improvement of the condition of the people—measures which need not necessarily injure a single man, rich or poor, but which we hope may and will produce some improvement in the condition of the poorest and most suffering of our fellows."

He must indeed be hard-hearted who would refuse to benefit his fellow-creatures in this inexpensive manner; but the practical question, how this can be done, at once suggests itself. The Unionists, it seems, have now agreed upon their answer to this question. There are three principal measures by which they propose that Parliament shall improve the condition of the poor. The first of these is a system of old-age pensions, the Government furnishing money to encourage workmen to accumulate their savings. The second measure is to secure to workmen as a matter of right "that in all cases in which they suffer from accidents or injuries received in the course of their employment, they themselves and their families shall be fairly provided for." This provision is to extend to injuries due to a man's own fault. And the third measure provides that Government shall advance money to workmen to enable them to purchase dwellings.

As to the second of these measures, as we understand Mr. Chamberlain's explanation of it, employers are to be required to provide for workmen who are injured in their employment. In view of the sinking state of all English industries, as described by the Duke of Devonshire, it is incredible that employers can provide for this increased expense out of their profits. To say that these industries are sinking is but another way of saying that normal profits can no longer be obtained in them. If this is true, the additional expense to which employers are to be subjected can be met only by a corresponding reduction of wages. The measure would therefore be properly described as one for compelling workmen to insure themselves against accident. It would be interesting to observe the reception of such a programme as this by the English workman, but it is improbable that the matter will be presented to him in this way. He will be assured, more or less openly, that the rich are to be made to pay for his insurance, and that they ought to do so. While there is nothing more laudable than the prudence and regard for others displayed by the man who sacrifices a portion of his enjoyments in order that he may insure against casualty, no civic virtue is promoted by compulsory almsgiving. It curses both him who gives and him who takes. If the scheme contemplates insurance by Government, it will give rise to as much fraud as our pension laws. Those who are familiar with the business of insurance will testify that the greatest vigilance is necessary in order to prevent the companies from being ruined by fraudulent claims on the part of the assured. Against such claims no government can be defended with any degree of success. Shocking as it seems, it appears to be true that large numbers of people are willing to mutilate themselves for a pecuniary consideration.

The system of governmental insurance against injuries is also open to the criticism which applies to the other two measures. If Government is to pension old people and to lend money on real estate, it can procure the means to do so only by increasing taxes. If these taxes are paid by those who get pensions, it is evident that they are compelled to sacrifice a part of their wages for this purpose, as well as an additional part to cover the waste and expense of the tax-gatherers and disbursers. As it is contended that workmen are unable to save sufficient provision for old age out of their wages, it is evident that the advocates of this scheme really contemplate getting these taxes out of the pockets of those who are not to receive its benefits. In a word, pensions are either to be paid for by those who get them, in which case the scheme is simply one of compulsory insurance, or, since this supposition is excluded by the assumption that workmen are not able to save for this purpose, they are to be paid for by the rich. It can hardly be regarded as self-evident that such measures "need not necessarily injure a single man, rich or poor." They have a potentiality of mis-

chief far beyond what can be here indicated.

In our judgment the Unionist programme would be greatly improved if it were reduced to one single measure. Let Parliament simply pay to every workman a daily or weekly stipend amounting to one-third or one-half of his wages. This would enable workmen to provide pensions, accident insurance, and dwellings for themselves, and such provision might be made compulsory. Moreover, as the Unionists argue, this would have no tendency to discourage providence and industry, since they defend their own measures on the ground that they are meant to "help" men to save; the theory being that public almsgiving can do no harm to those who are able to earn something for themselves, provided, of course, the gift is not called alms. We are very well aware that this experiment was formerly tried in England. All industries, that of agriculture especially, were then "rapidly sinking," and it was decided that the insufficient wages of the poor should be supplemented by allowances out of the rates. It is true that experience proved that this measure had the effect of reducing the rate of wages by the amount of the allowance, so that the workman received no higher wages than before; and if we were to be guided by experience, we could not escape the conclusion that the measures now proposed will have the same result. But modern legislators appear to have little interest in the lessons of experience, and even in England, the home of conservatism, the conservative spirit is, for the present at least, overborne. We cannot but regard it as ominous that this country, which maintained and gave to the world the great principle of resistance to governmental encroachment upon the liberties of the subject, should be threatened with socialistic oppression. As to the Unionists, it is in the highest degree discreditable to them that they should be willing to seek power by surrendering the defences of society to the Radicals.

TOWN GOVERNMENT IN MAINE.

BRUNSWICK, March 6, 1895.

THE best examples of the old form of town government in New England are naturally to be found in those communities which, in virtue of their small population and remote situation, stand somewhat aside from the great industrial and social movements of the time. It is amid such surroundings that the traditions of the elders are most faithfully preserved; and it is this type of community which has most often been described. There is, however, a type of town government different from this, to which much less attention has been given, yet which has in some respects a greater interest for students of political institutions. It is represented by those towns which, with population and wealth sufficient, according to the usage of the State in which they are situated, to entitle them to incorporation as cities, still keep to the old form of government in many of its essential details, and with no manifest desire to exchange it for another. Though in important respects primitive social conditions have given way to the demand for modern necessities and conveniences, the modifying influence of increasing numbers and diversified interests has as a whole been quietly and successfully resisted. Such a town is on the one hand far removed, in most of its characteristics, from the simple country community; on the other hand, it is not yet overgrown, and the town meeting, the governing body, has not yet been broken down by the presence of a body of voters too large for orderly and concerted action.

Such a town is Brunswick, Maine. First settled in 1628, and incorporated as a town in 1738, it has for the past fifteen years enjoyed the distinction of being the most populous town in the State. Like most of the seacoast towns of Maine, it is of very irregular form, with an area of perhaps fifty square miles. Of its six thousand inhabitants, one-third are French Canadians, drawn hither by the various factories and mills which have grown up about the falls of the Androscoggin. All but about five hundred of the inhabitants live in "the village"; and there is almost no foreign population other than the French. In 1894, the valuation of the town, "full, fair, cash value," as the annual reports take pains to state, was $3,514,436; the ordinary town expenses for the same year were $57,120, one-fifth of the taxes being paid by the corporations doing business in the town. "The village" is provided with water, gas, and electric light, and a sewerage system is being constructed. The public schools (the French children largely attending a parochial school), including a free high school, are among the best in the State; and there is a free public library of about six thousand volumes. The voters number about twelve hundred, although of the two thousand French less than a hundred and fifty vote. The three hundred and forty-five students of Bowdoin College add a considerable temporary population for several months in the year; and probably not far from $100,000 is annually expended in the town by the students and others connected with the college.

Although having a larger population than any other town in the State, Brunswick shows no desire to become a city. At least three attempts in this direction have been made, the last being in 1892; all have failed. There are but twenty cities in Maine; eight of these had each in 1890 a smaller population than Brunswick, and one of the remaining twelve exceeded it by only sixty-three. There are, of course, those who would prefer to see a mayor and council displace the selectmen, but with the great majority of the people the present conditions are entirely satisfactory. Yet it is manifest that the community presents, in population, industry, and wealth, many of the conditions which characterize the smaller cities of New England, and which are often thought to make a city organization, if not necessary, at least more effective. I looked forward, therefore, with interest to the annual town meeting, in which the business of the town for the coming year was to be discussed and arranged.

The annual meeting this year came on Monday, the 4th of March, and at a quarter before nine o'clock the bell on the town building rang out its summons to the citizens. The town hall is a large and not unattractive room, with a gallery in the rear, and the usual scenery and footlights on the stage; it will seat a thousand people, and has to do duty for all sorts of public assemblies. The day opened cold and blustering, and when, promptly at nine o'clock, the town clerk mounted the stage and began the reading of the warrant, there were exactly fifty people scattered about the room. The reading finished, ballots were taken for moderator and town clerk. The first of these officers received six votes, the second ten. Both were declared elected, and at once administered the oath to each other. The moderator was a prominent lawyer of "the village," and presided throughout the day with ability and acceptance. A short prayer by a retired minister resident in the town followed, and then the important business of the forenoon, the election of town officers, began.

During the previous week Democratic and Republican caucuses had been held, and had put in nomination lists of officers which were identical except in the three candidates for selectmen (one most commonly hears of *selectmen* in Brunswick). An attempt to organize a citizens' caucus had failed, although a "split" ticket appeared on Monday. Neither of the caucuses was largely attended, nor were the leading citizens very numerously represented. On Monday "straight" tickets seemed to be the rule. The polls remained open until one o'clock, at which time 712 votes had been cast. The number of votes was 114 less than last year; but this year no special effort was made to secure a large vote, and the cold weather doubtless kept away many from the country. Within the hall everything went on in a quiet and orderly manner. But few of the voters remained after depositing their ballots, though a few of the older men, some of them as genuine rustics as one could wish to see, sat on the hard benches the greater part of the forenoon, attentively studying the reports of the town officers and school committee, which had been printed in neat pamphlets and distributed. I formed the impression that these reports were more widely and carefully read than are similar documents in the smaller cities. Nearly every man I met had copies, and I heard them discussed in shops and stores, in the post-office and at street corners, as well as in the town hall.

The only offices over which there was any contest were those of selectmen, and here the Republican nominees won. The selectmen serve also as assessors, overseers of the poor, and surveyors of highways. The other principal officers—treasurer, collector, auditors, town agent, town clerk, and school committee—are usually reëlected year after year, following the good old New England custom. The "village" naturally gets the larger share of the offices; this year it has two of the three selectmen, all of the school committee, and all the other offices mentioned above except the town agent, an officer whose duty it seems to be to care for the legal interests of the town. As the compensation of the town agent last year was only $10, it may be inferred that his duties are neither numerous nor burdensome. I was told that it was customary to choose the moderator from the village, and that several of the college professors had at various times served in that capacity.

The popular interest of the day centred in the afternoon session. The voters were reinforced by a large number of students from the college and high school, who crowded the rear of the hall and watched the proceedings with evident interest. The moderator displayed considerable skill in expediting business, ten of the twenty-five articles in the warrant being disposed of in less than an hour. Most of the minor town officers were given another term, among them the time-honored measurers

of wood and bark, surveyors of logs and lumber, fence-viewers, fire-wardens, and surveyor of shingles and clapboards. This part of the proceedings called out but little discussion; indeed, the vote on the adoption of each article was in most instances scarcely audible. The usual appropriations for town expenses were made without opposition, the amounts voted being in two or three instances in excess of those suggested in the annual reports. A statement from the public-library association to the effect that the appropriation of last year would need to be doubled this year if the library was to remain free to all residents of the town, was favorably received, and the amount asked for, one thousand dollars, was promptly voted. The library was made free only a year ago, and an increase from one hundred to nine hundred in the number of persons taking out books was convincing proof of popular satisfaction with the experiment.

One item of business before the meeting was "to see if the town will vote to accept a U-shaped town-way over land of D. B. Blethen on the west side of the Twelve Rod Road." The moderator explained that the way in question was not shaped like the letter U, but in reality formed three sides of a rectangle; and in proof he displayed a small plan of the locality. The acceptance of the road was achieved without opposition, and the next article was about to be taken up, when some one raised the momentous question as to what and by whom the new road was to be named. It then appeared that there were three streets in the locality, which the owner of the land had expressed a desire to name respectively Columbia and Belmont Streets and Central Avenue. A dignified gentleman was moved to ask the length of the street which it was proposed to call Central Avenue; and on being told that its length was twenty rods, provoked loud applause by remarking dryly that the proposed name seemed to him "somewhat ambitious." The town finally decided to name the new highway South Spring Street, because it was in line with a Spring Street in another part of the town, which might some day be extended.

Under the influence of the discussion over the new road the hitherto rather frigid assembly had thawed perceptibly, and began to show interest in what was being done. One or two requests for electric street lights were granted, the town listening attentively to brief arguments by several men who "drove a good deal," to the effect that several accidents had occurred either from the absence of lights at the points named, or because existing lights were badly placed. One light asked for was granted on the statement of the deputy sheriff that the locality was "a hard place," and that an electric light would make things easier for the town police—a suggestion which seemed to imply the existence of an embryonic slum.

The interest of the meeting reached its climax in connection with the proposed discontinuance of the liquor agency. Under the Maine liquor law, each town or city may, at its discretion, establish an agency for the sale of liquors for medicinal, scientific, and mechanical purposes. In 1894 the town meeting voted to request the selectmen to establish an agency in Brunswick, the town having been for several years without one; the agency was accordingly opened, and the annual report showed sales for the year amounting to $1,700. The reading of the article in the warrant referring to the agency was hardly finished before a loud chorus of voices burst forth, and half-a-dozen men were on their feet calling for recognition. The minister who at the morning session had thanked God for the "high moral character" of the town, obtained the floor, and, producing a manuscript, read from it a vigorous denunciation of the liquor traffic in general and the agency in particular; but his rhetoric and enthusiasm played havoc with his argument, for he presently dropped the subject of temperance, and devoted the larger part of his address to a glorification of Brunswick, Bowdoin College, and the chief justice of the United States. Although listened to with impatience, and frequently interrupted by applause from the crowd in the rear of the hall, there was nevertheless no disposition to deny him the right to speak as long as he chose. The short speeches in rebuttal were rather the best of the day, the last speaker, a blind man, bringing down the house as he urged his demand for an agency on the ground that he was tired of being lied to by all the druggists in town. The article of the warrant was adroitly worded: it was "to see if the town will vote to discontinue the liquor agency"; and there was doubt among some of those present as to the precise effect of a vote not to discontinue, since the maintenance of an agency is optional with the selectmen. The moderator was interrogated, but vouchsafed only evasive answers. By an overwhelming majority the town voted not to discontinue the agency. The episode illustrated very well the unfortunate tendency to make the mention of liquor the occasion for joke and jest, and also the plain wish of the people for a place at which liquor could be legally purchased.

I was disappointed in the general character of the public speaking throughout the day. With one or two exceptions, none of the speaking was good, and most of it was noticeably poor. Of course, no one nowadays would look for oratory in a town meeting; but the speaking on Monday was distinctly inferior, in simplicity, readiness, and effectiveness, to what may be found in many smaller communities. In this respect, at least, the old order has passed away.

The town meeting this year was an average meeting; that is to say, there was no great political contest to bring out the voters, and the warrant contained few items of special interest. The occasion was favorable, therefore, for observing the ordinary and usual conduct of the town business, and in particular the fitness of the town meeting for its work. I came to the following conclusions: The population of Brunswick is not yet either so large or so heterogeneous as to make town government inefficient or the town meeting unmanageable. The affairs of the town are well and economically administered, political corruption is unknown, and such political favoritism as exists is not at the expense of the public service. The town reports are extensively read and freely criticised. The centring of political control in the hands of a few men, most of them residents of the village, undoubtedly helps to simplify and expedite business. The French or foreign vote is small, but intelligent and appreciative, and, while naturally Democratic, is not cast as a unit for either political party. Non-political officers are reëlected year after year, practically without opposition. The town meeting remains as of old the event of the year, is well attended, and appeals forcibly to the young men of the community. A few men in the town meeting do most of the talking, but the measures passed have virtually unanimous approval. To sum up, the modifications in the old town system have been political rather than administrative, and while these changes are in the direction of more rigid party control, they have not yet interfered with a management of town affairs which is at once effective, economical, and pure.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

THE OPENING OF PARLIAMENT.

LONDON, February 26, 1895.

THE session has opened with a preliminary battle several times renewed and marked by incidents of great interest. The Government met Parliament with a nominal majority of 32, reduced during the recess to 14 by the formal defection of the 9 Parnellite members. The former majority of 32, none too large, was rather nominal than normal, because the attitude of the Parnellites was always unfriendly, and their support, often withheld, was tolerably certain only during the progress of the Irish Home-Rule Bill. The majority of 14 has been increased to 16 during the debate on the address, by a Liberal victory at Colchester. So small a majority, besides being an abiding element of danger, invited a repetition of the tactics which were pursued by the Opposition when the Liberals came into power after the general election of 1892. The old custom was for the Opposition, if they felt strong enough, to challenge the Government by moving an amendment to the address which was in terms or by implication (more often in terms) a vote of no confidence or of censure. It was done once and no more at that stage. But in August, 1892, the Opposition, believing that the Liberal majority of about forty contained elements of disintegration, delivered a series of assaults, led mainly by Mr. Chamberlain. These failed, and the Government was left materially stronger.

The same thing has happened again. The feature of the case most damaging to the Opposition has been that the unsuccessful attempts to dislodge the Government have been based on organized combination with groups to whose principles the Conservatives profess a strong antipathy. The Parnellites were, of course, available without any formal treaty. Then a dexterous attempt was made, by dangling the question of the unemployed, to detach from the Liberal Left the votes of a few members strongly sympathetic with labor distress, and not averse to socialistic experiments. That was the nature of the first amendment proposed by Mr. Jeffreys, member for an agricultural district in Hampshire. As it first appeared, it was a complaint of a familiar Conservative type, that the Government were neglecting agricultural depression. But, after consultation with Mr. Balfour, it was extended so as to include the question of the unemployed. The amendment was defeated by 12, nearly the full majority which the Government could reckon on. But the result was exhilarating to the Opposition and depressing to the Liberals, as it showed for the first time in black and white how slender an advantage in the House the latter possessed.

Next, Mr. Redmond, the Parnellite leader, moved an amendment calling for a dissolution on the question of home rule for Ireland. It was supported by the official Opposition, led by Mr. Balfour, but was defeated by a majority of 20. There were a few Conservative abstentions.

Then came the official Opposition amendment, which was intrusted to Mr. Chamberlain. The substance of it was, that the Government were bound to disclose their policy with

respect to the House of Lords, instead of wasting Parliamentary time on bills which they did not expect to pass. It was defeated by 14. The debate had then lasted a fortnight, and there were still several amendments on the paper. Sir William Harcourt moved the closure, which was carried by only eight votes, a few Liberals voting against it. This was a significant fact. In the face of the systematic obstruction which they may look for, it will be difficult for the Government to get through their tasks without a pretty frequent application of the closure, and the division last week illustrated the well-known fact that the closure is a weapon to wield which effectually requires a stronger majority than the Government can command.

The debate on the address was remarkable for two parliamentary duels—one between Mr. Goschen and Sir William Harcourt on Mr. Jeffreys's amendment; the other between Mr. Chamberlain on his own amendment and Mr. Asquith. The speeches of the leader of the Opposition were not remarkable throughout the long debate, so it came about that the fighting was done by champions both of whom were once prominent on the Liberal side. It is impossible to be impartial in such questions, but I believe that the general impression was that the advantage in both cases remained with the Government. In Mr. Chamberlain's case, that result was so conspicuous that it was freely admitted by a large portion of the Unionist press.

The situation for Mr. Goschen and Mr. Chamberlain was a difficult one. Mr. Goschen found himself defending the interests of the landlords in the country and the voluntary schools with "convulsive emotion," as Mr. Asquith happily described it. Mr. Goschen's attitude on those questions was once very different. His speech was an eloquent one, in spite of the tone of exaggeration and the almost theatrical delivery which are growing upon him, without, however, weakening his oratorical power when he is at his best. Mr. Chamberlain again rose to expound views on disestablishment in Wales, on the House of Lords, even on Ireland, diametrically opposed to those which a few years ago he preached in striking phrases which still cling to the memory of the House. The speech was not one of his best, and it met with a crushing reply from Mr. Asquith which substantially raised his high reputation as a debater. In strength, directness, precision, and closeness of reasoning he resembles Mr. Chamberlain himself, while his style has greater variety, felicity, and interest. The position of two quondam Liberals who have gone over to the Unionist camp is one which has been defended over and over again, and its difficulties are little calculated to dismay either Mr. Goschen or Mr. Chamberlain. But it did happen that on this occasion they were confronted with their own past more sharply than the House can remember to have witnessed, and in a fashion that was damaging to the Opposition attack.

The address over, the Government might have expected to be in smooth water, at least for some weeks to come. A new danger, the most threatening of all, appeared when Sir Henry James moved the adjournment of the House to discuss the new Indian cotton duties. The finances of India have been for some years in an unsatisfactory position, mainly, as is generally believed, in consequence of the adverse exchange arising from the steady depreciation of the silver rupee. Revenue cannot be made to cover expenditure. The country is poor, the salt tax is already onerous, and any increase of direct taxation in other directions is declared by the Indian Government to be impossible; they have long asked for the consent of the Home Government to reimpose an impost duty on cotton goods, which existed till 1882, but had been condemned by votes of the House of Commons in 1877 and 1879. The request was long refused, but at length the present Secretary of State for India, Mr. Fowler, carrying out a conditional promise made by his predecessor, Lord Kimberley, sanctioned a 5 per cent. impost duty, but insisted at the same time on the imposition of a corresponding excise duty on the higher qualities of cottons, in which alone the very considerable Indian cotton industry comes into competition with Lancashire. In the coarser qualities Lancashire no longer competes to any appreciable extent with the native manufacture. So far as the previous decisions of the House of Commons were concerned, the new duties were defended on two grounds, first, that the duties had been condemned as protective duties, a grievance which the excise duty would redress; secondly, that they were condemned in terms only because at the time they were unnecessary in the financial situation of India, whereas they were now indispensable to the solvency of the Indian Government.

The Lancashire trade viewed the innovation with the utmost jealousy, and of the Lancashire members (more than forty, I think, in number) a large number, including a good many Liberals, were pledged to oppose the duties, while nearly all, under pressure from their constituents, were more or less hostile to them. In these circumstances there was a large Liberal defection at the disposal of the Opposition if they chose to join in the attack as a party, and when the day for Sir Henry James's motion arrived, the defeat of the Government was regarded as extremely probable, and the Government would not view the question as other than vital to their continuance in office. The intentions of the official Opposition were not disclosed, but they issued an urgent whip to their followers. During the day, some of the more respectable organs of the Conservative press dissuaded their leaders from taking advantage of the opportunity. Others never mentioned the subject at all, not knowing what advice would be palatable. In Liberal circles, after the experience of the divisions on the address, in which the Opposition leaders had not been too much hampered by scruples, it was pretty generally believed that the Opposition would not resist the temptation of throwing out the Government. It was thought that Mr. Chamberlain would strongly press for it, and that Mr. Balfour would not resist it. He is not the man to set on foot a political intrigue, but his cynical *insouciance* leads him into partnerships, as in the cases I have narrated, which, at least in the eyes of his opponents, do not appear worthy of him.

The result, however, was different. Sir Henry James has subsequently stated that the movement was promoted solely by the Lancashire members, without any concert with the Opposition as such. For all that, the Opposition doubtless considered what use they should make of the opportunity. One possible element leading to the decision not to make it a party attack may be found in the rivalry which is believed to exist between Mr. Goschen and Mr. Chamberlain for the reversion of the post of Chancellor of the Exchequer. Mr. Goschen strongly opposed the motion; but before he spoke, the work had been done. Sir Henry James opened his case with an unfortunate speech, stilted in style and jarring on the House by the reflections which he made on the Anglo-Indian service, which were strongly resented and sharply rebuked on both sides of the House. Mr. Fowler replied in an admirable and convincing speech, which is said to have turned many votes. He brought out the gist of the question, showing how great an injustice we should do to India if, for the sake of fostering a particular industry in England, we prevented India from raising the money which she absolutely requires by duties for revenue purposes, which every one of our self-governing colonies can and does levy without any restriction in amount. The motion was lost by an overwhelming majority.

One result of the Opposition having endorsed the opinion that the Government were neglecting the question of the unemployed has been that a large and strong committee has been appointed to investigate the question. The motion has been made in previous sessions by Mr. Keir Hardie, the Socialist member, but hitherto it has not been accepted, as it undoubtedly goes a certain length in the direction of adopting the avowed principle of the Socialists that the state is bound to find employment for all unemployed men. As it is, the local authorities have by law large powers of undertaking relief schemes. But the present distress is said, by the movers in the matter, to have got beyond those powers. The motion was more difficult to resist this year in consequence of the exceptional distress during the prolonged frost. But the main pressure on the Government arose from the adoption of the complaint by the Opposition for the purpose of embarrassing the Government. It may be an awkward precedent for the Conservative party in the future, and may force them in a direction in which they are not anxious to move. Meanwhile, the committee, which sits daily, evidently finds its task a difficult one.

The Government is left to begin the work of the session in a stronger position than when the House met. Its enemies will be on the lookout for side-issues and surprises like the Indian cotton duties. There are one or two members who sit on the Liberal side whose public utterances justify the suspicion that they would not be unwilling to open a back door to the besiegers. But their good-will in that respect has not been able to find any better expression than personal attacks in the House of Commons, on the Prime Minister in the Lords. It is probable that, after the last three weeks, the Opposition is not so anxious for a dissolution as its organs in the press profess to be, and in the meantime the Liberal party is in as satisfactory a position as is possible with so slender a majority. C. D.

LOUISE OF SAVOY AND FRANCIS I.

PARIS, February 28, 1895.

M. DE MAULDE has used many documents, some of them inedited, in a volume just published, entitled 'Louise de Savoie et François I.: Trente Ans de Jeunesse.' The mother of Francis I., and Francis I. himself, are both very interesting characters. When Francis became King, he left the details of the government almost entirely to his mother and to his chancellor, reserving for himself the occupation and excitement of perpetual wars.

The beginnings of Louise of Savoy, as is often the case with great queens and empresses, were of the humblest; she was the daughter of a poor cadet of the house of Savoy, the Count de Bresse, who spent half his

life in prison. Her aunt, fortunately for her, was the celebrated Anne de Beaujeu, the wife of Peter II., Duke of Bourbon. The child lost her mother at the age of eight years, and was adopted by Anne de Beaujeu. She was married at the age of twelve to Charles d'Angoulême, who was twenty-eight years old. She had first a daughter named Marguerite; her second child was Francis, born on the 12th of September, 1494. The Count had mistresses, and natural children who were brought up with the other children, in the little court of Cognac. "The situation of Louise," says M. de Maulde, "was not without examples, for instance, in the house of Orleans, where Dunois was brought up also by Valentine de Milan." M. de Maulde gives interesting details concerning this little court of Cognac. Count Charles was faithful to the artistic traditions of the Dukes Louis and Charles of Orleans, and of the good King René. His mother, Marguerite of Rohan, was fond of manuscripts on vellum, and several works were dedicated to her.

Louise of Savoy lost her husband in 1496; she was a widow at the age of eighteen. In the same year her father became Duke of Savoy. She remained at Cognac, with her miniaturist Testard, surrounded by several members of the family of Saint-Gelais, one of whom, Octavien de Saint-Gelais, was a poet, whose works are still found in the library of every bibliophile. His translation of Ovid met with extraordinary success and maintained its reputation for more than a century.

M. de Maulde has succumbed to the modern mania for psychological analysis. His chapter on "l'idée du beau" might be suppressed with advantage in a work which professes to be historical. It is clear that the famous influence of the "milieu," which has been used to satiety by Taine and his followers, was no more lost on Louise of Savoy than on anybody else in our time or in any other time. But it is idle, in dealing with a character like Louise of Savoy, to write a long dissertation on "the beautiful." The dominant passion of Louise was ambition; a monk had predicted to her that she would have a son, and that her son would be king. When Louis XII. became king, she left Cognac and was allowed to live at Amboise with her young son. She was not on very good terms with the Queen, Anne de Bretagne, nor with the King. Louis XII. was anxious to have a son, but his hopes were several times disappointed. His health was miserable, and he was in constant danger of a sudden death. Francis, now called the Duke of Valois, was the heir apparent—a fine, strong boy; all sorts of intrigues already surrounded him and filled the little court of Louise of Savoy. The governor of the young Prince, the Maréchal de Gié, was accused of high treason and deprived for a time of all his dignities. The King gave Francis a new governor in the person of the Cardinal d'Amboise. Anne de Bretagne was always trying to find a husband for Louise of Savoy out of France, so as to force her to leave the country; but Louise refused every offer, preferring to remain near her son.

The States-General met in May, 1506, and the betrothal of Francis to the King's daughter Claude was announced at Plessis le-Tours. The young fiancée was six years old. The contract of marriage was read by the Chancellor: Claude received as her dower several estates—Blois, Coucy, etc.; in case a dauphin should be born, she had the promise of a large pension. Great festivities were celebrated, and one of the heroes of the tournament was Charles de Bourbon-Montpensier, the future Constable, the future enemy of Louise of Savoy. Anne de Bretagne long opposed the marriage of her daughter Claude with the Duke of Valois, but finally withdrew her opposition; she had lost all hope of having a son. The Duke of Valois now lived entirely at court, and M. de Maulde describes minutely his mode of existence. Among the young deities of the court, the first who seems to have attracted the attention of the future king was Anne de Graville. She had been celebrated in verse by Octavien de Saint-Gelais, and proclaimed by him—

"Seule, sans per, la plus belle des belles."

Like Louise of Savoy, she was fond of books, of illuminated manuscripts; she was a reader of Boccaccio, of Petrarch; she wrote verses herself. The young Prince made love to another maid of the Queen, to Françoise de Foix, the sister of two men, the Sires de Lautrec and de Lescun, who afterwards became his companions in arms. Françoise de Foix afterwards married the Seigneur de Chateaubriand. Even while paying court to these two ladies, Francis was occupied with women who surrounded his mother.

He was young, ardent, handsome. His features had not yet the exaggeration which is seen in the portraits made of him in after-life. He was passionately fond of dress, of fine accoutrements, of arms, of jewelry. The people compared this tall and strong youth with the old King, who was a constant invalid. In 1512, Anne de Bretagne had a son, but the child died almost immediately after its birth. Everybody already looked on the young Duke of Valois as the next king. He obtained the command of the army of Guienne, and made his first campaign with Odet de Foix, Sire de Lautrec. When Francis attained the age of nineteen, his household had already become royal: he had fifty-eight chamberlains and high officers, a hundred and thirty other officers, ten secretaries, a doctor, four almoners; he pensioned a painter, a sculptor, a miniaturist, and some musicians.

The Queen, Anne de Bretagne, died at Blois on the 9th of January, 1514. The little court of Cognac was much elated by the news. Forgetting all the dissensions of the past, the Queen, convinced that nothing could now hinder her daughter from belonging to Francis of Valois, had confided this daughter and her immense fortune to Louise of Savoy in her will. The poor King said: "Make the vault which will receive my wife large enough for two, for before a year I shall be her companion." Francis began already to play the King: he received all the ambassadors in private audience, he corresponded directly with the Pope, he took part in all negotiations. His extravagance no longer knew bounds; during the year 1514, the expenses of the Duke of Valois amounted to 140,000 livres, worth 3,600,000 francs in our modern currency; and this only for the household, independently of the expenses of the administration of his domains. The King, who had always been discreet and prudent in his expenses, was afraid of giving his daughter, and with her the Duchy of Brittany, to the prodigal Francis; he postponed the marriage, under various pretexts. The dispensation from Rome arrived at last, and the marriage took place, in the strictest privacy, on account of the King's mourning.

Francis was anxious to make a campaign in Italy. He said to the Venetian Ambassador: "The Duke of Bourbon has asked for the command of the Italian expedition; I have told him not to insist, as I want this command myself. The Duke bowed to me and said that he would aspire to the second rank. To this I assent, for he is a man of the first order. The King will have to give me eighteen thousand lansquenets and two thousand lances. With these, victory will be the affair of a week." Meanwhile, peace was signed with England, and one of its conditions was the marriage of the King of France with Mary, the sister of Henry VIII. This news drove Louise of Savoy almost frantic; she became fearful lest her son, after all, should be cheated of the crown of France. It has been said that at that moment she felt a violent passion for the Duke of Bourbon, that she offered herself to him, and that the future Constable received her offers coldly; this legend has never been proved, but, if it was true, it would explain a hatred which had afterwards terrible consequences.

The Duke of Valois had sufficient control over himself to affect great satisfaction with the King's new marriage; he laid all his plans to play a great part in the festivities of the occasion.

"Everything is in suspense," writes the shrewd Venetian Ambassador, "politics as well as the rest; people talk only of festivities. Such are the French. The marriage has been well received; they think themselves already in Milan. They were afraid only of England, and this phantom has vanished. The King repeats constantly that he will lose his life or retake Milan. . . . Unfortunately, nobody thinks of an obstacle which frightens me. To marry a woman eighteen years old, one of the handsome princesses in Europe, it is unanimously said, is for the King a notable change, and most dangerous in his state of health. There is the alarming black spot."

Mary of England deserved her reputation. She was received at Boulogne by the Dukes of Valois, of Alençon, of Bourbon. She had among her ladies Mary Boleyn, the sister of the celebrated Anne, and in her suite Charles Brandon, the Duke of Suffolk. Louis XII. met his bride at Abbeville; the entrance into Paris was a magnificent pageant. The tournament, in which the Duke of Valois appeared, lasted seven days.

"Mary, who saw the handsome Francis in his cloth of gold either in her escort or in the tournament, happened to find him to her taste, and the Prince fell into the trap. It was the first time that love played him such a Machiavellian trick. A courtier who generally was not facetious, but who on this occasion was very serious, saw the danger and did not hesitate to do his duty; he took the Prince apart and lectured him. The question was, was the Prince going to renounce the crown, and did he prefer to bow his head some day before his own bastard?"

The courtier had little success; Francis would hear nothing, he had eyes only for his new conquest. Grignols (such was the name of the courtier) took stronger means; he went to Louise of Savoy. She had not lost her power, and Francis had to abandon his prey. Mary, gay as a lark, very frivolous and light, changed the life of the court. Louis XII. became prodigal; he heaped all the diamonds of the crown on his young wife; he modified all his habits. After a few weeks, he became so ill that he had to take to his bed. When he felt that he was dying, he sent for Francis; he expired on the 1st of January, 1515, during a terrible tempest. Louise of Savoy came at once from Romorantin. Her son was King! Mary declared herself in the family way, but her error, more or less voluntary, was soon discovered. She received a large dower, and the King, who for a moment had been in love with her, authorized her marriage with Suffolk.

Correspondence.

THE DIALECT DICTIONARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Nation* has given some space to the mention of the dictionary proposed by the English Dialect Society, and asked for coöperation on this side of the water for the American material. It is particularly important that this appeal be very widely circulated and meet with widespread and hearty response, if there is to be any adequate representation of American usage in the great dictionary. The English society is over twenty years old; it has in England a much richer and more workable field than our country offers, a larger number of cultured people of leisure to do the work, and a more compact population to form into local branch societies. The American Dialect Society was organized in 1888; it has been from the first maintained chiefly by college men who are professionally interested. The first years have been occupied in work more or less tentative—feeling the way for effective work under the conditions presented by a country comparatively newly settled and having a population comparatively unstable. These conditions are now better understood than at the beginning, and seem to indicate that a lookout should be kept for (1) words and idioms brought by the early settlers, and preserved in the "hill towns" and other places where the population has remained stable; (2) such words and idioms carried to other localities, with possible changes of meaning; (3) new words, or words used in a new sense, formed or adopted to meet new conditions.

The Society has published collections amounting to about 1,500 words, many of which never were printed elsewhere; and there is on hand in manuscript, gathered by various members, or sent in by others, probably as much more, which is now being arranged, and will be printed in due time. There has been from the first much public interest shown, and the number of active members, and the quality of the work they have done, has constantly improved. There is every hope that in good time the membership will increase tenfold, and that means will be found to do thoroughly and systematically the work of collecting for publication most of the dialect usages current in the country; but the English society is ready to prepare its material for the press, and desires to have all we can give them before they print.

Besides the collection of material now going on, an important new line of work is the reading and excerpting of all the dialect matter already printed in this country, and editing it for dictionary use. Besides the books written wholly or partly in dialect, many newspapers, legal documents, old letters, etc., show occasional interesting local usages, and are worth watching. The more active members of the society have been in consultation for some time regarding this work, and ask the coöperation of the public in doing it. So far as it is perfected, the plan may be outlined as follows: A committee of the society will have supervision of the whole work, and decide what books shall be excerpted, and who shall do each one. This is absolutely essential to avoid duplication of work and other waste of energy. All persons who know of any books or other printed matter which they think may be useful, are requested to send full titles, with date and publisher as far as possible, to the secretary, who will take charge of the matter for the present. A list will be made up from these and others already known to the committee, and their value will be examined by competent persons. Those decided upon as important for the work will be assigned to the readers who volunteer. A list of such persons will be kept, and full directions for doing the work will be given with the assignment of the books.

It is desired that each book shall be read, so far as possible, by persons native to the region where the dialect used in the book is current. Preferences expressed as to the choice of work will be regarded so far as possible. The work is likely to be better done if the readers who are within reach of each other are organized into local clubs, working under the supervision of some one who is better informed than the average on the relations of the subject; such a club could be formed, for instance, at almost any town where there is a college or other educational institution, to work under the supervision of the instructor in English. It is intended to hold before long a public meeting in New York with a view to forming one or more such local organizations here. Such clubs can be made headquarters also for the old work of collecting material from the spoken language, and can be kept up after the reading work is done.

New members, and large numbers of them, are greatly needed at once, but collections of material or offers of assistance in the work of reading are always welcome from any source.

E. H. Babbitt, Secretary.

Columbia College, March 11, 1895.

AN AMERICAN REVIEW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am forcibly reminded this week of a suggestion in your columns some time ago in favor of an American literary review. The *Tribune* of the last two Sundays has contained Prof. Lounsbury's review of the Oxford Chaucer by Prof. W. W. Skeat. This edition of Chaucer is the work of the best Chaucer scholar in England; it is reviewed by the foremost American Chaucer scholar, who finds no more suitable medium for the presentation of his criticism than the voluminous sheets of a Sunday newspaper. The incident may fairly be taken as a reflection upon the cultivation of letters among us. Is it a true measure of attainment?

Reviews of high character succeed in foreign countries. Scholarly men and women are naturally attracted to them and by them, and they do a great work in formulating the best opinion on the best subjects. Many of these publications are taken in this country, if not directly into the family circle, at least into our numerous libraries. There is certainly a steady demand—I believe an increasing demand—for sound literature, without pictures to weaken and to cheapen it.

Here is a promising field for the wise expenditure of money. It is a fine thing to found a college for the education of young men or young women. But a philosophical observer might draw some edifying conclusions by contrasting the number of such foundations in the United States with the amount of endowment for individual research, or for special effort in any particular line of advanced scholarship. Moreover, American endowments of this sort have been so far largely in science, with the really brilliant exception of the Turnbull Lectureship on Poetry at the Johns Hopkins University.

We need a literary periodical to seek out and publish manuscripts that now lie idle because they do not appeal to the passing interests of the hour; we need it to withstand the avalanche of easy magazine-writing that descends upon us with such depressing mediocrity and relentlessness; we need it to arrest the degradation of art.

Who will found an American Review?

Mary Augusta Scott.

1507 Park Avenue, Baltimore, Md., March 7, 1895.

THE BOND SALE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Continuing upon the line of my letter published in the *Nation* of February 28, I desire to offer as a logical explanation of the high price obtained by the syndicate for the recent issue of bonds, as compared with that paid by them, the fact that this resale was a transaction between individuals wherein the purchaser had no such advantages as did the syndicate in its sale of gold to the Government. While the Morgan-Belmont people were permitted to reap the benefits of the gold squeeze, I believe it will be found that the Treasury has secured an immunity against gold-hoarding by the public, at least for the present, fully justifying its course. It was our dire necessity upon which the gold men kept their eyes steadily fixed, and most of them have been left gazing upon vacancy. No wonder they were mad.

W. M. Haley.

St. Louis, March 7, 1895.

Notes.

Prof. Wm. H. Goodyear solicits subscriptions, at ten dollars or two guineas, to a forthcoming work of his on 'Optical Refinements, Perspective Illusions, and Symmetrophobia in Medieval Architecture,' involving many unpublished personal discoveries and measurements by this well-known writer on art. As Mr. Goodyear will sail for Europe on April 30 to prosecute his surveys, he desires to be addressed without delay at No. 222 East Sixty-ninth Street, New York.

Merrill & Baker, No. 74 Fifth Avenue, have undertaken an illustrated cabinet edition of the Works of George Eliot, together with her Life by J. W. Cross. It will be illustrated with 120 etchings and "photo-etchings," and will consist of twenty-four volumes, procurable as a set or singly. A large-paper edition is also announced.

Edward Fitzgerald's letters to Fanny Kemble, which *Temple Bar* is publishing serially, will be issued in book form by Macmillan & Co., in a style uniform with their two-volume edition of the letters already published. Meantime they have in preparation 'Louis Agassiz: His Life, Letters and Works,' by Jules Marcou.

Gibbon's Memoirs, edited by Prof. Oliver Farrar Emerson of Cornell, is in the press of Ginn & Co.

Canon Farrar's 'Woman's Work in the Home' is to be published in this country by Henry Altemus, Philadelphia.

The Hartford (Conn.) Seminary Press will publish directly 'Qualifications for Ministerial Power,' by the Rev. Chas. Cuthbert Hall.

Spring announcements by T. Fisher Unwin are: 'The Story of Early Gaelic Literature to the Close of the Danish Period,' by Dr. Douglas Hyde; a new collection of Breitmann Ballads, by Chas. G. Leland; 'Reminiscences

of Richard Cobden,' by Mrs. S. Schwabe; 'Sonya Kovaleski,' by the Duchess of Cajanello; 'Some Ancient English Homes and their Associations,' by Miss E. Hodges; 'Vedic India,' by Mme. Z. A. Ragozin; 'Female Offenders,' by Prof. Lombroso; Spinoza's 'Emendation of the Intellect,' translated by Hale White; 'My Climbs in the Alps and Caucasus,' by A. F. Mummery; and 'Matabeleland,' by Capt. H. S. Norris.

Three more novels in the Waverley series, "International Limited Edition" (Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan & Taylor Co.), bring us, through 'Woodstock,' 'The Fair Maid of Perth,' and 'Anne of Geierstein,' in two volumes each, up to the 45th volume, leaving four yet to come. We are inclined to think that Mr. Lang's task has told upon him as Scott's, in the desperate money-making period, did on him. His introductions to the three works before us have no spontaneity, and are of little value apart from the mention of circumstances or moods connected with the writing of each of the novels. That the same weariness has overtaken the illustrators, we would not affirm, yet they are certainly not approaching a climax of excellence.

The appearance of the new one-volume edition of Chaucer edited by Prof. Skeat (Macmillan) is not on a par with that of the other volumes in the series—whether because it has been manufactured on this side of the water or not, we cannot determine. Nevertheless it is a great boon, and will be the edition most used for reference. In one respect it is better than the large edition, viz., the two forms of prologue to the "Legend of Good Women" are printed in parallel columns without any perplexing attempts at amalgamation.

The lesser "Poole," alias the 'Annual Literary Index,' for 1894, edited by W. I. Fletcher and R. R. Bowker, has just appeared (New York: *Publishers' Weekly*). As usual, it indexes the chief periodicals, 124 in number, giving the writer's name beside each article, if known, and adding a special author-index. It also indexes a certain class of books—collective essays and the like—64 in number. Finally, it describes the bibliographies of the year, and takes note of the necrology. For a clue to current thought and criticism in the English language this work is simply indispensable.

Mr. Wynkoop Kiersted, C.E., in his 'Discussion of Sewage Disposal' (New York: John Wiley & Sons), goes over that subject with especial reference to dilution, irrigation, filtration, and precipitation as methods of sewage disposition applicable to the United States. His little volume, which is intelligently, but not very clearly, written, gives a fair résumé of the subject, and does not presume to assert that any particular mode is the best, "for the most approved method of disposal will invariably hinge upon its natural adaptability to the conditions of the locality in question." It is a discussion of principles, not of details.

In the 'Elementary Properties of the Elliptic Functions, with Examples,' by A. C. Dixon (Macmillan), we have elliptic functions without the theta functions, and without the doctrine of transformations!—the theory somewhat maimed by the one omission, the practical application badly hampered by the other. Yet we cannot say the book will serve no purpose other than that of passing examinations; for the thorough mastery of it will be a key to unlock the more recondite treatises, and will render all casual allusions to elliptic functions in mathematical writings intelligible. It will also form a good introduction to the theory of functions. The limited subject has so much analogy to trigonometry that it calls for little additional exercise of memory. It is pretty itself, and makes trigonometry—that dreadful instrument—to appear pretty. It is given chiefly in the classical forms of Jacobi; but the other avenues to it are described, including the super-modern presentation of Weierstrass (for which, we believe, there are no extensive tables).

'Ideler's Handbuch,' though it appeared as long ago as 1825, remains in use as the standard work on chronology, in general, to-day. In fact, there has been no serious attempt to supersede it. The 'Mathematische Chronologie' of Prof. W. F. Wislicenus (Leipzig: B. G. Teubner) is intended to supplement it. At the time Ideler wrote, not only was the theory of the moon in an imperfect state, but no tables of note had been published to aid calculations in chronology. Since that time, excellent tables by Largeteau, Dankworth, Oppolzer, Schram, and Wislicenus himself, have been calculated for various chronological needs, and this little book is a clear explanation for the unmathematical of every problem of mathematical chronology, with examples worked out by means of the modern tables, the use of which is so lucidly and so fully explained that no sane person can have any difficulty in working with them.

Edmond Biré returns to Victor Hugo in 'L'Année 1817' (Paris: H. Champion). The chapter in 'Les Misérables' which bears the above title forms, the author says, "le clou auquel j'ai accroché mon esquisse." The scores of "historical" facts of which, the reader may remember, this entire chapter is composed, are subjected by Biré to a thorough sifting process, with the result that all, or nearly all, prove to be false or inaccurate. The author's political and religious bias is no less apparent than in his earlier works. The biographical incidents with which this "peinture anecdotique" of the Second Restoration abounds, will prove highly entertaining, to say the least, to the student of Hugo, as well as to the student of the history of the epoch. We must refrain from quoting from M. Biré's pages more than a single *mot* of Mme. de Staël's (who, according to the author of 'Les Misérables,' had been dead a year in 1817!). After listening for more than an hour to Baour-Lormian reading his own translation of Tasso, somebody whispered to her: "It is very fine indeed, but don't you think it rather long?" "Je prends mon plaisir en patience," she replied.

The name of Gustave Larroumet, so familiar to students of Molière, fitly associates itself with the Hugo critics of the past decade. His modest, though elegantly printed, brochure, 'La Maison de Victor Hugo: Impressions de Guernesey' (Paris: H. Champion), opens a vista for psychological speculation not only upon the evident influence of the poet's *milieu* upon his works in the period subsequent to 1852, but also upon the analogy between his poetic creations and style and his tastes and skill in other branches of art. The partiality of the "poète-décorateur" for the grotesque ornaments of Gothic art and Chinese monsters, and his curious passion for, and remarkable skill in, forming out of heterogeneous fragments from diverse sources original new combinations for the embellishment of walls and ceilings in Hauteville House, are especially characteristic.

M. Auguste Devaux's 'George Sand' (Paris: Ollendorff) has had the honor of being crowned by the French Academy. Its easy and flowing style, the picturesque summary of George Sand's life, and the appreciation of her work justify the commendation bestowed, but the booklet is not one of great importance, nor does it form an essential contribution to the literature on this subject.

'À propos de nos Écoles' (Paris: Colin & Cie.) is a collection of speeches and articles by M. Ernest Lavisse, whose name is well known on this side the Atlantic. It is a satisfying book to read, for M. Lavisse is a real educator, who fights unceasingly against routine, formalism, conventionality, official regulation, the tyranny of the examination system, and other evils which weigh down educational work and hinder educational progress in other countries than France. The attempt to put new wine into old vessels, to patch the old cloth with bits of new, to force new generations to submit to antiquated formulas, he denounces on every page; and while we in America are free from many of the disadvantages which he combats, there are truths in M. Lavisse's book which should be taken to heart by many of our instructors, who are instructors only, and in no sense educationists. The truths may prove unpalatable, but they are truths, nevertheless.

The approach of Bismarck's eightieth birthday has evoked a permanent memorial of him in the shape of a quarterly review of German history, art, and life, named after him—*Bismarck* (Berlin: Otto Kirmse; New York: Westermann). It will be illustrated, and every spring a special example will be furnished along with the ordinary embellishments. To begin with, Lenbach's latest portrait of Bismarck, an etching fit to be hung on the wall, will be given.

The *Library Journal* for December, 1894, is full to overflowing with a report of the Lake Placid conference of librarians in September last. No one can read these proceedings without a realizing sense of the strength of library coöperation in this country, and the deliberate part which librarians are taking in the moral elevation of the community. President Larned's opening address has a well-considered warning as to "the magnified potency that is given to all things, good or ill, by the science of the modern man," and hence to "ignorant opinions." "Leagues, unions, federations, associations, orders, rings, form themselves among the restless, unstable elements of the time as easily as clouds are formed in the atmosphere, and with kindred lightning flashes and mutterings of thunder." Among the discussions that deserve attention are those on "home libraries" (circulating-boxes among the poor), the attitude of the libraries towards university extension, and the rôle of the daily newspaper in the library. We remark, also, a summary of library benefactions, July 1, 1893–'94, footing up $1,328,597. A good example of the practical, economic bearing of these meetings is the movement to induce publishers to print special durable editions of popular works for libraries.

Both the moralist and the historian might easily pick flaws in Dr. Wm. Everett's political apology for the late Robert C. Winthrop in the current *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*. But the general tribute is strikingly graceful in form, and the praise of what is to be praised just and discriminating. A good portrait accompanies the article, as is also the case with Mr. Davis's account of Thomas Hollis, one of the earliest and most princely benefactors of Harvard; and the welcome announcement is made that the rich store of canvases of Harvard worthies is to be regularly drawn upon for this magazine. Prof. Hart's mid-year re-

trospect has much of the originality, piquancy, and suggestiveness of President Eliot's annual reports. "It is evident," he says, among other things, "that Columbia, and not Yale, is to be the great rival of Harvard in the higher studies." Both Harvard and Columbia are nearly at a standstill in point of growth of attendance in the arts department. Apropos of the recent appointment of a Publication Agent for the University, Prof. Hart expresses a desire for a Clarendon Press at Harvard. We hope shortly to be able to furnish our readers some interesting details concerning this foundation at Oxford. Prof. Hart gives notice of a forthcoming series of Harvard Historical Studies, to be issued by his department.

M. Édouard Rod, in his quality of novelist, has just had a somewhat curious legal experience. One of his stories was lately reproduced in the *Ami du Peuple*, of Fribourg, and a convict in that town thought that he found in the tale a portrait of himself which lacked reserve. Antoine Maradan his name was, and he had been sent to jail for a seven years' term for attempting to rid himself of a second wife by throwing her into the Sarine. M. Rod had deepened the shadows of his story by attributing to the personage in whom Maradan recognized himself the murder of a former wife. So he brought suit against the author and the publisher of the newspaper, first in the local court at Fribourg, and afterwards, on appeal, at Geneva. He got no damages, all the courts holding that a novelist had an absolute right to take his subjects from real life. With so lax a construction of the law of libel as that one might almost look for a recrudescence of realism.

—*Bibliographica* completes its first volume with Part iv., and two more equally sumptuous volumes are to come (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners). In the notable contents of the present issue, we must confine our remarks to Mr. A. J. Butler's illustrated paper on "The Initial Blocks of Some Italian Printers." Mr. Butler has found that initial letters "designed on the principle of the work known to most of us in our childhood, which taught us that A was an Archer," were the prevailing fashion in Italian books issued approximately in the third quarter of the sixteenth century—in Venice particularly, with the general exception of Aldus's publications. He cites, without picturing his examples, three books published at Venice by Domenico Giglio, viz., Gesualdo's Petrarch, 1553, the 'Diporti' of G. Parabosco, 1558, and a 'Capitoli' of 1566. The Petrarch contains eleven letters of an alphabet in which each square block measures nearly 1.5 inches, and the 'Capitoli' contains a twelfth. Besides these in the Petrarch occur six smaller letters, nearly one inch square, and of this minor alphabet Mr. Butler will discover in Giglio's Machiavelli, 1554, not only the E (Europa), but a C (Moses exposed by his mother ?), D (Dido falling on her sword ?), L (two men in the water and a woman kneeling on the beach ?), and T, which agrees with Mr. Butler's description of the corresponding large letter in the 'Capitoli,' save that we have a serving-man in place of a satyr with a dish. We may also direct his attention to the 'Decameron' published at Florence in 1573 by the brothers Giunti, with still larger initials (1.625 in.), resembling the foregoing in style, but not personal or symbolical, consisting nearly all of hunting scenes. Yet here are intercalated an F (Phaethon), L (Leda), and N (Neptune), that might belong to the Petrarch series, though that has its own Neptune. There are also a G (eagle or harpy carrying off a child), P (harvesters), and R (satyr uncovering a sleeping woman), which have no relation to the hunting series. Redrawn copies of the A, I, and T of the 'Decameron' were facsimiled by Mr. George C. Mason in his 'Annals of Trinity Church, Newport, R. I.' (1890), along with the N, P, and S used by Gabriele Giolito de' Ferrari (1546-1559) as noted by Mr. Butler, and several others having games or music for the motive of the designs. The source of Mr. Mason's reproductions was the London *Building News* of a date some years previous to 1890.

—Mr. George P. Baker's edition of Lyly's 'Endymion' (New York : Holt) is a somewhat noteworthy contribution to Elizabethan literary history. Of the notes, which, though few in number and usually very brief, contain several good suggestions, we need say nothing. It is the Introduction which calls for more particular notice. This contains an elaborate investigation of the facts of Lyly's life, and an exhaustive study of the chronology of his writings. New materials proved undiscoverable, in spite of much effort, but, for all that, we have in this monograph a thoroughly original piece of work. Mr. Baker has subjected the collections of his predecessors to a criticism so searching, and has examined their conclusions and theories with so much good sense and acumen, that his results, though, from the nature of the case, in some respects tentative, must in the main meet with ready acceptance. These results throw light on a number of the obscurest problems of Elizabethan literature. They are arrived at by close reasoning, and they are so stated that one is never in doubt as to what is demonstration, what doubtful inference, and what conjecture. This conscientious discrimination is in itself no small merit in a book dealing with subjects so often delivered over to guess-work and to what one is sometimes almost vexed enough to call scholastic chicanery. With some of Mr. Baker's conclusions we cannot agree ; but his arguments on most questions are cogent, and his opinions always command respect. The delay in the publication of 'Euphues and his England' is for the first time satisfactorily accounted for ; Lyly's connection with the Harvey-Nash imbroglio is clearly defined ; and the chronological order of the comedies is settled with a high degree of probability. The puzzling matter of the child-actors is well treated, and several dark points are cleared up, though we do not think Mr. Baker has hit upon the true explanation of the "general pardon." We have no space for further details. Our purpose is merely to call the attention of students of the period to a work which appears in a form so modest as to disguise its real importance.

—Samuel Bamford's 'Passages in the Life of a Radical' appeared at the very crisis of the Chartist agitation in England. Its purpose was to describe the reform movements of a period twenty years earlier, and particularly the Peterloo episode, in which the author had himself been concerned; but while it did this with sympathy and vigor, it had, and was intended to have, a sobering effect upon the physical-force enthusiasts of 1840. The book has continued to be known by those interested in the social and political history of England during the years following the Continental war as one of the most valuable and entertaining sources of information upon working-class conditions and feeling, especially in Lancashire. But of late it could be found only with difficulty in the second-hand bookshops; and it has been a happy thought to reprint it (London: Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams), and so commend it to a wider circle. With the addition of the 'Early Days,' it now makes two pleasant little volumes; and Mr. Henry Dunckley supplies an introduction which, in spite of its somewhat too condescending tone, seems to present a fair estimate of Bamford's career, and gives some particulars of his later life. The first volume, that containing the 'Early Days,' should attract the attention of a class of readers who are little likely to open the memoirs of minor agitators, to wit, the whole tribe of folk-lorists. It gives a genial account of Lancashire folk-lore and folk-usage, from the point of view not of a scholar or antiquary who looks upon it as a foreign world, but of one who as boy and youth had himself lived in its midst.

—An interesting experiment has just been made by one of the great London morning papers. The *Daily Chronicle*, by way of furthering the cause of the Progressives in the recent London County Council elections, published in its daily issue a series of papers on the Council and its work, to prove, chiefly, that something besides the increase in the rates had been accomplished. This series was illustrated. Of course, it is not the first attempt to illustrate a daily paper. There has been time almost to forget the New York *Daily Graphic*, while the London sheet of the same name and the Paris *Quotidien* seem now to be fairly well established. But it is in the quality of illustrations that such a novel departure has been made, while the breaking away of a London morning journal from English journalistic traditions is, indeed, a concession to new conditions. One knows, by this time, the inevitable mechanical drawing turned out to suit the exigencies of "process" and rapid printing; one knows it, and has long since wearied of it. But the *Chronicle*, with admirable courage, has been daring enough to go to really good men, among others Mr. Whistler and Sir Edward Burne-Jones, and ask their services. The first illustration that appeared was a large cartoon by Burne-Jones, in design very similar to his frontispiece for the 'Dream of John Ball.' Here, naturally, there was no thought of the "process" man, and yet the result was as vigorous as could be. However, the printing has varied tremendously, and on some days has been abominably bad, showing the enterprise to be still in the experimental stage. On others it has been a marked success, fortunately never more so than in the reproduction—enlarged so as to extend across the page—of Mr. Whistler's etching of "Black Lion Wharf." This came clear and sharp, the blacks pure and brilliant, the line clean and strong. It was really a triumph for the printer, or, perhaps it should be said, for modern steam printing, for the illustrated page, as well as the rest of the paper, was printed on an American Hoe press at the rate of nearly 22,000 an hour. Nothing could have proved more thoroughly the absurdity of the doctrine, prevailing in England, that the draughtsman must suppress his own individuality and work down to "process" and the steam press. Mr. Alfred Parsons, Mr. Phil May, Mr. Walter Crane, Mr. Sambourne, Mr. Joseph Pennell are among some of the other contributors.

—The fifth volume of Prof. Lamprecht's 'Deutsche Geschichte' (Berlin: Gaertner), which has been given to the public in advance of the fourth volume, shows more clearly than any previous portion of this work that its au-

thor is destined to be *the* historian of the German people. It comprises the period from the time of the great reformatory councils to the end of the first (revolutionary) phase of Luther's activity, and deals largely with the social, religious, literary, and artistic tendencies of the fifteenth century. It is not too much to say that not since Jacob Burckhardt's 'Kultur der Renaissance in Italien' has there appeared in Germany a contribution to the history of modern civilization equally profound or comprehensive. It is, of course, impossible in a short notice even to outline the scope of such a book. Suffice it to say that its leading thought—the development of the modern personality—is brought out in even stronger relief and with greater fulness than was the case in Burckhardt's epoch-making work. This is largely due to the fact that Prof. Lamprecht brings to his task a more intimate knowledge of social and economical conditions than was at the command of his intellectual predecessor, while in literary and artistic observation he has not in vain adapted himself to the method of that great master of analysis. If we were to select any part of this volume in which the art of the historian seems to be at its highest, we should name two chapters, entitled respectively "The Development of the Individualistic Society" and "The Ascendency of Individualistic Culture." A passage on the decline of the mediæval spirit, taken from the former, may show the author's skill in tracing the great trend of public life even to its remotest effects :

"Language also testifies to the decomposition of the old corporate consciousness, by developing from the word 'bursa'=student-association the individualistic 'bursche'; from 'camerata'= company of room-mates the equally individualistic 'comrade'; and finally, although not before the beginning of the seventeenth century, from the middle-high-German 'vrouwenzimmer'=γυναικεῖον the modern isolated 'Frauenzimmer.' The late development of this latter conception is not without significance. What was still absent from the individualistic society of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries is woman. In no way do the women of this period of our history play a part which could be compared with that of the Italian women of the same period. The Italian Renaissance is rich in learned, refined, intellectual, nay inspired representatives of the other sex; the German Renaissance knows at best of the vivacious sisters of Pirckheimer or of Peutinger's little daughter, who, when only a few years old, had learned some Latin verses by heart. On the whole, Germany had not yet found the right mean between the mediæval detestation of woman as inculcated by the Church, and her equally mediæval deification as demanded by the code of chivalry. Woman therefore remained apart even from the society of the sixteenth century; and only in the extraordinary perfection of fancy-work, especially of embroidery, and in the luxuriant fashions which carried the cult of the outward personality to the extreme of grotesqueness, is the growing influence of the feminine to be seen."

—We are in receipt of the following information from the holder of the European Fellowship of the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ:

The present winter semester finds fifteen women studying at the University of Göttingen —three English women, one German, and eleven Americans. Seven of them are students of mathematics, astronomy, and physics; the others are working in chemistry, philosophy, history, or political economy. Each candidate for admission must make application to the Prussian Ministry of Education through the curator of Göttingen University. This application must be accompanied by testimonials and a recommendation from a member of the university faculty who has examined the testimonials and the extent and nature of the candidate's previous study. If the result of this application is favorable, the candidate registers as a hearer (*Hospitant*), not as a matriculated student; and after that she must still, like other *Hospitanten*, obtain a special permission from those professors whose courses of lectures she is desirous of hearing. The opening of lectures to women lies thus at present almost entirely with the individual professors; some willingly admit suitable women to their lecture-rooms, others do not oppose the general tendency and tolerate women hearers, while others utterly refuse to grant them admission. When once admitted, the woman student enjoys all the advantages of the regular matriculated student; she also has all library, seminary, and reading-room privileges, and she pays the usual university lecture fees. "The faculty does not refuse to women, as such, permission to take the doctor's examination, but reserves to itself the right of presenting or of refusing to present to the minister any particular request for such permission." At the end of the present year three women will ask for the doctor's degree, and we shall then know with what liberality the above decision of the faculty will be interpreted. The cautiousness exhibited in all these arrangements arises from the fact that the admission of women is still regarded as a debatable question, and it is desired not to commit the university to any steps which cannot easily be retraced later, if that should seem to be necessary. On this account, it is particularly to be desired that no woman should undertake to study at Göttingen who is not thoroughly well prepared for her work, and has not a definite aim and motive in her study; even if suitable students should present themselves in very large numbers, while the experiment is still in this tentative stage, that would also, perhaps, be a cause for regret. It is the wish of Prof. Klein, who, with Prof. Elias Müller, has interested himself warmly in this question, that the conditions of the admission of women to the university lectures, and the general attitude of the university faculty towards this admission, should be clearly and definitely understood by American women.

SYBEL'S GERMAN EMPIRE.—I.

Die Begründung des Deutschen Reiches durch Wilhelm I. Von Heinrich von Sybel. Sechster Band. Munich: R. Oldenbourg; New York: Westermann. 1894.

After an interval of five years Von Sybel resumes the publication of his great history. The five volumes which appeared in 1889 brought the narrative down to the autumn of 1866. The late appearance of the sixth volume is due to the fact that in 1890, a few months after the dismissal of Bismarck, the present Emperor withdrew from the historian the privilege of using the Prussian archives. William II. probably thought that Von Sybel had given Bismarck too much credit for the achievements of 1864 and 1866, and may well have deemed it undesirable that any considerable portion of the glory of 1870 should be diverted from the crown to the ex-chancellor. In the preface to the present volume the author states, without comment, the fact of his exclusion from the archives, and adds that at first it seemed to him impossible to complete his work. Further consideration, however, gave him more courage. For a study of the interval of peace between the Austrian war and the French, the Prussian documents were of less vital importance than in the preceding years of internal and external conflict. Much documentary material had been printed in German and foreign works, and a large part of this had not been adequately utilized. Moreover, the historian himself—and this was for him the decisive consideration—had lived through the events which he was to describe, under circumstances which brought him in touch with the men who were making the history of those years. From the beginning of his work he had found these men ready to give him information on points of the greatest importance; in fact, the more considerable the information they possessed, the more ready were they to impart it. Unpublished journals, letters, and autobiographies were also placed at his disposal. Finally, he had contracted with his publisher to write the history of Prussia from 1850 to 1870, and the publisher would have his bond. Whether the publisher acted wisely, the author leaves to the "competent public" to determine.

The competent public will probably say that the present volume, which covers the year 1867 and a part of 1868, could ill have been spared, and it will welcome the forthcoming seventh volume, with which the work is to end. The skill so to order details that the story marches smoothly; the judgment which discriminates between cardinal facts and those of secondary importance, and the art which gives to the former their due relief; the charm of style which makes a work of patient research easy reading—these are qualities which Von Sybel neither found in the Prussian archives nor left there; and, *pace* Seeley and his school, the world has not yet outgrown the literary historian. At the same time the reader will miss something that he found in the previous volumes. The exact and minute information afforded by original documents enables the historian to give to his pictures a sharpness of outline and wealth of illustrative detail not otherwise attainable. The slight suggestion of haziness, as in an ill-focussed photograph, which hangs about some portions of this volume, is partly due, however, to the author's conscientiousness, which does not permit him to present any inference, however well founded, as a matter of knowledge. It is improbable that the study of Prussian or other archives will seriously modify the impression of this period which Von Sybel gives us, but the reader is constantly reminded that such a modification is not impossible.

The political events of 1867 and 1868 fall, from the German point of view, into three chief groups: the pacification and reorganization of the territories annexed by Prussia in 1866, and the *mise en œuvre* of the North German Federation; the rapid establishment of closer relations between North and South Germany; and finally the growing tension between Germany and France. Of special interest, under the first head, is the description of the way in which the North German Constitution was drafted. The treaties of 1866 had merely indicated the general character of the new union. A constitution was to be submitted to the representatives of the North German governments and ratified by a North German parliament. On his return in December, 1866, from a much-needed vacation, Bismarck found two complete projects worked out by secretaries of the Foreign Office. Both of these he discarded, finding them unavailable even as a basis for correction. On the afternoon of the 13th he dictated to another secretary, Lothar Bucher (an ex-revolutionist, by the way, of 1848), the most important articles of the new constitution, with indications of the lines on which the rest of the document was to be drawn. That night Bucher and Delbrück worked out the new project. It was approved by the Prussian ministry on the following afternoon, and on the 15th it was submitted to the representatives of the allied governments. They suggested numerous amendments, of which eighteen were accepted; and in the constituent parliament thirty-nine more amendments were voted by the representatives of the people and accepted by the allied

governments. When the South German states came into the Union, and the Federation was transformed into the German Empire (1871), a few more changes were made; but in its main lines the constitution under which fifty millions of Germans are still living is the constitution which Bismarck dictated to Bucher on that December afternoon twenty-eight years ago. When it was first published, the London *Times* remarked, in all seriousness, that it was sufficiently illogical to justify the hope that it would work well; and a distinguished German professor of public law complained that it was impossible to decide in which of the established categories this constitution belonged. Von Sybel justly remarks of Bismarck's original draft, that it showed an extraordinary grasp of what was practically needed, without regard to theory or doctrine.

The extension of Prussian influence over South Germany is admirably described and explained. Within less than two years the offensive and defensive alliances concluded in 1866 were ratified by the South German legislatures; the Prussian military system was introduced into each of the South German armies; Moltke's plan for meeting a French attack was adopted by the South German staffs, and a new and stronger customs union was formed. In the customs treaties of 1867 it was provided that duties should be fixed by a customs parliament, which was to be constituted by adding South German delegates to the Federal Council, and South German deputies to the Diet of the North German Federation. This Parliament met at Berlin in 1868, and to turn it into the Imperial Parliament which met there three years later, nothing was needed but to change its name and extend its competence. The organization of the two bodies was identical. All these steps toward unity, however, were taken unwillingly, as far as the majority of the South Germans were concerned. All the southern governments, with the exception of that of Baden, were opposed to any close union. The people of Baden and of Hesse desired to join the North German Federation, but the Clericals of Bavaria and the Democrats of Würtemberg were full of hostility to Prussia, and sent anti-Prussian deputies to the customs parliament. The military and economic alliance with the North was forced upon a reluctant South—not by the North, for Bismarck deemed it unwise to attempt to hasten the progress of events, but by the inexorable logic of the situation. The southern states could not stand alone, either in war or in peace. They could not even stand together, as the Bavarian Prime Minister, Prince von Hohenlohe (now Chancellor of the Empire), discovered when he tried to bring about the South German union for which the Peace of Prague had made provision. The Würtembergers feared Bavaria less than they feared Prussia, but they were quite as jealously hostile to a Bavarian as to a Prussian hegemony, while the people of Baden and of Hesse distinctly preferred Prussian leadership.

The most serious element in the history of these two years was the growing hostility of France, and the most important question which was raised and settled was that of Luxemburg. This duchy, ruled by the King of the Netherlands, but constituting no part of his kingdom, had belonged to the German Confederation (1814–1866); but with the dissolution of that confederation it was legally isolated from the rest of Germany. Under the older federal arrangements and with the sanction of the great Powers, Prussia supplied three-fourths of the garrison of the fortress of Luxemburg. In all the schemes of "compensation" suggested by France in the summer of 1866, and described by Von Sybel in his fifth volume, Luxemburg was, of course, included. On the 29th of August, Benedetti had submitted a final proposition. Prussia was to open negotiations with the King of the Netherlands for the cession of Luxemburg to France. An equivalent was to be tendered him either in German territory or in money. If the arrangement was made on the latter basis, France would reimburse Prussia for the outlay. The acquisition of Luxemburg would be regarded by France as a sufficient compensation for the extension of Prussia's power in North Germany. If Prussia would aid France in acquiring Belgium, France would consent to the incorporation of South Germany in the German Federation. For these latter purposes, an offensive and defensive alliance was proposed. Bismarck replied that an offensive alliance between France and Prussia would arouse suspicion throughout Europe. As regarded Luxemburg, Prussia could not possibly offer German territory to the King of the Netherlands, nor could she take the initiative in arranging a purchase, for the transaction would arouse the national feeling and compromise Prussia's position in Germany. If France could settle the matter quietly, without the official knowledge of the Prussian Government, Germany might be persuaded to accept the accomplished fact. The most that Prussia could do would be to withdraw her troops and suffer events to take their course, and to this programme Bismarck would endeavor to obtain his royal master's consent, if a firm friendship with France could thus be cemented.

No further answer was asked or given until December, when Benedetti returned to the attack and demanded a reply to the French proposals of August 29. Bismarck now for the first time submitted these proposals to the King. The King was not favorably impressed; Moltke and Roon, at his request, worked out memorials on the strategic importance of the fortress of Luxemburg, and advocated the maintenance of the Prussian right of garrison. Bismarck declared that the abandonment of the fortress was of course objectionable, but that an immediate outbreak of war with France would be a greater evil. Early in January, 1867, Benedetti pressed again for an answer. The answer that he received (January 10) was substantially that foreshadowed by Bismarck in August. No offensive alliance with France; at most a defensive alliance, with a pledge of Prussian neutrality in case France should undertake offensive operations—no promise even on this point, simply a possibility that the King would consent; no initiative on the part of Prussia in the Luxemburg affair, not even a voluntary withdrawal of her garrison. France would do well to start a popular agitation in Luxemburg for the removal of the Prussian troops, or, best of all, for the demolition of the fortress. Somewhat later Bismarck notified Benedetti that the Prussian garrison would probably be withdrawn if the King of the Netherlands requested its withdrawal.

THE GOLDEN HOUSE, AND OTHER NOVELS.

The Golden House. By Charles Dudley Warner. Harper & Brothers.

John March, Southerner. By George W. Cable. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Children of Circumstance. By Iota. D. Appleton & Co.

The Bell-ringer of Angels, and Other Stories. By Bret Harte. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Chase of Saint Castin, and Other Stories. By Mary Hartwell Catherwood. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

EVERY new novel about the rich and fashionable society of New York serves to confirm one of two impressions: either it is the dullest and most purposeless society that ever was on the face of the earth, or the novelists are so far from being in it that their works may be classed properly only as speculations on the vague, the vast, the dazzling unknown. From the first chapter of Mr. Warner's 'Golden House,' elaborately descriptive of a Spanish dancer's dancing before the fashionable world, in a studio, at midnight, it must be inferred that he knows whereof he writes. There is a pronounced flavor of intimacy with luxury in the reflection on "that pleasurable glow which the red Jacqueminot always gets from contiguity with the pale-yellow Clicquot," a perfect familiarity with rare pottery in an instantaneous recognition of a "barbarous pot of Chanak-Kalessi." So on, through all the descriptions of fêtes and functions, clothes and food, both from the minuteness of detail and the absence of that liveliness and humor which characterize most of Mr. Warner's speculative writings, the conviction grows that it is all very knowing and an astonishingly accurate drawing from life. There is too much money in the scene and situations for idle fun, and therefore Mr. Warner, like a good American, has dropped his native pleasantry and assumed polysyllabic solemnity as a fitting tribute to the pomp of the great god Mammon.

Unfortunately, perhaps, we have got into the habit of requiring from a novelist more than a wide acquaintance with external life, and insist, perhaps unreasonably, that he shall reveal the heart of things, or, if they have no heart, of people who, after all, do count even in European palaces or American palatial residences. Tried by this test of actual knowledge or creative imagination, Mr. Warner is disappointing—so disappointing, indeed, that it seems as if any one who wished to write up, or rather write down, fashionable society in a perfectly proper and chaste way might have done as much and could hardly have done less.

An adventurous wit of the last century said she had travelled a good deal and had met only two varieties of the human species—men and women. She died before there was any United States or any New York society, or any phantoms of the same, flitting through finely printed pages and vainly appealing to the illustrator to attest their substantial being by a dozen or more inspiring pictures of correctly clothed backs and legs. Men and women she could not have declared Jack Delancy, or Mr. Mavick, or Mrs. Carmen Henderson, or Miss Tavish to be. All these people are idle, sensuous, self-indulgent, and perhaps the author's failure to represent them at all is accounted for by the way in which he wished to do it—the chaste and proper way. In any other country than America it is recognized that people who persist in skating on thin ice invariably go through, and for novelists of other nations who write about such people the plunge is the natural, the inevitable crisis. It is impossible to believe that a republican form of government can eliminate human passions from human beings and substitute silly social ambitions and calculating self-interest. So when an American author takes immense pains to describe the gyrations of peo-

ple on a skimmed pool, then informs us that they all not only slid off triumphantly to solid land, but had never really been in any danger, we cannot help feeling that he is false to fact if he knows, vapid and ineffective if he does not. We are, of course, far from regretting that Mr. Warner has not written an immoral book, but we wish, if he was irresistibly moved to write about pleasure-loving and pleasure-seeking people, that he had seemed to know that their regard for each other does not rest wholly on hopes of points in stocks or invitations to dinner, and that a racketing crowd on a yacht deliberately crossing a steamer's bows is not, when run into, so perfectly cool and self-possessed as to avoid all appearance of panic and to display "much less excitement than appeared from telegraphed accounts."

On the Street, among the poor, and at the domestic hearth, the author appears to greater advantage. Mr. Henderson will do for any stock-broker who accumulates millions by questionable deals and corners. The faithful little woman doctor, and in a less complete fashion the Anglican priest, are recognizable figures in the movement of a great modern city. The devoted wife of Jack Delancy is all right, and Mr. Warner's sympathy with her sitting up o' nights touches the core of woman's case against man—that listening for the click of the long-past-midnight latch-key. They order this matter better in Corea—enlightened land!—where men are shut up and only women roam abroad after dark.

In view of the number and variety of figures in the 'Golden House,' it seems clear that Mr. Warner is possessed by the prevalent belief among novelists in the seriousness of their profession, and set himself to include in one volume a comprehensive presentation of life in New York. It takes a large imagination and great constructive skill to give unity, force, value to this comprehensive fiction, and so far no American except Mr. Howells, in many volumes, has come within sight of success. Doubtless, Mr. Cable was animated by the same ambition in the composition of 'John March, Southerner'; at all events, it is soothing to find so worthy an excuse for such a maddening performance. Seventy-eight chapters are ostensibly devoted to John from childhood to maturity, but what he was or is or shall be remains an enigma. John's father, a judge, presumably an old-time Southern gentleman, talking an atrocious dialect, dies in the twenty-third chapter, bequeathing to his son an irrelevant, futile, verse-writing mother, and a great deal of unimproved land. The remaining chapters are presumably intended to develop the methods adopted by John for repressing his mother and colonizing his land, several of them being abandoned to these topics. The incidental information is various and unrelated. John has a tedious love affair, meandering through much talk to a second passion. He gets religion, and also gets rid of it at the penitent bench. He insults the British flag, but does not make an international episode. He is casually engaged in a shooting affray with a mountaineer; the mountaineer is shot, and one wishes it had been John. All the time the inhabitants of Suez, in the State of Dixie (generals, colonels, white women, negroes), keep on talking about the war and each other, apparently trying to display astonishing invention in corrupting the English language. Such fiction as this might have been an invaluable agent for reform in the old days when the novel-reading habit was regarded as pernicious. No boy would hide it under his pillow, hoping to snatch a fearful joy at dawn. No woman would, for love of it, neglect her baby and darning.

The author of the 'Yellow Aster' was marked from the beginning as one whose blood should be on her own head. The folly of her first book was surprising, that of her second, 'Children of Circumstance,' is only dull. The few amusing characters are parsons whose contrivances for mitigating the dulness of their profession are quite ingenious. One diverted his mind from a parishioner's confession of iniquity by thinking of "his dead wife and smelling-salts," also of "a rather red nose and treble squeals nicely modulated." A second demanded for solace in his last hours the ministrations of a young lady of high fashion, who shook up his pillows and even "kissed him in her nice, pleasant way." A third relieved the tedium of a district visitor's homily by "watching her face with a sort of irreverent pity—wondering if any one outside a near relative ever had had the courage to kiss her." This parson, Frank Weston, ardently supports the heroine, Miss Dering, in her scheme for redeeming the prostitutes of London by dwelling among them and initiating for their salvation midnight suppers of beef and beer. He tries to rope in his sister, Rica (the young person who kissed the dying curate), but she demands, in the name of Heaven, to know how many whiskey-and-sodas he consumes while writing a sermon; which seems to dispose of her as a means of grace.

It has naturally never occurred to the author that social evils won't yield to the homœopathic cure of like by like. She, therefore, chooses for redeemer-in-chief a young woman who maintains that when a married man makes love to a girl, the only sinner is the wife who has feebly let her husband go—a sentiment not inconsistently cherished by one who, meditating on David, "feels herself hoping that he had a good time with Bathsheba, and wishing, half reluctantly, that it hadn't been cut short quite so soon." The feeling of *camaraderie* which Miss Dering established between herself and her chosen sinners is not a matter for wonder; and when one remembers how, at the suppers, they could watch for nothing "Margaret's small, delicate, ever-varying face cutting pork for her guests' excellent appetites," the marvel is that they ever let such a congenial and phenomenal saviour depart from among them. Cheap irreverence and flippant contempt of decency paraded as liberal thought and worldly wisdom will command an audience for a brief space, amusing many, deceiving a few. The "Children of Circumstance" neither distract nor delude. They forget that too much of a bad thing is as tiresome as too much of a good one, and by loquacious protestation of their thorough-going shockingness fail even to score a shock.

It is several years since Bret Harte has given us such good stories as two at least of those included in the 'Bell-ringer of Angels.' The incidents of the title-story and of the "Sheriff of Siskyou" are very clearly seen, and the characterization has the author's youthful humor and decision. The only falling off from his high standard of excellence is in the ending of both; all that follows Madison Wayne's realization of his crime in the first is unnecessary, and the wanderings through the fire of the Sheriff and his captive, in the second, are unduly prolonged. The rest of the volume is readable, and the sketch of Mr. Callender shows that the author has not been consul in Glasgow for nothing.

In the 'Chase of Saint Castin' Mrs. Catherwood continues her fictitious rendering of incidents of the early French settlement of Canada. It is rather strange that an author who chooses to write historical fiction exclusively should ignore a rule almost invariably observed by distinguished laborers in the same vineyard, and select for her principal figures men to whose actual renown imagination can add nothing. Fortunately for Mrs. Catherwood, the deeds of Saint Castin, of the Le Moynes and La Tours are not too widely known, and the wit and wickedness of the real Baron La Hontan are shut up in a thick little book which, we think, has not had an edition in this century. Therefore her representations of such splendid adventurers may not appear to the general tame and frigid. The selection of episodes in this volume is discriminating, and each is well enough told to hold the attention. Still, the people are so thin, so cold, so far off, that they impart an unveracious air even to authenticated accounts of the events which they shared.

NEW HANDBOOKS OF BOTANY.

In the history of science there occur at irregular intervals well-marked text-book periods of uncertain duration. Sometimes these periods are coincident with inactivity in investigation, but more commonly they mark a change in the direction of investigation. They are chiefly interesting to workers in other fields and to the general public from the fact that a text-book, if it is worth anything at all, is an account of stock on hand. A very sudden accumulation of text-books would seem, therefore, to indicate that a good many authors, not to say authorities, have concluded simultaneously that it is time to look over the results of investigation and take a fresh start. In botany such a time has again come. Many investigations in this science are being prosecuted and new ones are projected, but some of the leading investigators have given us, in a compendious form, the results of what has been done of late. In view of the numerous, almost numberless, text-books published within a year or two, it may be instructive to examine a few of the steps by which new and apparently uncontested positions have been attained, confining this chiefly within the limits imposed by the text-books themselves.

In the first place, it appears to be settled that the protoplasm or living matter in the cells of plants is practically continuous throughout the whole organism. It is recognized that the cell-walls do not shut off communication between contiguous cells. In the walls themselves extremely tenuous lines of protoplasm exist as intercommunicating threads, and these bring all the protoplasm in a given plant into a connected whole. At the approach of autumn, the protoplasm in the perishable parts of a perennial is withdrawn into the permanent parts of the organism, and here it stands ready for the coming of spring and the outburst of new foliage. All this, which is comparatively new, has been promptly incorporated into the text-books. But now arises a very singular exception, which serves to indicate how remarkable is this provision of vegetable economy. The well-known breathing-pores, or stomata, of foliage and other green parts consist of delicately balanced valves which stand in strict relations to their surroundings, and, in short, open and shut according to the needs of the plant. But the side cells of these balanced valves are now demonstrated to maintain no protoplasmic connection with their nearest neighbors, but are, after the first

period of their existence, cut off from them and then are independent. And at the end of the vegetine year, when all the rest of the leaf-protoplasm is taken back into the plant for protection, that which exists in these side cells remains as if a veritable rear-guard, performing some duty while the living matter in the neighboring cells is safely retreating, and, after all the rest is under winter cover, perishes with the fallen leaf.

In the next place, it is now generally admitted that the changes which take place in the nucleus of cells during cell-division, are substantially identical with those which occur in cell-division in animals. The newer text-books have placed within reach, even of beginners, methods by which the more important of the changes can be traced throughout their course. Any intelligent student now has it quite within his power to repeat the observations in this interesting field. The fulness and perspicuity of the directions which are found in the best of these recent text-books in regard to this matter leave practically nothing to be desired in the way of technique and guidance. The same may be said, also, of the advice and the minor hints in respect to the demonstration of the so-called plastids. These minute granules, enclosed in protoplasm, although springing from a common source, are of three different classes. According to their development and office, they become of a green color and undertake the preparation of organic matter from inorganic, or they serve as colorless points around which the prepared food (starch) accumulates and is stored, or lastly, taking on some color other than green, become of protective or attractive service in flower or fruit. That is, these constituents of cells, though alike at the beginning, are turned to different kinds of work.

And here we have the key to all of the modern text-books in botany. The pregnant thought which finds its expression in the reference of all parts of a flowering plant to a few simple morphological members which are turned to multifarious ends in the work of the organism, is now applied unhesitatingly to the tissues and to the vital constituents of the cells. It is, in fact, adaptation in its widest sense. Prominence is given to every element of structure and every phenomenon which can throw any light on the adaptation of the organism to its surroundings. The structure of the plant is regarded as the product of two factors, inheritance and environment; whether the latter merely picks out the fittest or aids in shaping them is, as yet, fair matter for discussion, and hence is kept somewhat in the background, but the fertile ideas of morphology and adaptation are, as is proper, made much of in every way.

Taken for all in all, the most interesting of these recent text-books is a skilfully constructed composite which we owe to the botanical instructors at Bonn on the Rhine ('Lehrbuch der Botanik.' Jena: Gustav Fischer). Prof. Strasburger, widely known as the highest authority in cellular morphology of plants, contributes 130 pages of histology and its relations to external structure. The most recondite matters are made clear; the driest are invested with attractiveness. Dr. Noll follows with the subject of physiology, presenting the principal facts accepted by the best authorities, and suggesting decisive experiments for the use of the student. The field of special systematic botany is divided between Dr. Schenck and Prof. Schimper, the former taking up the lower plants, the latter the flowering. The text is succinct and comprehensive, and in style attractive. When we add that the figures are fresh and telling and well executed, and that the volume, as it comes to us from the German press, is of a high order of book-printing, we have said enough to carry the work into the hands of some besides botanists who wish to see the results of recent investigation coördinated with the older accepted statements, and all presented in the form of a trial balance.

No less than twelve new text-books besides the above are in hand for notice. Nearly all are useful, and some are highly creditable. Of these, we must be permitted to speak of Francis Darwin's 'Practical Physiology of Plants' (Cambridge [Eng.]: University Press; New York: Macmillan), and Prof. Spalding's 'Guide to the Study of Common Plants' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.). In the former we have two series of problems which are thought to be within the grasp of a student who has mastered elementary work. Experiments are suggested which, in their turn, must suggest new lines of research. The treatise possesses high merit. Prof. Spalding's excellent work makes use of the best form of the type-method. The student is given good examples illustrating the life-history of representative plants. Just enough information is presented to the student to stimulate his curiosity and keep him well up to his task. Pedagogically considered, this is one of the best contributions to the subject of elementary teaching which we now possess.

Brook Farm: Historic and Personal Memoirs. By John Thomas Codman. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 1894.

Because of the character and standing of certain people connected more or less intimately with Brook Farm, it has had an interest for the public out of all proportion to the social or the economic principles that it involved. From the social or economic standpoint the North American Phalanx at Red Bank, N. J., was an experiment of much more importance, yet it has attracted no such persistent reminiscence on the part of those engaged in it—Horace Greeley the best known; no such persistent curiosity of the outside world. But the fame of Brook Farm is much less on account of its resident Farmers than on account of its casual visitors—Emerson, Parker, Alcott, Margaret Fuller, and others—and the most of these had lost even their casual interest in the enterprise before Mr. Codman, its latest historian, arrived upon the scene. The most distinguished residents of his time were Ripley, Dwight, and Dana, all of whom are described in an effusive manner—Ripley with "damnable iteration." It begins to look as if we never should have a good account of Brook Farm written from the inside. We shall have to content ourselves with such admirable fragments as Mr. Curtis's "Easy Chair" papers and Mr. George P. Bradford's *Century* article. To these Mr. Codman's volume adds little of importance. When some one asked Ripley when he was going to write the history of Brook Farm, he answered, "When I reach my years of indiscretion." He did not live long enough for that. Mr. Codman has been less fortunate, and consequently he has given us a book which, while adding little to our knowledge of Brook Farm, adds nothing to its fascination, and does little credit to the author's judgment, taste, or skill.

At the outset he is unfortunate, for his arrival at the Farm was in 1843, when its idyllic period was fast drawing to a close, under the stress of Albert Brisbane and his Fourierite doctrine. It has been very common for those devoted to the experiment in its earlier stages to depreciate the later, when the organization became much more definite. It is certain that this change, with its partial substitution of a Fourierite phalanstery for a group of free individuals, did much to alienate the sympathy of those, excepting Ripley, who have always given to the Farm its happiest repute. Mr. Codman's book has the advantage of being a counterblast to the prevailing notions. His stay was under the Fourierite dispensation, and he will not allow that there was any falling off from the generous and lofty idealism of the earlier time. But here we have the personal equation: the Fourierite time was *the* time because it was *his* time. Of the other he had no personal knowledge. Of his own exuberant happiness we get an adequate impression. Why not? He was young, in good health, full of animal spirits, could laugh at any joke, however poor, and the opportunities for love-making were unbounded. Whatever stopped in 1843, the "perpetual picnic" of Emerson's impression went on for two years longer if not until the end.

Mr. Codman's book suffers from the indefiniteness of its form, the looseness and carelessness of its expression. Mr. Frothingham's ninety pages in his Life of Ripley give us a much clearer notion of the character of the enterprise and the sequence of events. The account of the Transcendental Club, a forerunner of Brook Farm, is inaccurate in various particulars. It never called itself by its popular name, as Mr. Codman asserts. Dr. Channing attended only one of its meetings, yet he is set down as habitually present and as "afterwards one of the acknowledged leaders of liberal Christendom." In 1835 he had held that position preëminently for some twenty years. We have everywhere the same easy-going style. Hood's "Song of the Shirt" appears to be spoken of as an original contribution to the *Harbinger*, the organ of the Farm, to which a chapter is assigned that contains much irrelevant matter. The chronology is so extremely defective that in vain do we try to follow the order of events. But the worst defect of Mr. Codman's book is its excess of sweetness, its sentimentality, its gush, its ravings over the eyes and hair of this or that glorious creature who captivated his boyish fancy. And, besides this, we suffer much from his own humor and from his memory of the poor little jokes that should have had their day and ceased to be some fifty years ago.

There is a pretty full account of an address by Albert Brisbane on the "Unity of the Passions." It was prodigious fine talk, and one hopes it meant something when, at the conclusion, he flung his arms aloft to the stars and cried, "I *love* those worlds up there." Charles A. Dana followed with the sentiment, "Ambition the greatest of the four social passions." "The four social passions," it seems, "correspond to the common chord in music, but ambition corresponds to the seventh note, on which no music ever ends." John S. Dwight on the same occasion gave "one of those sweet, calm, choice, dignified, exact speeches for which he is noted." But he too could soar into the empyrean, as where he said of Bailey's "Festus," once an immortal poem, that "you might as well cut a cloud out of the purple sunset atmosphere as a figure from the boundless atmospheric beauty of the poem." How touching the simplicity when William Henry Channing asks them all to "join hands and make a circle, and here form the Church of Humanity that shall cover the men and women of every nation

and every clime." Truly here were "great hopes for great souls."

If the community did not have all things in common, it had the smallpox. Some reformer, abjuring vaccination, came, bringing his little boy, who was much fondled, and in a few days there were thirty down with the disease. Isolation was impossible and everybody took his chance. It is Mr. Codman's impression that the harmonious conditions did much to neutralize the danger. And there were compensations. The visitors at the rate of four thousand a year dropped to the zero point. A far greater calamity was the burning of the new unfinished Phalanstery, on which $7,000 had been expended, and there was no insurance. This was really the beginning of the end. "The Hive" became a sieve. It was resolved that the blow should make no difference. It made a great difference. Dwight went to New York, leaving everything cheerful and happy; he came back to find everything going to the bad. Mr. Codman does not give us the particulars of the breaking up. He says:

"It was not discord, it was music stopped."

That is prettily said, but it does not agree with Dwight's impression, and he was a musical authority. The scheme was a complete financial failure. August 18, 1847, the Farm was transferred to a board of trustees to be sold to the best advantage of all concerned. Applying Thoreau's standard, Ripley's failure was so tragical that you could not tell it from success.

Logic. By Dr. Christoph Sigwart. Second edition, revised and enlarged. Translated by Helen Dendy. 2 vols. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1895. 8vo.

THE second edition of Sigwart's Logic was substantially a new book; at least, it seemed quite fresh at its appearance a few years ago. The opinions expressed in it are recognized as among the sanest and best-considered. But whether it is a particularly suitable book for translation is not quite so clear. It is to be remembered that no very extensive or important part of logic stands accepted without dispute on all hands. Nor are the differences confined to points of theory and arrangement; on the contrary, they are practically decisive as to what inference is to be commended, what rejected, as well as for methods of inquiry. Beginners in the study of logic certainly ought to be apprised of the more important divergences. Most logicians when they approach a disputed doctrine exhibit manifest symptoms of it. Even if they name nobody, the breath comes quick, and the glare of the eyes is reflected in the type. But Sigwart goes on his way with such calm serenity, giving his own lucid and, to an advanced scholar, luminous views, that the young student would never dream that anybody else ever thought otherwise.

Since the author quite omits, or treats with strictest compression, all those parts of logic about which there is no dispute, one might wonder how two goodly volumes of a thousand pages of four hundred words to the page have been filled up. They contain chiefly the *ex-parte* presentation of Sigwart-ish views, very well worth reading certainly. This is enlarged by a great deal of acute criticism on points of little importance, many of them not truly relevant to logic. Many topics, although subjects of divergent opinions, are passed by without mention.

Historical statements are sparingly made; and of the few, there is a considerable proportion that cannot support criticism. Thus, Sigwart (vol. ii, p. 308, foot-note) attributes to Jevons the remark that induction is an inverse operation (mistranslated a "reverse operation"), related to deduction as division is related to multiplication. But this had been said long before Jevons's day. Indeed, the moment deduction is regarded as a mathematical operation, it follows from Aristotle's conception of induction that this is the inverse operation. The assimilation was made by Leibnitz, and was expanded into two eloquent volumes by Père Gratry. Indeed, the latter writer apprehends it more accurately than either Jevons or Sigwart, for he shows that mathematical differentiation, depending on the inverse operation of subtraction, while integration depends on the direct operation of summation, is in that sense an inverse operation, and he defends the older opinion that differentiation is the instrument of inductive reasoning, integration that of deductive reasoning. Thus the laws of mechanics are expressed by differential equations, and the applications of them are performed by integrating those equations.

Sigwart treats logic chiefly from the point of view of methodology. From that standpoint probability and probable inference appear as its most prominent topics. These are subjects upon which we cannot expect a German treatise to attain the English standard of accuracy and subtlety of thought, for two generations of the most powerful minds the English-speaking countries have produced have had them constantly under scrutiny, while in Germany they have been little studied. Sigwart's account of the philosophy of probability is inferior even to that of Locke. Take this sentence: "F. A. Lange rightly saw that the theory of probability is based upon the disjunctive judgment, and is in this way connected with logic." This is hardly doing justice to that able thinker. But, passing that by, very long before Lange every English logician had seen, what must appear early in one's reflections upon the subject, that the theory of probability is not only "connected with," but is a part of, logic—one might almost say is the major part of it. The pedantry of supposing that "the disjunctive judgment" can shed a vivifying light upon the philosophy of probability is deplorable, while it provokes a smile.

Yet upon subjects closely connected with this Sigwart is most instructive. We will select by way of illustration a point which shows at the same time how near the abstract theory of logic may come to matters of practical concern. Our readers will understand that we are expressing no opinions whatever concerning the subject matter; we intend only to point out how divergent theory may lead to divergent practice. Sigwart remarks that when we investigate anything whatever, we go upon the presumption that the truth about the matter in hand is capable of being expressed in general terms, and further that the proposition that events happen according to laws and are determined by causes is a special case of such presumption. No proof, he says, of the impossibility of a lawless happening has ever been brought forward, and thus he is led to hold that such postulates are "not so much laws which the understanding prescribes to Nature" (which was Kant's opinion), "as laws which the understanding lays down for its own regulation in its investigation and consideration of Nature." Correct or not, this is a pregnant suggestion. In modern whist there are certain presumptions, especially towards the end of a hand, which we make, not because we possess any evidence of their truth, but because if such a proposition be true, there is a way of winning a trick that, under the supposition of its falsity, there is no way of winning. This is the sort of presumptions which German logicians call "regulative principles." Now it is plain that such a regulative principle cannot, *as such*, be universal, because it applies in that capacity only to the single case in hand. If, then, Sigwart be right in holding the law of causation, the principle of the uniformity of nature and the like to be "regulative principles," all ground for asserting them to be absolutely without exception is removed. Now that would profoundly modify not only our theory of the universe, but also our philosophy of life and death. All this would or might come from a particular answer to an abstract, obscure, and apparently insignificant question of pure logic. When we turn over the pages of such a book as that before us, we may be tempted to wonder of what use or application is all that. But it is always possible there is a "live coal behind the thought" that long blown on may some day flame. The instance adduced shows the possibility of this.

The translator writes an easy un-German English, and the accuracy of the rendering is vouched for by the author, who has read all the proofs. Nevertheless mistakes are to be found in it.

From a New England Hillside. By William Potts. Macmillan. 1895.

FARMINGTON, in Connecticut, is one of our loveliest villages. North and south stretches Farmington mountain, ten miles and more long, separating the valley of the Connecticut from the valley in which lay the old canal upon whose bed the New Haven & Northampton Railroad (called originally Canal Railroad) was afterwards built. The mountain is not very high, but is full of picturesque variety of surface, even attaining Alpine dignity of bare, scarped cliffs and jutting crags. West of the high ground stretch the meadows where the Pequabuck meets the Tunxis, and in which the united stream winds in large, slow curves like the lower Connecticut or the Mississippi. The village lies along the western slope of the mountain, with a broad village street two miles long, and also, for it is a big village, a "back lane" further up the hillside, and a river street down on the plain. From all points in the village there are lovely views, and the prospect from the higher slopes is wide and singularly beautiful. The village is very old, in appearance at least. The houses are generally of the eighteenth century, or of years before 1820. Among them are handsome and stately residences, for Farmington was a wealthy town in the days of New England farming. The old village church, unaltered without, though the interior has been spoiled, is famous through all that region. The streets are planted with noble elms, among which are two of the dozen monsters of New England. The railroad station is two miles away, and there are no factories, no great workshops, no crowding in of city people in summer. A year hence these words will not be true, for the trolley-road has invaded the quiet village, and one more place of rest is about to be destroyed.

In this retreat Mr. William Potts has made himself a home, and thence he has written letters to a New England newspaper, which letters are now gathered into a little volume

with the title given above. The author, well known for his activity in the cause of civil-service reform, looks for rest and a relief from his labors in this hillside quiet. His book does not show much interest in the exceptional beauty of the spot and of its neighborhood; he dwells mainly upon the planting, the well-digging, the gardening, in the spirit of those gentle essays familiar to the readers of American prose literature. Printed one by one in the columns of a newspaper, these letters were more readable than as parts of a volume. When one takes book in hand, one expects more substantial food for the mind. The free use of quotations has rather the appearance of a substitute for the thoughts that would not flow freely than of a clincher for thoughts that had already been driven home. It is a relief to come upon the author's meditations over riotous strikers (p. 189), and the sound conclusions that the first principle upon which society rests must be defended against them. Even the half-desponding words which follow, with the inevitable vision of a hideous world to come upon this planet, is a relief from the commonplace. The reader who knows his picturesque New England longs for a little more of it between these covers, and thinks regretfully that Mr. Potts has missed a chance.

Trans-Caspia: The Sealed Provinces of the Tsar. By M. M. Shoemaker. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. 1894.

WILL the time never come when the traveller who has made a flying trip to some more or less remote part of the world will realize that the only thing for him to relate to the public is his own experience, together with such few facts as he may be certain of, from all of which he can draw but the most modest conclusions? Imagine an American, obviously ignorant of the Russian language as well as of the real conditions of the empire, of the circumstances that have caused its peculiar development, the reasons for the nature of its government, and the problems which the Government has to confront; then let him spend a few weeks in central Asia, and in consequence write a book full of superficial observations and opinions besides occasional gross errors, and we have Mr. Shoemaker's work. He is not to blame if his travels were commonplace. Illness forced him to turn back just as he was beginning the more difficult part of his trip. Still, he made an interesting journey which he had as good a right to describe as had the numerous other writers who have made it. If he had confined himself to this we should have found less fault, merely pointing out the absurdity of such statements as that in St. Petersburg, in winter, "The islands are, of course, closed, most of the bridges over the Neva being taken away until the ice goes out in April," whereas the islands are the most famous of St. Petersburg winter resorts, and the floating bridges are taken away only when the ice forms or is breaking up, to be restored a few days later. Or, again, though we fully recognize the difficulty of transcribing Russian names, it is not sufficient to give them as each person fancies they are pronounced, on the ground that "it would, in fact, be impossible to do otherwise" (p. 240). Half an hour's study of the alphabet would have done much to remove this impossibility, and would have perhaps prevented the three cases of impossible spelling in the table of contents alone. To be sure, names in other languages fare little better. Bonvalot is on page 146 printed Bouvalot, Curzon invariably Cruzon.

We repeat, however, that these are not the chief defects we find in the author. What we object to far more is ignorant generalizations, and his peevish criticisms whenever he meets with an annoyance. Witness his wrath that the small bank in Samarkand would not cash his letter of credit, on which it was not mentioned. This causes him to declare that "it would almost seem that if Russia did not make the life of her people as hard, horrible, and inconvenient as possible, she would fear the total wreck of her empire" (p. 151). The same spirit inspires the remark, "If Russia did not want us to come, she should have said so at St. Petersburg and ended the matter there," and the appreciative reflection on an invitation to dine with the Governor-General of Turkestan, that, "with the breath of the outside world which we brought into the dead monotony of his household, we amply repaid him for his courtesy" (p. 181). We can assure our author, too, from personal experience, that it is not true that all strangers, or even all Americans, arriving at Samarkand "are subjected to almost an autopsy on arrival, in order to satisfy these servants of the Czar that their internal construction does not hold something that may be prejudicial to the interests of that potentate" (p. 123). In short, Mr. Shoemaker's book contains nothing that is new, and we bring away from it an impression of faults of grammar and taste, and of petty complaints and foolish remarks about Russia, full of nonsense about the Czar and Czardom.

John Bull & Co.: The great Colonial Branches of the firm—Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. By Max O'Rell. New York: Charles L. Webster & Co. 1894.

WE always read Max O'Rell's "impressions" with pleasure, because, whatever else he is, he is never dull—not even now that he has, as he tells us, "delivered four hundred and forty-six public lectures in the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, under the direction of Major Pond in America and Mr. Robert S. Smythe in the Colonies." With his quick eye for character and his thoroughly French wit, he stands by himself as an observer, and to us he often seems a better one than many a profounder and more thoughtful critic. This present volume gives an account of some of the countries in which he lectured for two years, and if it is not as good as 'John Bull and his Island,' it is partly because the countries themselves are not so interesting; as he says himself, a new country cannot be as interesting as an old one.

Max O'Rell's impressions relate entirely to the Anglo-Saxon world. He tells us that he neither speaks nor understands German, and is "foolish enough to boast of it," but of the English-speaking world he writes with some authority. The English character evidently has a fascination for him, and the British empire he rightly regards as one of the most astonishing achievements in the art of government that the world has ever seen. Whether or no he labors under the impression, from which no Frenchman ever frees himself without great difficulty, that the English empire has been built up as the result of a carefully prepared scheme of foreign aggrandizement, deliberately acted upon by a succession of ministries for generations, we do not quite make out. Nothing is clearer, of course, than that a very great part of her empire has come to England as the result of chance rather than design, and that there has been an absolute lack of any common or continuous purpose of foreign aggrandizement. The conception of John Bull as a powerful, scheming villain, whose plan is, and always has been, to get possession of his neighbor's lands and chattels, is thoroughly French, and is one of the things which embitter the discussion of all their differences with England to a degree difficult for any one not a Frenchman to comprehend. But, whatever his secret opinion may be, Max O'Rell is altogether too clever to involve himself in controversy on this subject. No matter what the British empire is, or how it was got together, his business is simply to see and report what it is, and for many reasons the report of a Frenchman as intelligent as he throws a new light upon it.

'John Bull & Co.' is a very amusing book, and, on the whole, no one is likely to get more amusement out of it than an Englishman.

London and the Kingdom. By Reginald R. Sharpe, D.C.L., Records Clerk in the Office of the Town Clerk of the City of London. In three volumes. Vols. I. and II. Printed by order of the Corporation. Longmans, Green & Co.

THE historical student has often to thank the chances of current politics for the publication of valuable material; and he has, almost as often, to regret that preoccupation with current politics has prevented the material from being presented in quite as useful a form as he could wish. The cluster of wealthy and dignified persons who govern the little historical centre to which alone belongs in strictness the name of the City of London, has been greatly exercised, and very naturally, by the proposals of the London County Council, which rules the great area all around, for a "unification of London." In their anxiety, they have wished to reassure themselves, and to impress the outside world, by the recital of all the great and good things the corporation has done in the past; and accordingly, in 1889, they instructed Dr. Sharpe, their Records Clerk, to prepare a work "showing the preëminent position occupied by the City of London, and the important function it exercised in the shaping and making of England." The result so far is these two sturdy volumes: one, of 566 pages, coming down to 1603, the other, of 650 pages, stretching from 1603 to 1714.

The humble scholar will be moderately thankful. The foot-notes reveal sources of information to which he can have recourse. The volumes are intelligent journey-work, scholarly, moving with complacent jog-trot from year to year; and so far as we can test the statements they seem trustworthy. There are, indeed, slips from time to time—as where, on the second page, Bede's "multorum emporium populorum" is turned into "Emporium of the World"; and we cannot say we altogether trust the author's critical acumen. Still, it is a good and substantial performance—of its kind. But there's the rub! The book was, of course, intended by its patrons to be a eulogy of London. Fortunately Dr. Sharpe is too good a scholar, and unfortunately he is too little of a man of letters, either to fall to the depths or rise to the heights which such a programme might have suggested. To represent London as "shaping and making" for eight long centuries, and never as misshaping—that London which, as Dr. Stubbs says, was "sometimes the brain, often the purse, but never the heart of England"—was beyond him; and so he fell back on bare statements of fact, reliable enough, but very dull.

Perhaps a voice from across the Atlantic

may penetrate even the Common Council of the City of London. We would urge upon it that it is high time that the city set about the establishment of an adequate department of Archives; that Dr. Sharpe has shown by his *Calendar of Wills* that he is quite competent to tell them what the work of a city archivist ought to be; and that if they will realize their duty in this regard, they will win the respect of scholars—allies not to be despised even in this democratic age.

L'Histoire Ancienne des Peuples de l'Orient. Tome 1. Les Origines: Égypte et Chaldée. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern. 8vo. 1894.

The Dawn of Civilization: Egypt and Chaldea. By G. Maspero, Member of the Institute and Professor at the College of France. Edited by A. H. Sayce, Professor of Assyriology, Oxford. Translated by M. L. McClure, Member of the Committee of the Egypt Exploration Fund. With maps and over 470 illustrations and plans. D. Appleton & Co. 1894. Large 8vo, pp. xii, 800.

THE two tasks which Prof. Maspero has undertaken in this first volume of what will be a monumental work, are very different. In the case of Egypt the material is supposed to be quite accessible and well known; in the case of Assyria and Babylon it is only partly unearthed, and none of it lies open to the casual gaze of the tourist. The former task relates to a land of pleasure-seekers and excursionists; the latter to a land where the Occidental seldom goes except on a special mission armed with a Turkish firman instead of a Cook's ticket. In either case the "*origines*" are shrouded in mystery—confessedly so in the second instance, and far more so in the first than is generally supposed. The civilization of the Nile as it is first revealed to us in monumental remains is full-blown and perfect in many respects. That of the Euphrates is discovered only after long study and patient investigation. Its growth may be traced more in detail than the other, and the student has merely to piece together the fragments that his industry discovers. The difference in the case of Egypt is scarcely credible. Myths concerning the gods and their doings have in a very few cases been preserved in fairly full shape, but for the most part we are left to infer the details from fragmentary statements and occasional phrases imbedded in religious texts. History does not begin even with the earliest reputed human king, but later generations wove legends about his venerated name and the names of his successors. Then suddenly the fourth Egyptian dynasty appears, like Minerva, full-grown and panoplied, upon the field. To explain the apparition of a civilization in which were order, government, classes of society, arts, industry, such as are here revealed is a task still unsolved. A society which couched its thoughts in an alphabetic writing, and which showed such a degree of artistic skill in delineating the characters in stone, must have been preceded by a long course of development somewhere and somehow. But here the author, like any other man, stands in expectant attitude, only able to postulate several thousand years of antecedent growth. No more than any other can he tell where its seat was or where its memorials are.

The problem is, likely enough, insoluble. Whence came this wonderful people? Whence came their ability to cut the hardest rocks and to inscribe on them the most delicate hieroglyphs? Whence did they derive their language and their graphic system, which still well-nigh defies the efforts of the decipherer? To these questions only half-answers can be given. In the nature of the case, satisfactory replies cannot be expected, and Prof. Maspero does not essay the task. His purpose is to collect those things that are known and to set them forth. He does not theorize and insist dogmatically on his theory. He presents the facts that are known and lets them speak for themselves. He hints that an unexpected turn of the explorer's spade may reveal clues at any moment, but as yet we are largely working in the dark. The duty of the hour is the preservation of that which is exposed to the destruction wrought by vandals, native or imported. Systematic excavation and search are things of the future, and even then they may prove unavailing. The earth has swallowed up the traces of the original dwellers on the Nile, and only Petrie has attempted to follow their course and to discover their descent. In passing, it may be remarked that it is strange that Maspero does not seem to have given to the results achieved by the explorer of Koptos and Medum the credit which is their due. Diversities in prehistoric burial customs and specimens of non-Egyptian art found on Egyptian soil would appear preëminently to belong to the "*origines*," and they should have found a place in these pages; but our search for them has been in vain. It may also be remarked that the author still holds, apparently, to his former notion touching a prehistoric origin of the great sphinx of Gizeh, unaffected by Petrie's cogent reasons for placing it much later.

The work of Maspero, as noted above, has been planned for the most part along the lines of actual knowledge. He takes up the myths and the earliest remains, and out of them he weaves a connected story. The land and its peculiarities, the gods and their attributes, the mythical beings who ruled Egypt in the ages of the demigods, the early kings of pre-monumental times, the consolidation (or rather the consolidated form) of government and society as the earliest extant monuments exhibit them, the period of decay which followed the sixth dynasty, and the brilliant period of the twelfth dynasty, when the bounds of the dominion of the Pharaohs were extended to include nearly the whole of the region within which the Nile was one river without tributary or branch—these form the theme of the portion of his work that relates to Egypt. The treatment is thus partly historical and partly archæological. In the case of Assyria and Babylonia, the treatment is mainly of an archæological character. There are no such fundamentally perplexing problems as those noted above. For instance, the development of the cuneiform system of writing may be traced from the hieroglyphic picture to the wedge, but the beauty of the Egyptian hieroglyphs was as great, perhaps greater, in the first period as ever after, and in phonetic power they remained practically unchanged through all time. Questions regarding the "Akkadians" and the "Sumerians" may have been perplexing, but they are nothing as compared with those that are presented by a ready-made and full-grown civilization. But if the problems were as perplexing, we should not expect a specialist in another department to go into them at length. In the earlier and larger portion of the volume the author is thoroughly at home and is an acknowledged authority. In the latter he is a compiler of other men's results. His text is unencumbered with the details that delight the heart of the scholar and are so detestable to the "ordinary reader"; the details are in the notes which abound on every page.

The translator has introduced some changes into the English edition, but he has not gone as far as he might The general map including both countries is valuable, and the index is a most worthy addition. One can only regret that it was not made more exhaustive and thorough: the notes and authors' names are entirely neglected. In conclusion it may be said that the work itself is one of the most noteworthy contributions that have been made to the subject in many years, full and wonderfully inclusive. The severest criticism that one is inclined to pass upon it concerns a certain diffuseness of style that has considerably increased its size.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bailey, Harriet M. On the Chafing-Dish. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Ballantine, Henry. On India's Frontier; or, Nepal. J. Selwin Tait & Sons. $2 50.
Bamberger, Ludwig. Politische Schriften von 1848 bis 1868. Berlin: Rosenbaum & Hart.
Bedlow, Henry. The White Tsar, and Other Poems. Illustrated. J. Selwin Tait & Sons. $3.50.
Bennett, Prof. C. E. A Latin Grammar. Boston: Allyn & Bacon 80 cents.
Billings, Dr. J. S., and Hurd, Dr. H. M. Suggestions to Hospital and Asylum Visitors. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Colvin, Sir Auckland. John Russell Colvin. [Rulers of India.] Macmillan. 60 cents.
Dumas, Alexandre. La Poudre de Soissons. Longmans, Green & Co. 40 cents.
Fletcher, J. S. The Wonderful Wapentake. Illustrated. London: John Lane; Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.
Greene, F. D. The Armenian Crisis in Turkey. Putnams. $1.
Henty, G. A. Dorothy's Double. Rand, McNally & Co. 75 cents.
Heysinger, L. W. The Source and Mode of Solar Energy throughout the Universe. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Howe, Rev. R. H. Quadragesima: Thoughts for Each Sunday in Lent. Whittaker. $1.
How to Govern Chicago. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Hume, Fergus. The Lone Inn. Cassell. 50 cents.
Jones, H. S. Select Passages from Ancient Writers illustrative of the History of Greek Sculpture. Macmillan. $2.25.
King, Dr. C. R. Life and Correspondence of Rufus King. Vol. II., 1795—1799. Putnams.
Knapp, Adeline. One Thousand Dollars a Day: Studies in Practical Economics. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co
Labiche, E., and Martin, E. La Poudre aux Yeux. Maynard, Merrill & Co.
Macaulay, G. C. The Chronicles of Froissart. [Globe Edition.] Macmillan. $1.25.
Marryat, Capt. Japhet in Search of a Father. Macmillan. $1.25.
McLaughlin, J. M., and Veazie, G. A. The Advanced Fourth Music Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.05.
Meredith, George. The Tale of Chloe, etc. Ward, Lock & Bowden.
Milton, John. L'Allegro, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Morrison, Arthur. Martin Hewitt, Investigator. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Muir, M. M. P. Tables and Directions for the Qualitative Chemical Analysis of Moderately Complex Mixtures of Salts. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Nernst, Prof. Walter. Theoretical Chemistry. Macmillan. $5.
Never! Social Handbook. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Nevius, Rev. J. L. Demon Possession and Allied Themes. F. H. Revell Co. $1 50.
Partridge, W. O. Technique of Sculpture. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Phillips, Maurice. The Teaching of the Vedas. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Postgate, J. P. Corpus Poetarum Latinorum. Fasc. I. and II. London: Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Scott, Sir W. Anne of Geierstein. 2 vols. Fair Maid of Perth. 2 vols Woodstock. 2 vols. [International Edition.] Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan & Taylor Co.
Scudder, J. W. First Latin Reader. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 90 cents.
Sephton, J. The Saga of King Olaf Tryggwason. London: Nutt: New York: Macmillan. $5.
Sheffield, Charles A. The History of Florence, Mass. Florence, Mass.: The Author. $2.50.
Sheldon, W. L. Story of the Life of Jesus for the Young, Told from an Ethical Standpoint. Philadelphia: S. B. Weston 50 cents.
Smollett, Tobias. Peregrine Pickle. 2 vols. Illustrated. London: Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Smollett, Tobias. Roderick Random. Illustrated. London: Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Solovyoff, V. S. A Modern Priestess of Isis. Longmans, Green & Co. $2
Sutton, Ada L. Lingua Gemmæ: A Cycle of Gems. Merriam Co. $1.50.
Tolman, W. H. Municipal Reform Movements. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Vachell, H. A. Judge Ketchum's Romance. J. Selwin Tait & Sons. $1.
Viollet-Le-Duc, M. E. Rational Building. Macmillan. $3.00.
Waggaman, Prof. Samuel. A Compendium of Botanic Materia Medica. Revised and corrected ed. Washington: W. H. Lowdermilk & Co. $2.
We Three and Troddles. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus.
Wilkinson, Spenser. The Brain of the Navy. London: A. Constable & Co.
Wilson, V. Guide to the Yukon Gold Fields Seattle, Wash.: Calvert Co. 75 cents.
Wolcott, Miss Julia A. Song-Blossoms. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 21, 1895.

The Week.

THE business outlook is improving. Even those trade journals which have been most pessimistic heretofore acknowledge this fact. Among the causes of the better condition, by far the most important is the assurance conveyed to the public, and now abundantly confirmed and universally believed on both sides of the water, that the gold standard is to be maintained. This has given confidence to the possessors of capital, which was the only thing needed to set the wheels of production revolving. The bond syndicate has done what it undertook to, and even more; it has thus far controlled the rate of sterling exchange so that gold could not be exported. It has done this in addition to the delivery, at regular intervals, of the gold which it contracted to supply to the Treasury. It is within the bounds of truth to say that no other group of men in the world could have accomplished this feat. The importance of it is beyond estimation, since it arrested a panic the consequences of which nobody can depict any more than he can tell how far a prairie fire will spread after it is once started. It is not to be supposed that these men have been meeting all demands for foreign exchange below the gold-shipping point since the 2d of February without cost to themselves, seeing that gold was going out before that date at the rate of $10,000,000 per week. Whether they make a profit or not at the end of their undertaking depends on circumstances. They have certainly deserved it, but they have not yet reached the end. The clamor of envious tongues has now nearly ceased, and has dwindled to a few objurgations about the tightness of money, which is attributed to the operations of the syndicate. If it were due to them it would be another title of honor, because tightness of money means employment of money, and is the surest sign of the betterment of trade.

An actual and bona-fide sale of American woollens has been made in Bradford, the great English centre of woollen manufacturing. This is said to have been the first shipment of American woollens ever made to Europe. In itself of no great moment, as the goods were only in a single line, the event has naturally made a great stir in woollen circles. The shipment was made by W. E. Derby & Co. of this city. In explanation a member of the firm says:

"As soon as a reduction of duties was effected on manufactures of wool, we commenced to investigate the matter of a possible exportation of domestic fabrics; we compared the foreign and domestic prices as they gradually approached each other, and the fabrication of the closely competing foreign and domestic fabrics, with the result that we discovered an opportunity to gain a foothold for American woollen goods in England, even though small. In endeavoring to make a place for these goods we found much prejudice existing against the use of stock which people there were not accustomed to, and found it necessary to sell the goods at lower prices than we could purchase similar goods of English manufacture for; at the same time we were selling at a profit. We in fact could not buy similar English fabrics at within 4 pence of what these American goods were sold at, but as soon as our line of goods becomes better known I have no doubt but that we shall be able to obtain from 3 to 4 pence per yard more than now."

There is something painfully un-American about this. The woollens did not even "follow the flag." They unpatriotically went on the *Teutonic*. No drum-beat, no guns, no powerful naval demonstration preceded and caused their shipment, but in the basest and most mercenary spirit they were sent over because they could be sold "at a profit." This is a distinct degradation of international trade from its holiest uses, and what is responsible for it? Another un-American thing, "a reduction of duties." At least, that is what the exporters say. But we shall not so far cater to universal scepticism as to credit this explanation. Too many innocent and trusting minds have been taught at their mothers' knees to believe that a reduction of duties meant a general dumping of goods on us, to make the suggestion that it really means our dumping the goods on other people seem anything but sacrilegious. We hope, however, that McKinley and the great wool-gatherer, Judge Lawrence, will make haste to advance a "new theology" of protectionism, into which these disturbing facts may be fitted without upsetting the precious faith of the little ones.

A Spanish war-ship on March 8 attempted to stop an American steamer six miles from the shore of Cuba. For this purpose it fired a blank charge across her bows. The American captain chose not to obey the signal. Thereupon the Spaniard gave chase and fired a shot at him, which fell a quarter of a mile short. As the American was steaming thirteen miles an hour and the Spaniard only eleven, the latter was soon dropped astern. These facts were well adapted to display by head-lines, of which the *Tribune* supplied fourteen, besides a picture of the steamer that was fired on. The *World* did much better, for it had a picture of both ships while the firing was going on, which showed a shell exploding within ten feet of the American ship—a fact which was not mentioned by the captain. It also had portraits of most of the officers of the steamship that was fired on. We tremble to think what Senator Lodge will say about it when his turn comes. He said the other day that Halifax threatened us. If that is true, what words will express his indignation at this Spanish assault upon our rights and dignity? Secretary Gresham has added to the other enormities of his career that of writing a despatch to the American minister at Madrid on the *Alliança* affair without letting the newspaper men know anything about it, thus luring them into the belief that he was doing nothing, or worse than nothing—that is, trying to find out the other side of the case, which is worse than nothing. Thus some of them "went off at half-cock," and are now subjects of laughter from a cynical age.

The energy displayed by the Governor of Colorado in bringing to justice the murderers of the Italians at Walsenburg is much to be commended, and is in glaring contrast with the proceedings in Louisiana in 1891 when the jail was broken into by a "respectable mob," and a number of prisoners brutally killed. In that case the Italian ambassador, after making a demand for the punishment of the murderers and reparation for the families of the victims which the secretary of state, Mr. Blaine, was unable to comply with, demanded his passports and withdrew. Regular diplomatic relations between Italy and the United States were suspended until some time later, when Mr. Blaine managed to save up enough money from the contingent fund of his department to satisfy the pecuniary claims. Nothing ever was done to bring the murderers to punishment. On the contrary, the leader was fêted and toasted at home as though he had deserved well of the republic, and a few years later he received similar honors in Boston, but not for that reason—probably the killing of the Italians had been forgotten. The promptness of the action taken in Colorado is perhaps due in large part to the steps taken by Italy after the New Orleans affair. It is not a pleasant thing to have one's country stigmatized as unfit for diplomatic relations by reason of the lawless character of its inhabitants and the inability of its Government to protect the lives of foreigners who have a right to be here. We shall hope to see the efforts of Gov. McIntire crowned with success.

New Orleans has at last some lawlessness of which she appears to be ashamed, and which, though several days late, she means to put down. The striking 'longshoremen have but taken a leaf out of the book of the "first citizens" who, only four years ago, got their rifles and massacred the Italians. What wonder that the strikers should have accepted powder and ball as the proper New Orleans method of arguing? Is a negro any better than a "Dago"? Let ten-dollars-

a-day arbitrators say that the strikers were too hasty, that they should have appealed to arbitration; the fact remains that the 'longshoremen thought as straight as they shot. Those negroes were doing *their* work, drawing *their* wages, taking the bread from *their* wives and children. Can you parley with robbers? No; the thing to do is, as Parkerson told the mob that massacred the Italians, "Get your guns." This the 'longshoremen did, and thereby showed an admirable perception of the conclusions to which the modern doctrine of the rights of labor directly leads.

The shocking riot in the Indiana Legislature in which so many persons were hurt and the ribs of the Governor's secretary broken, was a regular football attempt to "tackle him low," so as to prevent his reaching the Speaker with a bill, and a distinguished football player really won fresh honors in the mêlée. The row arose over a bill intended to substitute a Republican for a Democrat as custodian of the State-house. The Republican majority passed the bill, but the Democratic Governor held it till the last moment so that when he vetoed it the Legislature could not pass it over his veto. The object of the Republicans, therefore, was to prevent the veto reaching the Speaker before adjournment, and for this purpose they bucked and tackled the Democrats. So many Republicans were, however, injured in the fray, that he finally got to the Speaker's chair, with a bleeding face, a broken rib, and a lacerated diaphragm. It is said the parties are all ashamed of the scrimmage now, and well they may be, but they would do it again. The affair is one more contribution to the mass of scandal which, all over the country, is discrediting representative government.

The point in the matter, however, which most deserves attention is that the row arose over a small office, and that probably nothing else in the world could have caused it. Neither war, currency, taxation, prohibition, nor any other subject likely to engage the attention of the Legislature, or lying within its jurisdiction, could possibly have led to such a scene. Concerning such matters most politicians nowadays are comparatively lukewarm. They do not give them very serious consideration. They do not become excited about them. The thing which most occupies their minds in all political contests is the offices which are likely to be at their disposal in case they win an election. The thing which most exasperates them when they lose one is the seizure of the offices by the other fellows. When this city was throbbing last fall with horror over the revelations of the Lexow committee, and vowing before high heaven that this great shame should cease, what the political men were thinking of was the number of offices the shame would probably give them, and the persons who would probably get them. Lauterbach went to work promptly, not to draft reform bills and bring criminals to justice, but to make out his "list," and Platt got the Legislature together to consider how many offices the mayor ought to give in payment of a reasonable amount of reform.

Another week has passed at Albany, making ten since the session began, and the various municipal reform bills have made no progress. The city-magistrates bill, the public-school bill, the real-estate sales bill have not advanced a particle from the positions which they occupied a week ago. They are all "hung up" under Platt's orders, and they will be kept so until the Platt men are frightened into taking them down. The chairmen of all the committees, especially those on cities and the judiciary, in both houses, are such servile Platt agents that it is impossible to reach them by ordinary powers of persuasion. Nothing less than a mass-meeting moves them, and then they respond as slightly as they think to be safe. It is necessary that the people, and especially the Republicans of the State, should realize the importance of exerting themselves to bring pressure upon these enemies of the public welfare. If this Legislature fails to keep the pledges upon which its Republican members were elected, it will be a long time before Republican promises of reform will be able to attract independent votes again in this State, and without that support the Republicans cannot hope to win. Then, too, the whole country is watching the struggle here, and if reform be defeated the effect upon national Republican prospects cannot fail to be disastrous.

The presentment of the special grand jury against the Police Department, accompanied by the indictment of eleven police officials, is another demand upon the Legislature for a thorough reorganization of that department. It emphasizes the popular verdict upon the revelations of the Lexow committee as expressed at the polls in November. It justifies and approves the work of the Committee of Seventy, both in the late election and in the preparation of measures of police reform since election. The voice of the city has been heard many times now. It spoke first in the election. It spoke again in the Cooper Union mass-meeting. It spoke again in the Chamber of Commerce meeting. It has spoken repeatedly through the Committee of Seventy, through the various reform organizations, and through other bodies of its leading citizens like the Union League Club. The special grand jury, like the Committee of Seventy, is a representative body of citizens, but it speaks for the city with even greater force, for it acts under legal restrictions and auspices which give its words especial solemnity and weight. Even Lexow cannot denounce it as a "gang of reformers" merely.

The decision rendered by the Supreme Court of Illinois last week against the constitutionality of a recent eight-hour law of that State is essentially a declaration in favor of the right of free contract. The law provided that "no female shall be employed in any factory or workshop more than eight hours in any one day, or forty-eight hours in any one week." It was one of Gov. Altgeld's pet measures. The court holds that women and men are on the same footing as regards contracts regulating their labor and hours of work; that the restriction made by the law is in conflict with the provision of the State Constitution that "no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law," the right to labor or employ labor and to make contracts being included in this provision; the section which forbids women to work more than eight hours a day in a manufacturing establishment, while permitting them to work as many hours as they see fit at other occupations, is declared to be an unconstitutional discrimination. The court holds that the Legislature has no power to substitute its own judgment for the judgment of an employer and employee in a matter about which the latter are competent to reach an agreement, and it will not accept the plea that the provision quoted is a sanitary provision, and therefore justifiable as an exercise of the police authority of the State. This power the court does not think can be invoked to prevent injury to an individual in a particular calling. The object of this law was to protect women from the exactions of "sweat shops."

Dr. Coan, in his comments the other day upon Mr. Shearman's arraignment of the Missionaries' Sons in Hawaii, spoke of his "strange sensations" in hearing in this country attacks on missionaries which in Hawaii used to be heard only from the rabble. But his strange sensations can be nothing to those of the Hawaiians themselves. For years they had been referred to as the crowning glory of missionary enterprise, and their praise was in all the churches. What solemn rejoicing there was when the American Board announced that the Hawaiians were all Christians, that they needed no more missionaries, that they would maintain their own churches—not only that, but would themselves send missionaries to other Pacific islands. Read the accounts of the Hawaiians given by Dr. Coan's own father, that heroic and gentle pioneer. While not concealing their weaknesses, he had warm words for their simplicity, their kindliness, their love for their native rulers, and their patriotic pride. If it is a question of "strange sensations," what ones could be stranger than those of these simple-mind-

ed natives as they read the abuse and slander poured out upon them by the American Board's agent in the islands, and by the pious clergyman, the Rev. Sereno E. Bishop, who a little while ago was praising and accepting favors from the very Queen that he has lately been charging with nameless vices. A good deal of this holy slander was reproduced with much effect in Senator Pettigrew's speech against annexation, and makes an edifying contrast to what the churches and Missionaries' Sons were all saying of the Hawaiians until the time came to rob them of land and flag.

The *Tribune* has addressed words of wisdom and solemn warning to Japan, which the rulers of that aspiring country will do well to heed. It takes occasion to point out that the acquisition of Chinese provinces, as a result of the war, would entail great embarrassments and expense upon the Japanese. Before rashly going ahead, it warns them to think of the large standing army they would have to maintain, of the fortresses and naval stations they would have to establish, and, particularly, of the loss of the great advantage they now enjoy of being free from foreign entanglements. In the same number of the *Tribune* a weighty protest is addressed to the French Government against squandering any more money in Madagascar. The present expedition is likely to cost $25,000,000, and French taxpayers would rather have less glory and colonial expansion and more hard cash in their pockets. This is good traditional American doctrine, but we fear the cynical Japanese and French will look upon it very much as they would on an offer of cast-off clothing. Such faithful readers of the *Tribune* as they are, know well that it considers the true national policy to be one of universal grabbing and absorption; naval stations and strategic islands and focal points and "keys" to be added every day. And how, then, has it the face to preach economy and caution and peaceful methods to the Japanese just as they are getting into position to do some grabbing themselves?

The "man on horseback" is always just around the corner in Spain, and when debts grow onerous, when political factions get by the ears, when civil order is threatened, he is the man to whom society turns as its saviour. Castelar's republic was upset and the Cortes dispersed by the Captain-General of Madrid in 1873, and now Castelar's newspaper is sacked by a lot of young lieutenants, who, instead of being punished, become at once the heroes of the hour and start a popular cry for a soldier at the head of the government. Gen. Martinez Campos made a good part of his reputation in putting down the former Cuban rebellion, and the critical state of affairs in the island may now have much to do with the demand for his accession to the premiership. But the appeal to him marks also a new stage in the disgust of Spaniards with the working of representative institutions as they have enjoyed them since the revolution of 1868. A civilian government they have found to mean a succession of factional chiefs, with the taxes ever growing and national bankruptcy ever nearer. The Constitution guarantees freedom of the press, but what do the young Hotspurs care for that, if the newspapers criticise them? Their first thought was to challenge all the editors, but finally they concluded to go and smash all the presses and office furniture and "stop the paper" in that effective way. The result has amply justified them, as the ministry was too cowardly to punish them, "adhesions" by telegraph came from all parts of the country, and the Government promptly resigned.

Indifference of the electors is urged by some French writers as a chief cause of the creaking and groaning of the machine of representative government in their country. They point to the recent municipal election of Marseilles, in which, out of 81,874 registered voters, but 17,848 took the trouble to go to the polls—this, though the cry that the Philistines, in the shape of the Socialists, were upon the city had been raised with great justification. A similar abstention of voters was noticeable in two elections lately held to fill vacancies in the Chamber: in one Paris arrondissement, and in the election of the late M. Burdeau's successor from Lyons, less than a quarter of the registered vote was cast. "If things go on in this way," says M. Paul Laffitte, who discusses the matter in the *Revue Bleue*, "municipal councillors chosen by one-fifth of the population will control one of the first cities of France, and Deputies elected by one-fourth of the voters will rule the country." Another writer analyzes the votes by which the present Chamber was elected, and asserts that three out of five voters took no part in its choice. The favorite remedy for the evil is that idle or suicidal one sometimes proposed in this country—compulsory voting. There is no chance, however, that it will be adopted in France any sooner than in this country, or that citizens there will be led to take an interest in politics from any motives but those which rule in every land of free suffrage, namely, political ambition or public spirit or self-interest or self-defence.

Mr. James Bryce has introduced a bill in the House of Commons authorizing the Board of Trade to inquire into the cause of labor disputes, to invite arbitration of them, to appoint the arbitrators, and to send for persons and papers and administer oaths in arbitration proceedings. That any such scheme will be more effective in England than here we doubt very much. The central difficulty is that if the decision be against labor, the employer will not get any labor at all, or get only discontented labor, and he will vastly prefer fighting his quarrel out until labor surrenders at discretion, or until he comes to an amicable agreement with it of his own motion, or until he is able to fill the places of the strikers with new persons eager for work. No plan for making defeated labor go back to work contentedly has yet been hit upon. They have sought to solve the problem in some of the Australian colonies by incorporating the trades unions, so that they could make contracts and be responsible in damages for breaches. But the responsibility in damages will be useful only when they have money in their treasury, and if they saw a case going against them, they would probably make away with it. In short, there is no way of getting around the fact that the root of the labor trouble is the low state of morality among the laborers, and in this world you must have either character or money to pull you through.

Whatever may be the decision of the German Government, under stress of political weather, in regard to letting loose a new flood of international palaver on silver, it is clear that the business sense of the empire is dead against any change in the monetary standard. On February 22, but a few days after the Chancellor had thrown his sop to the agrarians in the Reichstag, the German Board of Trade (*Handelstag*) took up the matter. There were present representatives of 104 different commercial and industrial associations, from all the leading trade centres, and without a dissenting vote the following resolution was adopted:

> "The German Board of Trade stands by its declaration voted in full meeting on March 12, 1886, that the German gold standard ought not to be interfered with; such interference should be looked upon as a deadly blow at the entire commercial life of the German Empire, and against it too loud and emphatic protests cannot be made."

The president was also authorized to call a special meeting of the board to take further and more urgent action if it should appear necessary. Writing of the significance of these proceedings, in the Berlin *Nation* of March 2, Ludwig Bamberger took the view that the attitude of the German merchants would make the Government give up the conference altogether. The latest despatches, however, seem to show that Hohenlohe is being pushed ahead by the council of state, and that a conference will be called. Opinions will differ as to the wisdom of such a course. That silver will emerge from any such conference more maltreated and outraged than ever is certain. Stewart is perfectly right about this. Meanwhile, from the silver standpoint, much precious time will be lost. Thousands of new mortgages will be executed by Stewart and others containing the deadly gold clause, and the business world will have time to intrench itself still more impregnably on the gold standard.

CONGRESS AND THE CONSTITUTION.

It would be difficult to overestimate the gravity of the discussion which has been going on before the Supreme Court in Washington on the income tax. The position taken on behalf of the tax by Mr. Olney and Mr. Carter is that Congress is the great depositary of the rights and privileges of the people; that Congress might not, it is true, exercise the taxing power arbitrarily, as, for instance, by taxing bald-headed men, but it might tax the rich because they were rich, for the benefit of the poor, and classify the population in any way it pleased for the purposes of taxation, and is the sole judge whether taxes are direct or indirect, uniform or not. Mr. Olney was equally emphatic in declaring that Congress could not make a mistake in declaring what public policy required in the matter of imposing burdens on some portions of the community from which others were exempt. "On that point Congress was the sole and final authority," and its decision, once made, was binding on all other departments of the Government. The court has already decided, too, that it may go further than this, and give a name to a tax, for administrative purposes, which will take it out of constitutional prohibitions, without reference to the facts—call it indirect, for instance, when it is direct, or uniform when it is discriminating; that is, has complete powers of nomenclature—dictionaries and popular usage notwithstanding. The court has also decided that, in the matter of currency, Congress may give the name of "money" to anything it pleases; that it may decree the circulation as legal tender of irredeemable paper as well as coin, and, presumably, authorize a man to pay his debts in any material it may choose to designate for the purpose. Congress has also, with the sanction of the court, taken away the benefit of the writ of habeas corpus from large bodies of unoffending persons who may be accused of having come here as "contract laborers," and denied to the courts the power of passing on the facts of their case, and enabled a subordinate officer of the Government to keep them in confinement for a practically unlimited period.

All this is done or permitted under the rule that Congress is supreme judge of what the "policy" of the nation ought to be. Ever since the war, the decisions of the Supreme Court have been steadily extending the range of this power of deciding what our policy ought to be. The only restrictions it has attempted to place on congressional powers of legislation have been in the deliverance of the States from some of the encroachments on their police powers which sprang up in the reconstruction period. Should the powers now claimed for it in the matter of taxation be added to the powers already secured in the matter of currency, it will have firm and unrestricted hold of the chief interests of the individual—of those which most nearly concern his happiness and prosperity. Unrestricted power of taxation is the greatest power over accumulated wealth, manufactures, industry, and personal freedom which any government can have; for liberty, as Hampden found out, cannot be worth much to a man who may be taxed in any way some other man pleases. If, in fact, the Supreme Court should sustain the income tax on the grounds set out in Mr. Carter's and Mr. Olney's briefs, Congress will stand practically in the position of the British Parliament, without the mass of customs and traditions which keep Parliament in check, and the Constitution will be mainly interesting as a somewhat obscure but venerable record of eighteenth-century political philosophy. Legislative power on any matter of great importance it will not have.

Whether this will be a good or bad state of things will depend on the kind of Congress we shall have. During the past hundred years our great boast has been that we had, by means of a written constitution, discovered at last the means of protecting liberty and property against the excesses and passions of democratic legislatures, and especially against the attacks on property of the poor, the greedy, and unscrupulous. In fact, it is largely on this ground that the Constitution was recommended for general adoption. For such a constitution the propertied and saving classes all over Europe are sighing to-day as they tremble before the advances of a fanatical socialistic democracy. We have on this account, we venture to say, more than on any other, excited the envy of all other nations. The Congresses we have had ever since the war, or at all events ever since 1870, have done a good deal to justify this envy to ourselves. When we recall their dealings with the two great questions of the tariff and the currency within that period, the idea of releasing our politicians from all restraints in deciding on policy might well alarm even the bravest of us. The idea that this last one, which has just dispersed, could have a "policy" of any kind, will excite the merriment of any one familiar with its members and their work.

Of course it may be said that, after all, Congress is the product of the popular vote, and to say that its errors cannot be corrected by the popular vote is to deny the fitness of democracy for the work of government. This is true of a united population which in its politics seeks only the general good by different methods. It is not true of a population in which class has been set against class, and the man who has saved and accumulated is marked out as a proper subject of taxation for the benefit of everybody who, *for any reason*, has less than he has. Nothing more certain to bring constitutional government to ruin than this idea working among a voting population, most of whom are poor, could be devised.

ECONOMIC FICTION.

Apropos of the discussion over the income tax, it is worthy of note that nearly every argument in its favor is based on the assumption that Congress is somewhat in the position of a benevolent and extremely wise despot, who is seriously occupied with the problem of making taxation equable and just, of making every man pay according to his ability, and no more. In fact, all rules of taxation framed by economists, including Adam Smith's famous rules, rest on the same theory. They all presuppose governments to desire just taxation, and to be anxious to receive light from the thinkers and economists as to what just taxation is. There has probably never been any age of the world in which theories of taxation were so much discussed by economists and sociologists, in which these gentlemen wrote so many books, and in which there were so many chairs in colleges devoted to instruction in the science of society, as the present one. Everything, or nearly everything, they say, however, has reference to what may be called an ideal world—that is, a world in which highly instructed men hold the reins of power, in which the observations of philosophers on social phenomena are carefully considered, and as far as possible embodied in legislation.

This view of the powers that be has been carried into the Supreme Court in the present arguments on the income tax, and has been already embodied by the Supreme Court itself in several decisions. Congress, according to these decisions, has a "public policy," based, as "public policy" should always be, on careful consideration of the national history, character, and manners, and tendencies, and of the national resources, checked and widened by the experience of the human race in other ages and countries. But if all other species of literature were to be lost, and we were to be known to posterity only through our books and lectures on taxation, political economy, and the science of government, we doubt if our descendants would get from them any idea of the kind of governments we really lived under. "Surely," they would say, "these ancients cannot have discharged all this wisdom into the desert air. There must have been legislators in all countries who gave ear to these treatises, and who sought to embody in their acts these remarkable fruits of philosophic research and meditation." What would be their astonishment, however, to find that this class had very little influence on legislation, and, in fact, that this influence diminished as institutions became more democratic, and as the cultivation of political science in the colleges and in literature increased.

The truth is, that our economists and professors are in this matter living in a fool's paradise. The government of the world has passed, or is passing rapidly, into the hands of men who know them not, or, if they know them, contemn

them. The "State" which they are saddling with so much responsibility, does not exist and probably never will exist. Their theories of taxation and their analyses of taxation with which they load their magazines, are looked on by the rulers of the world as so much idle speculation. They get but a contemptuous hearing in most legislative committee rooms. We have heard from a financier who went on to Washington to discuss with the committee of Congress the conditions of the late loan, that he found his audience so ignorant of the principles of finance and exchange, and so suspicious of him as a capitalist, that he forebore to say anything. The same thing would be true at Albany. The best minds in this city have been at work on reformatory bills, but they found their labors rejected with scorn by farmers and small lawyers. Loudly as our system of State taxation calls for reform, it has been found impossible in thirty years to secure any legislative attention to any new scheme framed by competent hands.

The lesson of all this is, not that we must sit down and despair of mankind, but that we should oppose every attempt to add to the powers of Government, and to enable simple majorities to get at people's property. If democracy should perish as previous systems have perished, it will probably be through attempting too much; and yet the tendency in that direction is very strong, and it is encouraged by many of the educated and wealthy class with a sort of suicidal *insouciance*. Take the assertion that the rich may fairly be set apart for heavy taxation for the benefit of the poor, which is at the bottom of the progressive income tax and the inheritance tax. All the economists who have advocated these have done so on a theory, probably hardly ever thoroughly thought out, that there was somewhere, above both rich and poor, some sort of earthly Providence who would see that the rich paid no more than they could bear, and did not pay enough to make them emigrate, or to weaken among young men the desire to accumulate, or, in other words, that the tax was just and scientific. If one of them had been asked, Would you think it just and expedient that the poor should decide how much the rich ought to pay, and treat the rich as a class apart, whose liabilities should be measured by the desire of the poor to be rich themselves?—he would undoubtedly answer that he never dreamed of such a thing; that class government was odious to him, and that he knew as well as any one the danger of driving the rich away by overtaxation. But there is no such power. The State is not an earthly Providence. The poor now hold the Government in most constitutional states, and the political motive which is most powerful among them is to make the rich pay as much as possible of the public expenses. They measure the rich man's fortune by the amount he has to spend, and they refuse to consider the general effect on industrial activity, and the desire to accumulate, of serious interference with his spending.

What most occupies the minds of the masses in all countries to-day is the possibility of a new mode of distributing wealth. The socialistic section wishes to seize all the means of production—land, mines, factories, and stock—or, in other words, rob the rich on a great scale. The less advanced section wishes simply to get at them by heavy taxation, and principally through direct taxes like the income tax, so as to make it less pleasant to be rich, to discourage the heaping up of wealth. It wishes, in other words, to destroy or greatly weaken the motive of nearly all our industrial activity, of nearly all efforts to "get on" in the world on the part of every class above the manual laborer, though this is the motive to which we owe nine-tenths of the material progress of the country during the past century. In fact, the socialistic agitation of the last few years has carried men's thoughts strongly towards schemes of more or less disguised spoliation, and away from the cultivation of character and frugality as commercial factors.

The main objection to our income tax is that it fosters these tendencies. It furnishes one class of the community (*i. e.*, the people who have not succeeded in securing four thousand a year) with legal machinery for charging another class (*i. e.*, those who have secured more than four thousand a year) with a large proportion of their own liabilities. It relieves all this first class, which is the more numerous, of the payment of a certain sum of money, and makes the members of the second class pay it. And it gets the help of a host of jurists and economists in spreading the fiction that this arrangement has been ordered after mature consideration and with a hearty desire to do what is exactly right and just, by a very wise body called Congress, which decides nothing without taking the interests of all classes into account. There has probably never been such ignoring of the facts of life as in this discussion.

INCOME TAXES IN 1787.

THE printed briefs and arguments in the income-tax case will be read with great interest. They will make, when bound, two large volumes. Those offered by Mr. Seward, and bearing exclusively on the inquiry whether or not, in 1787 and thereabouts, income taxes were used by the States of the Confederation, or afterwards by the States in Union, are intensely interesting in historical and economic aspects. The assemblage of so many controlling historic facts could have been made only by painstaking and enterprising search in the now excellent libraries of many historical societies. The learned monograph by Prof. Max West of the University of Chicago, on the teachings by political economists in regard to a definition of direct taxes, which the lawyers honored by presentation to the court in one of the contesting briefs, is an illumination for students.

The contestants of the income-tax law asserted that the tax is a "direct tax," and that the law imposing it is void because the tax is not apportioned between the several States upon the basis of the census; and if the tax be an "excise," it is void because not "uniform" throughout the United States. The attorney-general does not seem to have relied much on *stare decisis*, which, in lawyers' lingo, means that a previous decision of the court is to control when the same question is again presented. He merely said this: "If your Honors find this tax to be a direct tax, you can only do so by overruling five of the decisions heretofore given by this court." Alluding to the five decisions, Mr. Carter said in his brief: "To attempt at this late day to revise and reverse this unanimity of opinion, without the aid of new *historical* light, would be an extreme folly." That implied clearly that, in the opinion of the Government, *stare decisis* ought not to prevail against new historical facts showing that in 1787 "direct taxes" were generally understood to include income taxes. Mr. Carter distinctly conceded that, by these sentences in his brief:

> "It should be remembered that at that time *what is now understood by an income tax was unknown*. . . . The true inquiry is: What did those who adopted the Constitution mean? If there was at that time a clear, distinct, and well-known sense in which the term was used, the inference is very strong that such is its meaning in the particular case, unless there is something in the context pointing to a different signification. But if there was then no well-known and accepted meaning of the term, we must look altogether to the context and the surrounding circumstances for a right interpretation."

The attorney-general also conceded that the meaning of "direct taxes" is to be ascertained by traversing the historic route, for he said:

> "The legal definition of direct taxes in the Constitution is in truth not a scientific, but an historic one. The distinction made between direct taxes on the one hand and duties, imposts, and excises on the other formed part of one of the most famous compromises of the Constitutional Convention. By direct taxes the delegates meant certain taxes, and no other. They meant poll taxes and taxes on real property. This definition was fully explained by the Supreme Court in Hylton vs. United States."

Hylton's case was the "carriage case" decided in 1796.

Mr. Seward, and they who denounced the constitutionality of the odious income tax of 1894, insisted that the definition of "direct taxes" made by the court in four of the cited cases—the substituting of "land" for "direct" in the critical phrase—was a servile following of an uninformed definition in the first case of the five, which was the "carriage case"; that the definition was not based on evidence tending to show the sense in which the words were used by those who framed or adopted the Constitution, and

that even five such opinions are not to be considered as controlling, if new evidence shall be presented which conclusively establishes that the conclusions reached in the antecedent cases were erroneous. Courts, it was said, habitually reverse former decisions when new facts show that such former decisions were not well founded. Mr. Seward's brief exhibits what the opponents of the tax claimed were historic facts not presented to the court in any of the five cases. Some of the facts were, perhaps, not accessible when the "carriage tax" was decided. Certainly they were not obtained and used in the Springer case, argued by Mr. Springer, as Mr. Choate cynically remarked.

The facts are really new, in an historic sense, even to historians, and are so important generally that we shall endeavor to give very concisely the substance of them as presented by Mr. Seward. Under the Confederation, requisitions upon the States were, as every one knows, met by their own systems of taxation. Taxes were imposed by all the States upon land, polls, and specifically enumerated articles of property, including carriages. The requisitions were also met by a tax upon incomes. Vermont, by a law passed in 1779, rated certain classes of citizens in the lists proportionable to their gains and returns. Massachusetts, by the laws of 1706, 1738, and 1777, imposed a tax on "incomes from any profession, faculty, handicraft, trade, or employment," and the act of 1777 was continued by the Constitution of that State. An income tax is now imposed by Massachusetts in accordance with these laws, and has been so imposed since 1706. Connecticut, by a law passed in 1769, provided that all trades, tradesmen, and artificers should be rated proportionably to their gains and returns. Pennsylvania, in order to comply with a federal requisition, passed an act in 1782 by which all offices and positions of profit, trades, occupations, and professions were to be rated at the discretion of the assessors, having due regard to the profits arising from them. In Delaware a rule was established by the assessors and confirmed by long usage, to assess all persons at one-fifth part of their annual income. In New Jersey all artificers and persons in places of profit were made liable to an assessment for the same, according to the discretion of the assessors. In Virginia a tax was levied on lands and houses in towns of five-sixths of one per cent. of the ascertained or estimated yearly income arising from that species of property. In South Carolina a tax was imposed in 1701 upon estates, goods, merchandise, stocks, abilities, offices and places of profit of whatever kind or nature soever.

All of these taxes, whether upon lands, polls, or income, were proved to the court, by the debates in the conventions of the several States called to ratify the Constitution, to have been named and identified in each one of the States as "direct taxes" and to have been paid by the people, under the name of "direct taxes," for the joint support of their several States and of the federal Government. No other name was given at the time of the adoption of the Constitution, nor has any other name ever since been given to such taxes so paid by the States. The debates in the State conventions which were offered in evidence seem to us to prove that the delegates understood the difference between "direct taxes" and "indirect taxes," and acted, in the formation of the Constitution and in the provisions for the protection of the several States incorporated therein, upon the accepted definition of such terms. These State conventions, as well as the Philadelphia convention, drew a line of distinction between such direct taxes as they were then paying for the support of the general Government, including therein a tax upon income, and indirect taxes, such as excises, duties, and imposts.

These were the new facts which were brought before the court for the first time in the present cases. They show that Mr. Carter was mistaken when he said that, at the date of the adoption of the Constitution (1787), what is now understood by an income tax was "unknown." They also show, and precisely as Mr. Carter required, that "there was at that time a clear, distinct, and well-known sense in which the term [direct taxes] was used." If this be so, then Mr. Carter's further statement that "the inference is very strong that such was its meaning in the particular case," was correct, and was justified by the new evidence, and, therefore, the words "direct taxes" as used in the Constitution did include a tax on income in the understanding of those who inserted that phrase and who were at the time paying such a tax for the support of the federal Government.

It further appears from the new evidence that Chief Justice Marshall, when a delegate to the Virginia convention, said: "The objects of direct taxes are well understood. They are but few. What are they? Lands, slaves, stock of all kinds, and a few other articles of domestic property." He was speaking for the State of Virginia and of such taxes as were then imposed by that State. The "few other articles of domestic property" specified by him included a tax on carriages, under the then law of the State of Virginia. Mr. Madison concurred in the judgment that a tax on carriages was a direct tax within the meaning of the Constitution. It is quite evident, therefore, that if Mr. Marshall had been chief justice at the time of the decision in the "carriage case," he would not have concurred in the opinion of the court that the tax on carriages involved in that case was not a direct tax, but was an indirect duty.

"LABOR" VS. WORK AND WAGES.

LEGISLATIVE "hearings" are seldom scenes to which a wise man would resort in the hope of hearing wholesome truth set forth without fear or favor; but the hearing granted week before last by the committee on mercantile affairs of the Massachusetts Legislature was an occasion at which anybody but a legislator might have profited. The committee was about to go South to investigate the question of the competition between Southern cotton-mills and those of New England, and first invited some of the leading cotton-manufacturers of the State to present their views of the question. Such well-known men as Mr. Jefferson Coolidge, W. C. Lovering, A. A. Lawrence, and Joseph Healey appeared before the committee, and their remarks discovered a most extraordinary state of things.

The first point these manufacturers set forth with convincing evidence was the fact that their industry remains in New England at all only on sufferance. It is away from the raw material. It is away from a cheap coal-supply. It has to employ high-priced labor. On its side is the advantage of skill and experience, but these the Southerners are rapidly acquiring, and adding to their natural advantages for the manufacture of cotton. Within the past two years Massachusetts increased her spindles absolutely less, and comparatively much less, than the four Southern States which have taken up cotton-spinning. In the South new mills are building every day, while not one is building in New England.

Thus the natural tendency clearly is for the cotton industry of Massachusetts to go ultimately where her rolling-mills have gone, where her locomotive-works have gone, where her furniture-factories have gone, and where her shoe-manufacturing shows signs of going—"to seek the base of supplies," as Mr. Lovering said. Mr. Coolidge spoke with emphasis on the question of coal-supply. In the South, coal can be had for eighty cents to $1.50 a ton. "In Lowell the same coal will cost from $3.50 to $4.50." In his mill the item of coal alone meant an extra cost, as compared with the South, of $60,000 a year. This shows how true a representative of his section that New England Senator was—it was Senator Hoar, we believe—who said in the tariff debate that no New England manufacturer had asked for free coal. The Southern cost of labor is, according to Mr. Coolidge, 30 per cent. less than that in Massachusetts, and the mills are run from an hour to an hour and a half longer each day.

Now, with this fatal handicap laid upon Massachusetts cotton-mills, with the almost absolute certainty that they must ultimately go South in spite of everything, what would it be expected that the policy of the State would be towards them? Would not one say that the Legislature of Massachusetts, the stronghold of protec-

tion, the sacred seat of the Home Market Club, would surely do everything in its power to retain the industry, to refrain from assaults upon the $130,000,000 of capital invested in it, and to throw every make-weight into the scale in order to withstand the natural tendency as long as possible? But what are the facts? It has, in the first place, laid a great burden of direct taxation upon the mills. Mr. Coolidge said that a Massachusetts mill that had to pay $90,000 a year in taxes would, under English rates, pay no more than $30,000 to $40,000, while in the South it would not be taxed at all. But, worse than this, it has year after year pursued and pestered the manufacturers with "labor" legislation, until, as Mr. Lovering said, "No sooner does the Legislature assemble than a tremor runs through our business community—a fear lest some act will be done that will threaten the existence of our industries, or further impair the extremely small margin upon which they are carried on." Mr. Coolidge affirmed that the trades-unions and the bills "gotten up by some man who is mostly concerned with some fancy to do good to mankind," had already forced him to sell goods at a loss, and that it was simply a question of getting some relief or going South. Mr. Healey was blunt enough, and said: "I will tell you frankly when I was present and looking at the House of Representatives in this capitol, one would have thought it was the headquarters of the labor unions." He was told that the South's turn for labor legislation would soon come, and that then matters would be evened up; but what comfort was that to him if in the meantime he was ruined?

As a matter of fact, a Southern Legislature, that of North Carolina, was, almost at the same time, displaying a business sense that ought to make the Massachusetts Representatives blush for their Yankee 'cuteness. At Raleigh, as at Boston, "labor" was on hand with its bills for regulating the cotton-mills. But the whole batch of them was tabled as fast as they came up, and no more philanthropic reasons were given for this action than "the argument that any legislative 'monkeying' with the present condition of cotton-mill labor in this section would check the Southern movement in cotton-manufacturing, and cause many Northern investors who now contemplate putting money into Southern cotton-mill property to seek other fields for the safe and profitable investment of their capital."

The whole affair is an extreme but characteristic illustration of the idea that has got into so many heads that it is possible to legislate for "labor" without affecting work and wages. A "committee on labor" is about the deadliest enemy industry has to encounter. Suppose the Department of Labor were called the Department of Work; does not everybody see that all the glamour would be gone? "Labor" is not really concerned about work, about steady employment and regular wages, but about certain dignities and privileges, about certain crampings and hamperings of capital. It is not often, however, that the folly and fatuity of it are so patent as in this Massachusetts experience. The greatest folly of all is to suppose, as the sapient men at Boston did, that if North Carolina would only vex and oppress the manufacturers, then they could be kept in Massachusetts. Persecuted in one State, the manufacturers will undoubtedly flee to another; but persecuted in all States, they will simply cease to be manufacturers. Before confiscation in the name of "labor" arrives, there will be nothing to confiscate.

Correspondence.

THE ONLY POINT OF ATTACK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an editorial of the 14th inst. you pointed out in the strongest terms the danger of the reckless way in which Congress squanders the public money, and that the true cause lies in the anarchy, the want of cohesion and discipline, of that body. You then remark: "A thorough-going remedy it is idle to hope for. Other civilized governments themselves take exclusive charge of revenue and appropriation bills. To suggest that at Washington would have no more effect than an east wind blowing over the capitol."

But Washington is not the only place in the country. If civil-service reform had been left to the initiative of Congress, the Greek kalends might have passed before the first step was taken. What was accomplished was reached by popular agitation through the country. And the new issue is infinitely more important, because it covers the whole conduct of government, including civil-service reform just as much as the finances.

It is beginning to dawn upon the public mind that the tap-root of our difficulties lies in the usurped supremacy of Congress—as well as the State legislatures—in every department of government, executive, legislative, and judicial. The problem is to make the Legislature let go its hold and consent to restore the balance—first of executive power, in which stands first of all "exclusive charge of revenue and appropriation bills." This means war to the knife; a fight as bitter, though not as bloody, as that with slavery itself. It must be admitted, too, that the fight is against tremendous odds. The executive consists of one man, while Congress includes 450, all ready to pounce as one man upon the luckless individual who, in defence of the rights of his office on behalf of the public interest, shall dare to expose himself to the charge of personal ambition.

But there is no other road. This fact is well illustrated by the palpable inadequacy of the expedient which you suggest as a substitute because it appears to be more practicable of attainment. It fails because it seeks to evade the real issue—the overwhelming predominance of Congress—which is the keynote of the whole struggle.

There is this strong point on the other side, that popular enthusiasm always gravitates towards personality, and only needs the right kind to bring it out in irresistible force. I believe there is gathering in the public mind a mass of seething if silent indignation, which, like the electricity in a thunder-cloud, waits only for a lightning-rod or a tree-top to draw it forth. Mr. Cleveland's bond sale did more to put the question into concrete shape than anything since the war. Can it be possible that he will have the insight, the courage, and the patriotism to go steadily forward in the same path? May God grant it! G. B.

Boston, March 16, 1895.

THE INCOME TAX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read the arguments before the United States Supreme Court on the question of the constitutionality of the income tax as reported in my newspaper. Mr. Choate's position is, that a tax on the income from land is a tax on the land itself, and therefore a direct tax, which, under article i., section 2, of the Constitution, must be laid according to numbers. But this objection would invalidate the act only *pro tanto*—in respect only to incomes arising from land. It strikes me that the true ground is that the tax is virtually a capitation tax, which is forbidden unless laid in proportionate numbers (article i., section 9).

Now, there can be but two kinds of tax in respect to the *subject* of taxation—a tax on persons and a tax on things. A tax on things belongs to one or other of these two heads: (1) Imports, synonymous (see Worcester) with customs, and Duties on Imports; or (2) Excises, which (I quote from Walker's 'American Law,' a standard authority) "are impositions exacted upon the manufacture, retail, or consumption of commodities." Thus imports, customs, duties, embrace things imported from abroad, and excises are taxes on things made, sold, or consumed at home. And both these taxes have for their sole subject, not persons, but things; and things that are tangible, that can be—not indirectly or potentially, but directly and actually—used or consumed. Now, does the income tax belong to this category? If it does not—if it is not a tax on things—it must be a tax on persons; in other words, virtually a capitation tax.

It is true that there exist taxes which are neither on persons nor on things that are tangible, such as license taxes, or taxes imposed to authorize the pursuit of a certain trade or business. But this species of taxation is exercised under the general police powers that inhere in every state or national government, and the real object of which is not revenue, but the regulation of certain trades or businesses or to subserve some special public policy under those same police powers which are practically unlimited. An instance of this is the 10 per cent. tax on the circulation of State banks, the object of which, as every one knows, was not to add to the nation's revenues, but to secure to the people a safe and sound currency. Such taxes may bring in more or less income to the Government, but this effect is only incidental. They would often be laid and continued even if they brought nothing into the Treasury at all; and, relating only to the exercise of police, or quasi-police, powers, they are not such taxes as are contemplated in the Constitution.

My conclusion is, that the income tax, being a direct tax on persons, and laid, not according to numbers, but according to the incomes of the taxpayers, is unconstitutional.

Francis J. Lippitt.

Annapolis, Md., March 15, 1895.

WHEAT AND SILVER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your article, "A Pessimistic Outlook," in No. 1549, you mention "the popular belief, in many parts of the country, that if silver money were set afloat in large quantities, poor people would somehow get some of it into their pockets—an hallucination, which," etc. With the wheat-raisers of the Northwest this is not altogether "an hallucination," but a fact easy of demonstration.

These farmers are all in debt, and the debts are of several years' standing. They were contracted when money was plentiful—that is, when wheat was above a dollar a bushel, and everything else in proportion. With wheat at only 52 cents, it is plain that the effect is to double these debts. If some scheme could be devised to reduce their debts in the same ratio in which the volume of money in the country has shrunken—as measured by the price of wheat—then, no doubt, they would be in favor of sound money, with wheat and everything else cheap in the same proportion. Nor is it the original debt alone which is doubled by the low price of wheat, but the interest also. With wheat at a dollar a bushel, 8 per cent. was as easy to pay as 4 per cent. is with wheat at 50 cents.

And there is another point that persons in the East fail to consider. The very cheapness of living has raised the price of farm labor, especially at the harvest time, to the wheat-farmer, and increased its difficulties and annoyance. During the harvesting, many more hands are required than are kept the year round on the farm. These additional hands are, necessarily, of an inferior class—transients, tramps, hobos. The very fact that a man can be hired for a temporary job indicates that he is not good for much; good men have steady work. These harvest hands work till they receive their first payment, then quit and loaf, drinking and lounging as long as their money lasts. Then they work another spell, and so on. Any decrease in the cost of living and loafing only lengthens the intervals that they can lie idle; and also enables them to demand greater inducement to work at all—higher wages. This is no theory; it is the exact condition as it exists.

Now what the wheat-farmer wants is some sort of inflation that will raise the price of wheat and enable him to pay off the debts he contracted when wheat was high—some kind of bankrupt scheme, as it were, that will set him free from his back debts, but leave him his farm and stock. If he could but get a new start, he would care little whether money were scarce or plenty, whether all things were dear or cheap, so long as they were dear or cheap in the same ratio.—Very respectfully,

Matthew F. Steele.

Sturgis, S. D., March 11, 1895.

NEWSPAPER READING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article "Newspaper Dementia," in the *Nation* of March 14, touches a sore spot. It is true that the tone of our daily papers is deplorably low, cynical, and silly. In conversation I have frequently heard this remarked, sometimes with the addition that in this part of the country very little is read besides the daily paper and the latest novel. Upon such occasions a certain argument (a true newspaper argument) was sure to be brought forward, though it is curiously ludicrous. Some of those discussing the subject would surely say: "You must remember that this is a *new country*, and that European culture is many centuries older than ours." I have heard very intelligent people make this remark, and they did not seem to perceive its fallacy; it had come to them through the newspapers. They had forgotten that the Europeans who came here brought European culture with them, and remained in constant literary intercourse with the mother country; quite forgotten, also, what upon other occasions we do not fail to boast of, namely, that enormous efforts have long been made in this country in matters of education, and that in no country are donations for that purpose given so liberally and generously as among ourselves.

When we remind our friends of these facts, they are apt to say that people in this country are kept too busy in developing the great resources of the country and in making money. But it is easy to show that we have great leisure classes. First and foremost the children of the rich. These are, as a rule, remote from literary or scientific pursuits, and employ themselves in spending what their fathers earned. Next the women, in countless numbers, who have received a liberal education and are married to men of means. These are fully occupied with society duties and with the latest novels. Next the great army of professors and teachers who have two holidays each week during the school year, besides the long summer vacations. These say that when the school-day (of five or six hours) is at an end, they need rest; and when the five school-days end, they sorely need rest; and when the school-year ends, they are absolutely worn out.

These facts being mentioned, our friends, unwilling that we should appear thus wanting in literary interest, will "point with pride" to our public libraries. But inquire, we answer, as to what people get from the libraries, and you find the irrepressible novel uppermost. The strongest evidence, however, for the fact that very little is read in these parts besides the daily paper and the daily novel, is the almost total absence of a book trade. Almost the only books that can be bought here (besides novels) are books for practical purposes—law-books, medical books, popular theological books (for Theology with us is intensely practical). Now let any American travelling abroad note the difference in the literary atmosphere. In 1891, on a European tour, the first town I saw was Bremen, a mere trading town or commercial city. But how great was my surprise and how refreshing the fact that there were book concerns, three or four, well supplied with literary and scientific novelties.

Where, then, are we at fault? I should say that all our energies go to what we call the practical. Everything with us must serve a practical purpose—that is, some purpose whose utility can be estimated in money; whatever has no such commercial value is apt to be regarded as unworthy of attention or mental effort. So in our schools and colleges. The result is, that our young people fail to acquire scientific or literary tastes. Our libraries would be filled with books of better calibre had we the readers; and our great universities would turn out more men and women filled with thirst for truth and its discovery, did these institutions receive in greater number young people in whom that noble passion had been planted so as to take root.

Respectfully, Werner A. Stille.

St. Louis, March 16, 1895.

A NEW REVIEW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am glad to see that the suggestion of a new Review, recently made in your columns, is receiving attention. Given a management which shall be above the temptation to use such a Review as a mere money-making enterprise, which shall consider the inherent excellence of an article of more importance than the notoriety of its author, and the only bias of which shall be a bias for the sensible, well-considered discussion of such topics as would naturally claim a place in its columns, and it does seem that a living patronage might be secured.

There are many classes from which support could be drawn. The libraries belonging to institutions of learning, cities, towns, and associations of various kinds reach somewhere into the thousands in number. There are several thousands of college professors, instructors, etc., and a very much larger number of superintendents, principals, and teachers in the higher grades of our public schools who have sufficient interest in such matters to realize the value of such a Review. In the ranks of our physicians and lawyers is a large and increasing number of men interested in periodical literature of the better sort. The ministry of the various religious denominations supply thousands more of the same sort.

Should an effort be made to launch such a Review, all these classes can be reached with comparative ease, as lists of their names and addresses are easily obtained, and each class mentioned would certainly furnish a great many subscribers, *if the names behind the movement were such as to command immediate respect and confidence.* Of course there is a wide field for effort among men and women of literary tastes and pursuits outside the special classes enumerated above.

I am not sanguine enough to suppose that subscribers would flock in to such an extent as to enrich publishers, pay princely salaries to editors, and give contributors the scale of pay which a Kipling or a Du Maurier can command from the great magazines. A sufficient patronage to secure the proprietors against any irksome financial burden ought to be considered a success, and inasmuch as the field to be entered is absolutely unoccupied, the impossibility of securing this amount of support would be a severe reflection on American culture. W. H. Johnson.

Denison University,
Granville, Ohio, March 1, 1895.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce 'Russian Rambles,' by Miss Isabel F. Hapgood; 'After-Dinner and Other Speeches,' by ex-Governor John D. Long of Massachusetts; 'Chocorua's Tenants,' poems by the late Frank Bolles; a translation of selected essays by the late James Darmesteter; and 'Daughters of the Revolution,' by Charles Carleton Coffin.

Little, Brown & Co.'s spring announcements include 'Children of the Soil,' from the Polish of Sienkiewicz; 'A Madonna of the Alps,' from the German of B. Schulze-Smidt; 'Tales of the Fairies and of the Ghost-World, collected from oral tradition in Southwest Munster,' by Jeremiah Curtin; 'Pleasure Cycling,' by Henry Clyde; 'The History of English Law before the Time of Edward I.,' by Sir Frederick Pollock and Prof. F. W. Maitland, in two

volumes; and 'The Cause of Hard Times,' by Uriel H. Crocker.

Besides Prof. McMaster's fourth volume, D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready 'Actual Africa; or, the Coming Continent,' by Frank Vincent; 'The Gods, Some Mortals, and Lord Wickenham,' by John Oliver Hobbes; 'Bogmyrtle and Peat,' by S. R. Crockett; 'Majesty,' a novel, by Louis Couperus; 'The Story of Sonny Sahib,' by Mrs. Everard Cotes (Sara Jeannette Duncan); and a new edition of Smith's 'Dictionary of Terms, Phrases, and Quotations.'

Macmillan & Co. will publish a Life of Adam Smith by John Rae; 'Studies in Social Life and Theory,' edited by B. Bosanquet; and, in connection with J. M. Dent & Co., a translation of Balzac's works under the editorship and direct supervision of Mr. George Saintsbury, with etched illustrations.

A novelty in advertising is Mr. Unwin's 'Good Reading about Many Books, mostly by their Authors,' of which the title describes the contents. Mrs. Craigie ("John Oliver Hobbes") begins the confessions of Mr. Unwin's clients, followed by S. R. Crockett, W. M. Conway, and many other men and women bidden by their publisher each "to discourse of my craft, and especially of my apprenticeship thereto." Autographs and portraits make the collection still more curious, and the form is taking. Some American writers are on the list.

The reprinting of classical novels promises to go forward this year with renewed activity, and with no falling off in mechanical beauty. We have already spoken of the Macmillan series which began with Miss Edgeworth's 'Castle Rackrent'—plain duodecimos, in excellent typography and tasteful binding, very reasonable in price. The second issue is Marryat's 'Japhet in Search of a Father,' and we need say no more of it than that the illustrations are clever beyond the average. Yet we will add that, at the very end of the introduction with which each volume is to be supplied, the printer's devil has changed *picaresque* into "picturesque." The same firm publish vicariously in this country the Bohn's Novelist's Library (London: George Bell & Sons), of which we now receive Smollett's 'Roderick Random,' in one volume, and 'Peregrine Pickle,' in two. The first has a short memoir of the author with a portrait and a general bibliography, and each story is accompanied by a special bibliography, by J. H. Isaacs. The present reissue is further distinguished by the reproduction of Cruikshank's illustrations, which date from 1831. Here we have, again, good clear print and simple but presentable binding, at a really cheap figure. On a grade above the foregoing are the "Romances and Narratives by Daniel Defoe," edited by George A. Aitken, and to appear in sixteen volumes. They proceed from the same London firm of Dent & Co. which has scored such remarkable successes in fine bookmaking with Jane Austen, Fielding, etc., and as heretofore they are marketed by Macmillan on this side of the water. Mr. Aitken bids us anticipate (what he is well able to furnish) new and interesting particulars concerning each story or narrative (like the 'Journal of the Plague') as to the circumstances in which it was produced, the sources to which Defoe was indebted, and so forth. 'Robinson Crusoe' naturally leads off, in two delightful volumes bound in green cloth, with illustrations. A third, companion volume consists of the 'Serious Reflections of Robinson Crusoe' and the 'Vision of the Angelic World.' Mr. Aitken effectively disposes, in his general introduction, of Mr. Thomas Wright's contention, in his Life of Defoe, which we lately reviewed, that the 'Serious Reflections' are to be taken as literal and truthful autobiography. This edition is heartily to be commended, and needs but to be seen.

The Harpers have brought to a happy conclusion Mrs. Green's illustrated edition of her husband's 'Short History of the English People'—still short, although now spread out in four volumes of fair type. The pictures present the usual medley of map and portrait, medal and autograph, advertisement and label, miniature and tapestry, costume and industry, landscape and architecture, which are not close illustrations, following upon the heels of the text, and carefully inserted in their proper place, but a sort of obligato for the period. There is almost nothing trivial or forced in this generous selection. The chronological annals at the end, and the royal genealogical tables, are welcome adjuncts. The whole forms a gift book of a very high order, sure to be read, and equally in place on the shelf or on the centre-table.

Under the title, "Economic Classics," Macmillan & Co. are publishing a series of thin volumes, each containing what is thought to be most valuable in the works of some one of the great economic writers; the selection being made by Prof. W. J. Ashley of Harvard. There have appeared so far three of this series, viz., Adam Smith, Ricardo, and Malthus, and there are promised Mun, Child, Turgot, Quesnay, Roscher, and others. The volume upon Adam Smith consists of selections from the 'Wealth of Nations,' which amount in bulk, we should say, to about one-third of the complete work. We miss some favorite passages, and think every one would be the better nowadays for reading the whole of this great book; but no doubt an edition like the present will reach many who would not attempt a larger volume, and the omissions appear to be judiciously made. Of Ricardo only the first six chapters are given—sufficient to show his method and the more important of his conclusions. In the case of Malthus a somewhat different course is pursued, parallel chapters being taken from his first and second editions, somewhat in the line pursued by Mr. Bonar. Both Ricardo and Malthus we believe to be practically unread nowadays, even by those who discourse most glibly on their theories, and such as are conscious of delinquency herein may easily correct their error through the aid of this series.

Six addresses delivered at the annual meetings of University Extension students in London from 1886 to 1893 have been gathered into a small volume called 'Aspects of Modern Study' (Macmillan). The speakers were men of note: Lord Playfair, Canon Browne, Mr. Goschen, Mr. John Morley, Sir James Paget, Prof. Max Müller, the Duke of Argyll, the Bishop of Durham, and Prof. Jebb. It is not surprising that the Mansion House hall, as the secretary of the society informs us in his preface, was crowded to hear them. Yet most of the lectures, though interesting enough, contain little that makes them of permanent value. Their main import lies in their implicit or outspoken recognition of the principles and practices of university extension. Canon Browne, whose subject is "The Future of University Extension in London," even suggests the possibility of a system by which such study may get into some kind of connection with a university degree. His paper is, from an educational point of view, the most pertinent of the series, and is well worth reading—once—whatever may be thought of his views on metropolitan "teaching universities." Lord Playfair's discourse may be skipped without loss. It roams at will, and with much self-confidence, over various fields—some of them fields with which the lecturer has but slight acquaintance.

Mr. Joseph Jacobs, already favorably known by his 'Jews of Angevin England,' has made another important contribution to the history of the race in his 'Inquiry into the Sources of the History of the Jews in Spain' (Macmillan). It embodies the result of a mission to the peninsula to investigate the MSS. and documents relating to the Spanish Jews, and bears emphatic evidence to the indefatigable zeal of the writer, for he tells us that he spent but twenty-eight working days in examining the voluminous archives at Barcelona, Madrid, Alcalá, Simancas, and Pamplona. He has given us abstracts of a large number of documents relating to his subject, with transcripts of some of them in his appendix, and has added an elaborate list of Spanish-Jewish writers and an extended Spanish-Jewish bibliography, all of which must prove of much utility to students. The career of the Jews in Spain is of surpassing interest, and, from their being the cause as well as the victims of the Inquisition, they exercised a preponderating influence on the strange vicissitudes of the Spanish kingdoms. A volume, therefore, which, like the present, affords substantial aid to the elucidation of the complex problems involved is to be warmly welcomed. More careful proofreading, however, would have relieved it of its too numerous errors of the press. In the matter of dates alone we may point out that "the fatal year 1300" (p. xxviii) should of course be 1390. The date of 1221 (p. 70) ascribed to a bull of Gregory IX. is impossible, and on the same page Innocent VI. should be Innocent IV. if the date of 1250 is accurate, while on p. 149 the expulsion edict of Ferdinand and Isabella is credited to 1452 in place of 1492.

Mr. H. Stuart Jones's 'Select Passages from Ancient Writers Illustrative of the History of Greek Sculpture' (Macmillan & Co.) is adequately described by its title. The introduction informs us that it was prepared, at the request of Prof. Percy Gardner, for the use of students in the classical school at Oxford; and, this being the case, we wonder that the editor should have thought it necessary to translate all the passages selected. The fact that he has done so, however, will make the book useful to others, not classical students, who are interested in the history of Greek art. Text and translation are arranged in parallel columns, and many convenient notes and commentaries are interspersed by the editor. The book by no means takes the place of Overbeck's 'Schriftquellen,' and is not intended to, the number of passages relating to almost every sculptor being considerably less than those given by Overbeck, while Löwy's invaluable 'Inschriften' is only referred to occasionally in the notes. As a consequence the book will be of service only to beginners, and while the passages selected are invariably the most interesting, they are far from exhausting the knowledge to be gathered from ancient writers on the subjects to which they relate. There are a few quotations not given by Overbeck, among which we notice a passage from Niketas Choniates describing the destruction, in Constantinople, of a colossal bronze Athena, which is identified with the Promachos of Athens, and extracts from inscriptions found at Epidauros relating to Timotheos and Thra-

symedes, sculptors who were employed in the decoration of the temple of Asklepios.

Revived interest in municipal government is cause and theme of 'Municipal Reform Movements in the United States,' by W. H. Tolman (F. H. Revell Co.), of which the chief value lies in the useful list of reform organizations in various American cities, with officers, objects, and methods duly set forth, together with a record of clubs and associations, male and female, for civic betterment. With this volume may conveniently be coupled 'The Universities and the Social Problem' (London: Rivington, Percival & Co.), in which, by a dozen hands, the actual methods of the University settlements in East London are described. Both books will find a place on the shelf labelled Practical Reform.

A treatise upon the income tax law of 1894, prepared by Roger Foster and E. V. Abbot of the New York bar, is published by the Boston Book Co. Important as this act is, it would scarcely seem possible to make a book of nearly 550 pages upon it before it has received any judicial construction, although, if it be upheld, many volumes will be needed to contain the accounts of the litigation which it will cause. But by reprinting the old acts, the instructions to collectors, the copies of various forms now or formerly used, and by constant repetition, the authors have contrived to swell the work to its present compass. While we incline to think that a digest of the old internal-revenue reports might have been more valuable, we can testify, after a careful reading, that nearly every point upon which it is now possible to throw light has been here considered. The book is so prepared as to be available for non-professional readers, and is of service to lawyers especially on account of its annotations upon the statute, section by section. It must be said, however, that many of the citations are wholly irrelevant, and must have been introduced through hasty and careless preparation or as mere padding.

It was but a few months ago (so belated were we) that we gave a pretty full account of the scheme of Kürschner's 'Deutscher Litteratur-Kalender,' apropos of last year's issue. That for 1895 is now before us (Stuttgart: Göschen; New York: Westermann), and if we remark on its greater fulness and on the fact that the frontispiece is a portrait of Louise Reuter, there remains no further occasion to speak of this well-established personal directory and guide to German literary activity in all forms, at home and abroad.

Any one in search of grim stories should turn to Vladimir Korolenko's 'La Forêt murmure,' translated into French by R. Candiani (Paris: Colin & Cie.). There are two or three strong sketches in the book, grisly enough in subject and treatment, and very full of local color of Ukraine and Siberia. The longer story, "The Blind Musician," has passages of marked beauty, but lacks unity and vigor, becoming very monotonous, while "Makar's Dream" is positively childish. But the first two pieces suffice to make the volume attractive.

From the land of Maeterlinck comes 'Le Sire de Ryebeke,' by Marguerite van de Wiele (Paris: Librairie de *l'Art*). The Flemish legend, admirably told but for certain flaws of repetition and iteration, is sad and gloomy, but sadness, gloom, and suggestion of horror are what Maeterlinckites revel in. It is a mediæval tale of a girlish youth and a hard proud mother, and there is a suave poesy about it that lessens the feeling of pain the story evokes. Quaintly written, quaintly illustrated, it is more than attractive, it is fascinating.

It would be a curious inquiry how many professed students and critics of art could give any account of the latest of the "Artistes Célèbres" to be included in the series of that name published by the Librairie de *l'Art*. Hubert Robert was a "painter of ruins" who flourished at the end of the eighteenth century, and is interesting only as one of the symptoms of the revived interest in classical antiquity which marked his epoch. He suffered under Louis David and was imprisoned at the instance, as M. Gabillot supposes, of that somewhat truculent personage, but survived the Terror, and was one of the founders of the Louvre. Around him and "his times" is constructed one of the thickest volumes in the series. The "times" are more interesting than the man, and the volume is readable.

The eighth number of *La Quinzaine* does not differ essentially from the first. Nowhere in it is any improvement shown. Like most other religious periodicals, it appears to seek first of all to be *bien pensant* after its own fashion of orthodoxy, and only afterwards to be intelligent and critical and judicial and judicious. Nevertheless, there are in the present number some articles that may be read with interest and profit. "Les Normaliens dans l'Église" treats of the epoch of 1835-1840, throwing a little side-light on that most interesting period of French ecclesiastical history, the Revival which began in 1830 under Lamennais and Lacordaire, and which has moved France less obviously, it may be, but perhaps as widely and deeply as the contemporary Oxford Movement stirred England. "1848—Souvenirs d'un Témoin" is the story of the Revolution of that year, set down from day to day as it appeared to the eyes of an intelligent young woman of strong royalist sympathies. It has something of the freshness of a diary. The sentiments expressed in M. Maurice Bouchor's "Prière à Saint Maurice" are unexceptionable. His piety, which closed its petals at Chicago, expands into full bloom in Paris. In the department of "Livres et Idées" much sympathy is expressed with regard to M. Brunetière's recent attempt to petition science into insolvency.

In *Mélusine* for January February, 1895, M. Gaidoz returns to the subject of the four estates (all resting on the husbandman) which has formed the subject of popular engravings for some three centuries. He gives facsimiles of one older than any he has yet pictured, and of a British specimen, "The Five Alls"—with the parson at one end and the devil at the other—by the Scotch caricaturist John Kay (1792-1826).

The February *Portfolio* (Macmillan) is, we believe, the first number of that publication devoted to the work of a living artist. "The Art of William Quiller Orchardson" is treated of by Walter Armstrong, with some forcing of the note, but, on the whole, not unjustly. We should hesitate to take Mr. Orchardson's powers of draughtsmanship quite as seriously as does his English critic, but draughtsmanship of a serious kind is sufficiently rare in England to make Mr. Orchardson's seem almost masterly. His talent as a colorist is indubitable and his work possesses great charm. It is, perhaps, at times a trifle too "literary," but nothing could be much more delightful as a pictorial *trouvaille* than the scattered cards in "Hard Hit," and many another passage in his works.

Mr. Wm. M. Stevenson, librarian of the Carnegie Free Library at Allegheny, Pa., has followed the example of the Los Angeles Public Library in adding to his author-and-title list of fiction a subject-index, duly arranged under countries, epochs, etc. He has done better than his predecessor in making use of Mr. Griswold's 'Descriptive Lists of Novels,' and has wisely included some "books which, if not novels, read like novels." A little bibliography is prefixed to this section, with a brief list of biographies of writers of fiction, another of works of criticism and description in fiction, and a third of noteworthy articles in periodical literature bearing on the main theme.

We have received from the statistical bureau of the Italian Department of Agriculture part i. of Library Statistics in two volumes. It embraces particulars concerning not only State, provincial, and communal libraries, but also certain private libraries accessible to students, and notable for size or precious contents. The second part will embrace the libraries of academies, scientific institutions, and associations, circulating libraries, the lower school libraries, etc., etc. It is quite impossible in our limits to do justice to the thoroughness of this admirable undertaking. So far as is possible, each library is described with reference to its origin and history, accommodations, provision against fire, insurance, special features (with examples, as in the case of incunabula, MSS., Dante collections, Dürer engravings, etc., etc.), pecuniary resources, loaning or non-loaning of books, and the rest. Such a mine of information has an immediate value for all students, and will afford, as time goes on, a basis for comparisons of growth that will prove most instructive to those who are concerned with the moral and intellectual development of the Italian people. It reflects the greatest credit upon the Government of to-day.

—Articles upon two popular superstitions appear in the February number of the *American Meteorological Journal*. One has reference to the notion that change in the lunar phase influences the weather—that is, that more rain falls at new than at full moon. The records at New Haven seemed to confirm this idea, nearly one-half more precipitation occurring at the former than at the latter time; but the records of one hundred years in London yielded a negative result, as also a study of the rainfall for the whole country. In Boston, however, the new moon appeared to exercise a rather remarkable influence on the maximum rainfall. While many more observations will be needed to prove anything one way or the other, still, hardly less than fifty years' observations can materially alter what is at least a striking coincidence at Boston. So our friends who always look for "a change of weather with a change of moon" have a little more basis for their unscientific expectations than they are apt to be credited with. The second article of a purely popular nature has reference to the idea that storms always accompany the sun's "crossing the line." The equinoxes being only the intersection of two imaginary lines, it is hard to conceive of this producing any possible effect, yet no fallacy is more widespread. A careful study of records here produces entirely negative results, and the pet "line storms" of the masses must vanish in thin air.

—In the March number a valuable article is contributed by Mr. A. E. Douglass upon the study of atmospheric currents by the aid of large telescopes, and the effect of such currents on the quality of the "seeing." The writer's observations began at the Harvard College Observatory at Arequipa in Peru, during the summer of 1892. There the observatory is near a river valley down which on clear nights

a swift stream of cold air descends. In observations on Mars it was found that as soon as this stream reached the objective the seeing was at once ruined. More recently the writer witnessed some experiments at the Clark workrooms with the great Yerkes glass, still in process of completion. It was found to be exquisitely delicate in detecting small differences of temperature. A lighted lamp—even a lighted match—produced great atmospheric commotion, while the bare hand held up, or a person standing four feet from the optical axis, resulted in noticeable warming and consequent unsteadiness of air. During the autumn and winter of 1894 Mr. Douglass made experiments upon the swiftness of air-currents at Mr. Lowell's observatory at Flagstaff, Arizona. Careful tests have revealed three types of wave-systems, with sometimes perplexing combinations. The size of these atmospheric waves does not vary with different apertures in the telescope, nor do they differ except in being more difficult to study with a small glass. It was shown that sometimes, by diminishing the aperture, detail on the disk of the observed planet may be improved, while the edge or limb becomes less steady; which is one reason, similar to the effect of increased coarseness of the air-waves, why very good seeing may often be found between clouds. Out of eight actual observations, the highest current came from the southwest and west-northwest five times. Below a certain level the wind on two days became gusty and intermittent. The actual velocities of the first form of air-currents vary between five and twenty miles an hour. The altitude of the observatory at Flagstaff is 7,250 feet above sea-level, an excellent position from which to study these as yet little understood movements and periods of the atmosphere. Mr. Douglass speaks at some length of the instruments to be used in such studies, and his paper is one of much significance in the location of future observatories, no less than regarding the study of the best conditions for astronomical work at those already founded.

—The fifth volume of 'Memorial Biographies of the New England Historic Genealogical Society' (Boston) comprises forty-nine sketches, of divers lengths and importance, which leaves but a single deceased member of the Society uncommemorated up to June, 1864. The slowness of publication under the Towne Fund is illustrated by the fact that Thomas Hill, the biographer of Convers Francis, is himself dead. The notice of Stillman B. Pratt was prepared eleven years ago. A few foreign members are on the list, the most noted being Lord Lyndhurst; among the natives, most eminent are G. W. Bethune, G. L. Duykinck, William Darlington, Chief Justice Hornblower, Luther Bradish, W. D. Ticknor, and Edward Robinson, the great Biblical scholar. More than one who fell in the civil war are companions of the foregoing, so that the range covers several generations. The notices are unconventional, and are such as would be very useful to the editor, say, of an American 'Dictionary of National Biography.' The practice is general of recording the wives and posterity of the subjects treated, and this is to be commended in view of the contrary practice in almost all biographical dictionaries, even in the case of distinguished characters. Incidentally a good deal of curious information is to be had from this volume, as, the particulars concerning Dr. Geo. B. Cheever's imprisonment for libel in connection with his temperance "Dream" of Deacon Giles's Distillery (under Daniel Henshaw); the fact that Ticknor took over the *Atlantic Monthly* from Phillips & Sampson against the protest of his partner, Fields, who afterwards became its editor; and the statement that, "as a result of Mr. Pratt's editorial connections, all of his sons became journalists, as did some of the daughters, several grandchildren, and other collateral members of the family," so that credibly "more country newspapers are now (1844) in the hands of his kindred than are controlled by any other family in the world; Stillman B. Pratt, his oldest son, being the proprietor of twenty-five local papers." The historic date of October, 1835, mentioned on page 251, should be 21, not "5."

—In a somewhat unattractive form, Harper & Brothers publish 'The Literature of the Georgian Era,' by the late William Minto, edited by his friend Prof. Knight, who has furnished a long and not particularly satisfactory biographical introduction. The volume consists of two essays on Pope which had been previously printed in *Macmillan's Magazine*, a carefully prepared lecture on Burns, and a series of some twenty popular lectures on the century of English literature that runs from Pope to Shelley. The audience that heard the latter is to be congratulated. They are entertaining without attempting to be funny, and scholarly without attempting to be learned. They lack, moreover, the tone of self-abasement that sounds in much of our university-extension and kindred work, in which a lecturer often seems almost ashamed to implant in his hearers' minds anything but the mere rudiments of his doctrine. Prof. Minto held his audience up to its work; he gave it matter for strict attention and solid thought, but it was matter clearly arranged and neatly expressed. Where the hearer profited, the reader will not fail to profit also. Other scholars have attempted more in this field, but none has covered it in a way so interesting or so suggestive for the public that cares to read thoughtfully and not merely to be amused.

—A volume of succulent critical essays, on historical, philosophical, and literary subjects, bears the name of Timothée Colani (Paris: Chailley). This author is probably unknown to most American readers, yet he was one of the leading Protestant thinkers and writers in France. A man of scientific tastes and disposition, forced into the Protestant ministry by his father, himself a well-known *pasteur*, Colani became one of the most brilliant preachers in his communion, and founded, with Scherer, the *Revue de Théologie et de Philosophie Chrétiennes*. His scientific methods, applied to the exegesis of the Scriptures, his determination to find the truth and to abide by it when found, caused him, in his latter years, to leave the church in which he had been brought up. Shortly afterwards he joined the staff of the *République Française*, and he continued to write for that journal to the day of his death. A vigorous thinker, a firm, unhesitating judge, a man unblinded by conventionalities, Colani exhibits very remarkable critical powers and a profound insight into the very marrow of the subjects he discusses. The present volume of essays is an excellent collection, and displays the talent of Colani in different aspects. Trenchant articles on Taine, whose *parti pris* Colani cannot endure; on Renan, who owes Colani so great a debt, and whose fluid, elusive character is admirably appreciated; on Zola, the hollowness of whose pretensions is exposed in masterly fashion, and two most interesting studies of "Hamlet," form the best part of the book, in which, however, all is good—the historical as well as the literary, the political as well as the philosophical part. The brief preface of M. Joseph Reinach must not be missed either.

—On January 18, Moriz Carriere, Professor of Æsthetics in the University of Munich, died of apoplexy, in the seventy-eighth year of his age. Only the day before his death he had delivered his lecture in the regular course on Goethe's "Faust," and closed with the promise to give on the morrow an interpretation of the Walpurgisnacht. One of his last contributions to the literature of the day was an open letter on "Gedankenfreiheit," addressed to the editor and printed in the February number of the *Deutsche Revue*. It is a manly and timely protest against the growing tendency of the German Government to repress freedom of thought and to restrict the liberty of the press—a tendency that has greatly increased in strength and aggressiveness since the accession of William II., and culminated in the project of a law known as the "Umsturzvorlage" (subversion-bill) lately under discussion by the Imperial Diet. The object of the proposed law is to protect the institutions of religion, marriage, property, and monarchy in their present form against all adverse criticism, and its enactment would make the publication of many passages in the writings of Luther, Melanchthon, Klopstock, Goethe, and Schiller a criminal offence. When the "Holy Coat of Trier" was "elevated" in 1844, the head of the German Catholics, Johannes Ronge, addressed an epistle to Bishop Arnoldi, in which he denounced the exhibition and adoration of the old garment as gross and disgraceful fetishism. This public expression of his opinion caused intense excitement, but it never occurred to the Prussian or any other German Government to intervene. When the same "holy coat" was again exposed in 1891, a young Protestant theologian, who censured this "idolatrous worship" in much milder terms than Ronge had used, was tried and condemned for attacking "an institution of the Catholic Church." In this case the German tribunal was animated by the same spirit that led the Russian censor Korasovsky to erase from a book on natural history the chapter treating of the noxiousness of fungi, on the ground that "fungi form the favorite food of devout Christians on fast-days, and whoever declares them to be noxious seeks to undermine the Christian faith and to diffuse irreligion."

—If the German fashion prevailed with us, telegrams of congratulation would, on this seventieth birthday of Dr. Fitzedward Hall, be pouring in to Marlesford, England, where this American scholar has his home. His name is not unknown to our readers, who have for years enjoyed his expositions of English verbal usage such as no other man living could produce. But he has experienced the usual fate of an absentee in being overlooked by his countrymen, and in being accordingly without his proper honor here. That he is even a Harvard graduate—a member of the class of 1846 and classmate of Professors Child, Lane, and Norton—is little suspected by the great majority of the alumni of that institution, to which he has given many valuable Oriental books, and recently some five hundred Oriental MSS., many of the greatest rarity. Those, again, who read Dr. Murray's recurring acknowledgments of Dr. Hall's invaluable and

incomparable services in supplementing the readers for and the proof-readers of the New English Dictionary—acknowledgments which, to be adequate, would seem exaggerated—do not think of Dr. Hall as an Orientalist who spent sixteen years in India. His career there, whose beginning was made memorable by a shipwreck in the treacherous river Hooghly, was the honorable one of public usefulness as superintendent of schools, and as professor of Sanskrit at the sacred city of Benares, the very centre of Hindu learning. In India he familiarized himself with divers Eastern languages, was the first American to publish a Sanskrit text, and has, in the Journal of *The* Asiatic Society (*i. e.*, of Bengal) and in Indian magazines and printed volumes, been a most prolific writer and editor on Oriental subjects, as the British Museum catalogue will testify. Of his achievements in the various fields of Hindu antiquity, we may mention his books and essays on the philosophical systems, especially the Sankhya, on dramaturgy, astronomy, and epigraphy; although published for the most part three or four decades ago, they are still of great and almost undiminished value and authority. His wonderful *Belesenheit* — which competent authorities pronounce to be as admirable in Sanskrit as we know that it is in English—was brought to bear not only upon the annotation of texts, but also upon some of the intricate problems of Hindu literary chronology, with extraordinary acuteness and success. Since 1862 he has been constantly employed by the British civil-service commissioners as examiner in Sanskrit, Hindustanî, Hindî, Bengalî, or English. All this time has been going on the note making on points of English which, as he lately wrote to the Chicago *Dial*, he began in 1838, or when he was but thirteen years of age, and which has borne fruit not only in the present help to Dr. Murray's international enterprise, but in classical works like his 'Recent Exemplifications of False Philology' (1872), 'Modern English' (1873), 'On English Adjectives in -able' (1877), and others more controversial. An intense American, it has been Dr. Hall's lot to dwell among Englishmen for more than three-fifths of his life. His profound learning won for him, as long ago as 1860, the highest recognition from the University of Oxford—the degree of J.C.D.—just as also his modest and unfailing kindness and public spirit have won him a recognition (perhaps even dearer to him) in the little hamlet in Suffolk that has so long been his home; but it ought not to happen that his seventieth birthday should pass without a word of cordial and admiring remembrance from his native land.

TOWER'S LAFAYETTE.

The Marquis de La Fayette in the American Revolution. With some account of the attitude of France toward the War of Independence. By Charlemagne Tower, jr., LL.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1895. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. x, 494, 537.

THE above work on Lafayette's services to America, and incidentally on the French participation in the Revolution, is fair-minded yet sympathetic. Of neither France nor America is Mr. Tower a partisan. Indeed, on the moot points he becomes defender or apologist for each in turn, and one comes quickly to trust his impartiality. So strongly marked is this quality that it is singularly difficult to take issue with any of his positions and opinions; yet on two points it is perhaps worth while to look a little closer before accepting his conclusions entire.

Mr. Tower believes, with Lafayette, that the *lettre de cachet* sent after his hero was seriously intended on the part of France, thus taking issue with Kapp, who saw in the step only a nominal act of the Government, done for appearance' sake and to silence the complaints of the English Minister, with no intention that it should be obeyed. Nor can a restudy of the question, we think, alter this conclusion. Genuine *lettres de cachet* were not sent after fugitives, and the fugitive then left free to act as he pleased. Moreover, this particular one was issued at the request (nominally) of the Duc d'Ayen, the father-in-law of Lafayette, who, while thus seemingly objecting to the service of his daughter's husband in America, was actually endeavoring at that very time to secure from the Commissioners at Paris a commission for himself. Even more conclusive still is the information contained in the despatch of the secret agent of the English Ministry in Paris to Lord Suffolk, in which, after stating that Lafayette had sailed for America, he continued: "This spirited exertion is pretendedly disapproved by the Court, but all the Ladies applaud it, particularly the Queen, which excites many of the highest rank of young nobility to follow the example."

The second point on which we are tempted to take issue with Mr. Tower relates to the campaign in Rhode Island. In writing of the Newport fiasco, the author had, to be fair, a task of real difficulty. There can be no question that both French and Americans tried to outwit each other in order to obtain all the glory of the expected success, and even Lafayette could write: "I feel that the Frenchmen will somewhat eclipse their [American] neighbors, and that the best dramatic effects will probably fall to their share. . . . I should be greatly disappointed if they were not allowed the advantage I think is rightfully theirs." But when this mutual jealousy had produced its logical results, he did, too late, what he could to heal the breach. Few Americans have written so favorably to the French in this matter as Mr. Tower, and we are pleased to read his account, even while we think it biassed. The fact that Luzerne thought it necessary to take the American commander of the expedition against Rhode Island, Sullivan, into his pay, to close his mouth, is so striking that it can hardly be read amiss.

One of the most interesting portions of the whole book is that devoted to the attempt of the Conway Cabal to separate Lafayette from Washington—an attempt which of itself shows how great a power the young officer had come to be. The conspirators offered Lafayette, against the judgment of Washington, who disapproved of the whole scheme, the command of an army to invade Canada, and, to render it doubly attractive to Lafayette while humiliating to Washington, they made it a distinct command, subject to no orders but those of the Congress—a blow at Washington which, had it succeeded, would almost certainly have been followed by the detaching of other commands, till the commander-in-chief would have had but a mere title, and could easily have been brushed aside by the Cabal. Fortunately, Lafayette was above even such tempting bait, and, if for nothing else, his loyalty under such temptation should make him dear to every American. He replied to Congress that he would accept the command only on condition that he should remain a subordinate of Washington and report to him. And when these terms were accepted, not content with this, he forced the Board of War to allow him to name his subordinates, thus neutralizing their endeavor to associate with him only the partisans of the Cabal. The action on this matter has unfortunately escaped Mr. Tower, and as it is essential it deserves quotation here (Report of a Board of War, January 31, 1778):

"That General Washington be informed that, in compliance with the request of the Marquis de la Fayette, Congress are willing that General McDougal should proceed on the intended Incursion into Canada if his State of Health will admit of it, but if not, that the Baron de Kalb be directed to follow the Marquis on the said expedition, in case General Washington can dispense with his presence."

Even in this apparent yielding to his wish, however, Lafayette detected the sting of the Cabal. The report, so apparently favorable to him, cast a slur on Washington by the inference of the last line that the General was so incompetent that he could not "dispense" with the "presence" of Kalb; and to Lafayette, who was present when this report was adopted, was undoubtedly due the striking out of the slurring line, and the substitution of the words, "in case General Washington shall judge it proper."

Another and even greater service of Lafayette at this time is also overlooked by Mr. Tower. One of the meanest and trickiest devices of the Cabal to destroy Washington was to compel him to attack Howe's army in Philadelphia—a project so desperate as to seem mad had the Board of War hoped for a moment that success was possible. The scheme, however, was merely one to destroy Washington by compelling him to fight Howe on Howe's own terms; defeat being a hopeful way of removing Washington from the command. In the Congress, in the Board of War, and even in camp, the scheme had its adherents, and the committee sent to camp was largely ordered with this in mind. At this critical moment Washington asked each of the general officers for a written opinion as to the possibility of the manœuvre, and none rallied more quickly to his aid or gave a more decisive negative than Lafayette, who, though new to the whole scene of war, and easily open to deception, yet drew up an admirably clear and lengthy opinion, which, united with that of a majority (for there was a minority even among the generals), reinforced Washington's own conclusions and saved him from a most hopeless undertaking. The omission of this paper is a serious defect in the present work, though none of the "opinions" drawn up for Washington by Lafayette are included.

The narrative of the movements leading up to and including the battle of Monmouth is almost a model of military history—clear, concise, yet detailed. Scarcely less so is the section devoted to Lafayette's Virginian campaign. The absolute impotence of the civil Government of that State, the revolt in the back counties, the refusal of the militia to embody in many places, their constant desertion in the field, and the strong dislike of the Northern soldiers for Southern service, together with the superior strength of the enemy, all combined to make the task of the young general of twenty-six truly Herculean, and to cause him to write: "I am just that much of a general as will make me an historian of misfortunes, and nail my name upon the ruins of what good folks are pleased to call the Army of Virginia." But the "good sense" that Washington had so quickly detected under the impetuous and rash longing for action

came to Lafayette's service. Conscious of his own tendency, he wrote: "To speak truth I was afraid of myself as much as of the enemy. Independence has made me more cautious, as I know my own warmth." In place of constantly urging action and attack, under the sobering influence of responsibility he adopted the Fabian policy of his chief, and thus not merely saved Virginia, but led the way to the triumph at Yorktown.

The services of Lafayette to the American cause were not limited, however, to operations in the field. Quite as essential and important were his negotiations on behalf of America with the French Cabinet. To preface these properly, Mr. Tower has chronicled at length the hesitating and vacillating conduct of the French Ministry in the period between the moment when the rising storm in the colonies first attracted the attention of France and the signing of the treaty of alliance. The aid, both secret and open, which France gave to America never professed to be based on any other than selfish grounds. Gérard, speaking for Vergennes, put the best face upon it when he said to the Commissioners that they did not "pretend" that they acted "wholly" for the sake of America, "since . . . it was manifestly the interest of France that the power of England should be diminished by . . . separation." And how little real interest or affection the French Minister had for the States is well shown in two of his despatches to his American agent, in which he outlines the French policy as follows:

> "I think as you do, that the preservation of the Congress would suit us, but what perhaps suits us better is that the U. S. should not acquire the political consistence of which they are susceptible." (To French Chargé, July 21, 1783.)
>
> "It suits France that the U. S. should remain in their present state, because if they should acquire the political consistence of which they are susceptible, they would soon acquire a force or a power which they would be very ready to abuse." (To Moustier, September 27, 1787.)

Whatever the selfish views of the Cabinet, the French people were more generous, while Lafayette was so extreme as to make Maurepas say that some day the young officer would strip Versailles for "his American cause." Mr. Tower narrates at length his constant appeals to France for aid for the Americans. The man, indeed, as here shown, seems tireless in his persistence and in the multiplicity of his schemes. Canada, Florida, the British West Indies, and each British force in the colonies, are one by one conquered by him—on paper—and to the older and cooler men with whom he was dealing the length of the campaigns, in which ink only was shed, must have been not a little fatiguing. But his exertions led to important results, for Mr. Tower makes plain how large an element Lafayette's personal popularity at Court and his arguments to the Ministry played, in producing the various French expeditions of 1780-81 which led to the capture of Cornwallis. However mistaken the policy of France was, in pulling the chestnuts out of the fire for America, or however blindly selfish her motives in so doing, Lafayette was actuated by nothing but unselfish love for this country. Everything he could do for it, he did. He clothed his brigade at his own expense. He pledged his credit to move troops southward when that of the Government was insufficient. He took his loss cheerfully when he was swindled out of the cargo he had brought with him to America, on which he had hoped to make a profit of "three or four hundred per cent.," and instead, to reach Philadelphia, was compelled to borrow money "at a high rate of interest." He was silent when the Jew money-lenders of Philadelphia took such advantage of his situation as to make Beaumarchais write laughingly that Lafayette had found "Jerusalem in America." Blood, time, and money he gave without stint and without thought. "I love them all," he wrote; "I hope to deserve their esteem, and so we are mutually satisfied." Small wonder that he was able to say, "M. de Lafayette was no longer a stranger" to the Americans. "There never was an adoption so complete."

Of this brilliant and generous story, Mr. Tower has written a most inclusive, careful, and satisfactory account. First, practically, among American writers, he has made a full use, so far as served his purpose, of two recent and most important historical works: M. Doniol's 'La Participation de la France,' and B. F. Stevens's 'Facsimiles of Manuscripts.' With a thoroughness that is admirable, he has gathered a large mass of hitherto unpublished material from the Washington papers and the records of the Continental Congress. From the Gates and Steuben papers, hitherto so closely guarded by the New York Historical Society, as well as from the letter-books and papers of Rochambeau and Wayne, he has garnered with skill. He has even obtained copies of the long series of letters from Lafayette to the Executive of Virginia, abstracted from the State archives by Benson J. Lossing, immediately after the occupation of Richmond by the Federal troops, and at present the subject of a law suit. He has used, practically *in extenso*, the letters of Lafayette to Estaing, discovered by M. Doniol, too recently for inclusion in his great work, but made public in the *Revue d'Histoire Diplomatique*. It is not too much to say that he has quadrupled the amount of accessible material concerning the central figure of his book. We can recall no biographical work in American history containing such a wealth of original material concerning the subject treated. To this Mr. Tower has added reproductions of several maps prepared for Lafayette, besides several specially drawn for the present work. A new portrait of Lafayette, painted at the time of his service in America, and one of his wife, are also additions well worth the making. In every respect the book shows skill and thoroughness.

We note with some interest that Mr. Tower adopts the form of "La Fayette," for which he has the authority of Larousse; yet the man himself almost invariably wrote it Lafayette, and this has been followed with hardly an exception in this country, being, we think, the preferable form. On the other hand, the author follows Doniol in spelling the name of Florida Blanca as one word, which we also think to be an error. There are a few mistakes in names, unsupported by any authority, as Col. Rall for Rahl. Far more serious is the double use of the surnames Broglie and Broglio. The Maison de Broglie was at times styled "de Broglio," but it is essential in any book to adopt a uniform system. In this case, the double use not merely apparently creates two distinct families, but leads to an absolute confusion of the individuality of the two brothers. Thus, the "Comte de Broglie" of page 17 becomes "Count Broglio" on page 25, and "Maréchal de Broglie" on page 75; while the "Marshal Duc de Broglie" on page 22 becomes the "Marshal Broglio" on page 297. The confusion is increased by the index, which enters under Marshal Broglio a reference to the Broglie of the text, and the Broglie of the text is entered under Broglio in the index. On the whole, however, the book is very free from slips of this kind, and shows most careful proof-reading. Not quite so fortunate was Mr. Tower in his mapmaker, who twice changes the "Byrd's Tavern" of the text into "Bird's," the correct "Brandon House" of one map to "Brandon's house" in another, and, while correctly spelling the river "Nansemond" on one map, on a second gives it as "Hansemond" and on a third as "Vansemond."

SYBEL'S GERMAN EMPIRE.—II.

Die Begründung des Deutschen Reiches durch Wilhelm I. Von Heinrich von Sybel. Sechster Band. Munich: R. Oldenbourg; New York: Westermann. 1894.

Bismarck's attitude on the Luxemburg question—his declaration (January 10, 1867) that Prussia would neither lend active aid in securing the duchy for France nor give official consent in advance to the transfer—was far from satisfactory to Napoleon and his ministers. They determined, however, to act as Bismarck had advised—to start an agitation in Luxemburg and negotiate directly with the King of the Netherlands. At the same time the European Powers were sounded. The responses received from the principal courts were encouraging, although Austria warned France that the project would excite the national feeling of Germany and tend to bring the North and South into greater harmony. The King of the Netherlands, however, declared (March 18) that he could do nothing without the formal consent of the great Powers, including Prussia. In the meantime an interpellation from Thiers on the policy of France towards Italy and Germany had given rise to a protracted debate in the French Legislature (March 14–18), in which the Opposition asserted, and the governmental orators conceded, that the tendency toward German unity was a menace to the power of France. On the 18th the status of Luxemburg became the subject of a brief debate in the North German Diet. Rumors of French designs upon Luxemburg were already current, and appeal was made to the Chancellor to prevent the annexation of German soil by a dangerous neighbor. Bismarck warned the assembly that a discussion of the Luxemburg question might give rise to a European question.

This terminated the episode, but German national feeling had been so strongly aroused that Bismarck determined to publish the treaties of offensive and defensive alliance between Prussia and the South German States. This he did with the less hesitation, Von Sybel tells us, because he had already notified Benedetti of the existence and nature of these treaties, and had received the answer that they had long been known to the French diplomatists. The effect of their publication was to create, both in Germany and in other countries, a conviction that Prussia proposed to resist any French attempt to acquire German territory. The Dutch King was confirmed in his resolve to take no step in the Luxemburg matter without Prussia's express authorization. A new French appeal to Bismarck elicited an even more emphatic declaration that Prussia could not go beyond a *laisser-faire* policy. On the 22d of March he earnestly cautioned Benedetti to prevent the King of the Netherlands from making any communication on the subject to the Prussian Government; but this warning, says Von Sybel, came too late. On the 26th, the King notified the Prussian ambassador at

The Hague that he had promised to cede Luxemburg to France provided Prussia would consent, and requested the ambassador to transmit this statement to Berlin. By this time the European newspapers were full of the question, and war was regarded as imminent. The King of Prussia, however, avoided giving a direct answer to the message from The Hague: he telegraphed that he could reach no decision without consulting the other European Powers. At the same time another step was taken which, as the Luxemburg historian Servais remarks, ought to have shown the Dutch King that Prussia would not try to prevent the cession. Nearly six months before, the Luxemburg Government had notified the Prussian Government that in its opinion the Prussian right of keeping troops in Luxemburg had ceased with the dissolution of the Confederation, and it had suggested the conclusion of a new treaty providing for the continuance of the Prussian garrison. This offer, to which no answer had as yet been given, was now declined by telegraph (March 27). Rothan, the French historian, who constantly cites the work of Servais, makes no mention of this telegram.

Napoleon regarded the matter as settled. An autograph letter was sent to the King of the Netherlands, accepting the cession and assuming full responsibility as regarded Prussia. The King declared himself satisfied; the treaty was drawn up in duplicate, and it was arranged that it should be signed March 31. On that day, however, it suddenly occurred to the Dutch minister, Van Zuylen, that the signing was not his business, but that of the Luxemburg minister, Tornaco. The latter was summoned to The Hague, and the signing was postponed to the 1st of April — an ominous date! On that day (which was Bismarck's fifty-second birthday) a conversation occurred between Bismarck and Benedetti which is worth quoting:

"On the morning of the 1st of April, Benedetti called upon Bismarck, and after offering his congratulations . . . stated that he had an important communication to make. Bismarck, who could easily conjecture its character, at once interrupted him. 'I have,' he said, 'no time at present to talk business; I am on the point of starting for the Diet, where I am to answer, on Bennigsen's interpellation, the following questions: "What does the Government know regarding the alleged cession of Luxemburg to France? and is the Government resolved at all hazards to maintain the connection of this German territory with Germany?" If you will go with me,' he added, 'we can talk this matter over on the way.' As they walked towards the Diet, Bismarck explained that it was his intention to answer that the Government was indeed aware that such negotiations were pending at The Hague; that in response to a question from the King of the Netherlands regarding Prussia's view of the matter, reference had been made to the necessity of consulting the great Powers and considering public opinion; that the Government did not know whether the negotiations in The Hague had already been brought to a conclusion, and was therefore not in a position at the moment, to give a direct answer — yes or no — to the second question; that it believed, however, that no foreign Power would encroach upon indubitable rights of German States, and that it hoped to be able to protect such rights by peaceful negotiations. 'You see,' he then remarked to Count Benedetti, 'that in this way every occasion for a rupture is avoided; but you also see that the basis on which my whole explanation rests is the fact that I am not aware that the treaty has been concluded. And it will be equally clear to you that if you were now to reveal to me that the treaty has been concluded, and I were obliged to communicate this fact to the Diet, the inevitable result, with the high degree of excitement which now prevails in the assembly, would be an explosion, the effect of which would be incalculable.' At this point in the conversation the two men reached the door of the Diet. 'Now,' inquired Bismarck, 'with this result and the responsibility for it clearly before you, have you an important despatch to deliver to me?' Benedetti was not a bellicose person. He reflected a moment, said 'No'—and took his leave. Bismarck went into the Diet" (pp. 110, 111).

The interpellation was a preconcerted one. Bismarck's intention, as Von Sybel claims, was to allay the excitement which prevailed in Germany; and he quotes a French despatch to show that this was understood by the French diplomatists. The effect, however, of Bennigsen's inquiry and Bismarck's answer was rather to increase the agitation of the public mind. The tone of Bennigsen's speech was patriotic and almost belligerent. He assumed that the rights of Germany in Luxemburg were indubitable; assured the Government that where resistance to foreign aggression was concerned, there could be no parties in the Diet, and expressed the confidence of the assembly that the interests of Germany would be effectively protected. Bismarck began his answer by reminding the assembly that, with the dissolution of the old German Confederation, Luxemburg had become a sovereign state. He assured them that neither its ruler nor its inhabitants had the slightest desire to enter the new Federation. He let his hearers see, incidentally, that Prussia's right to keep a garrison in Luxemburg had already been questioned. He then answered Bennigsen's questions precisely as he had told Benedetti that he would answer them. In spite of the first part of his speech, his remark about the protection of "indubitable rights" was taken to mean that Germany would at all hazards keep Luxemburg out of Napoleon's hands. The cold and guarded tone of his whole speech was attributed to diplomatic caution—the more easily because, in a sentence which appears in the stenographic report of his remarks, but is not included in Von Sybel's abstract, he remarked that a Deputy could properly use warmer language than became a diplomatist while peaceful negotiations were still possible.

At The Hague, too, the impression created by the debate was that Prussia would not permit the sale of Luxemburg. This impression was confirmed by a Prussian telegram of April 2, saying that the King was free to decide as he saw fit, but was requested to pay some regard to the excited condition of German public feeling. According to Von Sybel, this despatch and a similar message sent the same day to Paris were intended simply to secure a postponement of the cession until the North German Parliament should have completed its labors and adjourned (which happened a fortnight later). In Paris, however, the message created the impression that Bismarck was not playing fairly. This impression was changed to a conviction by a declaration received from the King of the Netherlands, that his promise had been given to Napoleon under the express condition of Prussia's consent, and that he now considered himself released from all obligation.

War now seemed inevitable; but, on reflection, the French Cabinet decided not to force hostilities. It was not demonstrable, after all, that Prussia had prevented the purchase of Luxemburg; the military reorganization of France (the increase of the active army and the distribution of breech-loading rifles) was just beginning; and a proposal to Austria to form an offensive alliance against Prussia elicited the reply that the ruler of 10,000,000 Germans could not take up arms to support a foreign annexation of German territory. Napoleon therefore decided to refer the whole question to a European congress. The congress met, and the settlement which it sanctioned—the neutralization of Luxemburg, the demolition of the fortress, the withdrawal of the Prussian troops—left France in a position to claim that something had been accomplished by her diplomacy.

We have given a fairly complete abstract of Von Sybel's narrative, partly because his is, on the whole, the most intelligible version of the Luxemburg imbroglio that has yet appeared, and partly to obtain a basis for criticising his interpretation of Bismarck's action. He maintains that Bismarck was willing to sacrifice Luxemburg for the sake of postponing the war with France. We think it perfectly clear that Bismarck did not intend to do anything to prevent the cession of Luxemburg for which he could be held responsible and which would furnish France with a *casus belli*. But that he really wished France to have Luxemburg is an impossible supposition; and that he was not willing to frustrate the French plans *if he could so do it as not to appear to have done it*, seems very improbable. According to Von Sybel, the degree of excitement which the question aroused in Germany took Bismarck by surprise; the effect of the publication of the South German treaties and the impression produced by Bennigsen's interpellation were quite other than he had anticipated, as was also the case with his despatches of April 2. To this we can only answer that at no other period in Bismarck's long diplomatic career did he exhibit any such lack of comprehension of popular feeling, or any such incapacity to adapt his means to his ends, as the historian here ascribes to him. It seems to us that Von Sybel is trying to save Bismarck's reputation for straight dealing at the cost of his reputation for intelligence; and we cannot but sympathize with Napoleon's statement to the historian (p. 119): "Bismarck tried to dupe me."

The latter part of the volume describes the efforts to bring about a triple alliance between France, Austria, and Italy, efforts impeded by the insoluble Roman question; the plan of replacing the French garrison in the States of the Church by a Spanish force, a plan defeated by the dethronement of Queen Isabella. More space than is apparently necessary is given to the negotiations between the Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen family and the King of Prussia which preceded the acceptance by Prince Charles of the Rumanian crown; but the questions discussed were so similar to those which were raised in 1870 by the candidacy of Charles's older brother, Leopold, for the crown of Spain, and the attitude of King William in the latter case was so completely consistent with that which he maintained in the former case, that Von Sybel has laid an admirable basis for a vindication of the King against the French charge of indirectness and insincerity. The comparison between the two episodes is the more effective because the historian is clever enough not to make it.

RECENT BOOKS ABOUT JOHN BROWN.

John Brown and His Men, with some account of the roads they travelled to reach Harper's Ferry. By Richard J. Hinton. Funk & Wagnalls. 1894.

John Brown among the Quakers, and Other Sketches, by Irving B. Richman, Consul-General of the United States to Switzerland. Des Moines: The Historical Department of Iowa.

John Brown in Canada: A Monograph. By James Cleland Hamilton, LL.B., V.P. Canadian Institute. From *Canadian Magazine*, December, 1894.

THE literature of John Brown, like his soul in the ballad, is still marching on. As with his stout defender Henry Thoreau, who published two books during his life and has had a dozen printed about him since his death, so John Brown, who published no book at all, has had his biography written five times—by Redpath, Webb, Von Holst, Sanborn, and now Hinton—has been the subject of eight separate papers in the *Atlantic Monthly* alone, besides an uncounted number in other magazines—and is still open to treatment. He thus fulfils what has been described as the truest type of fame—the elevation into a permanent post-mortem importance of a man whose life was spent for the most part in obscurity.

Mr. Hinton had previously written some reminiscences of Captain Brown in *Frank Leslie's Monthly* for June, 1880, and had moreover had, in editing the volume of 'English Radical Leaders' for Higginson's "European Statesmen" series, some practice in biographical writing. His memoir of John Brown is by far the fullest treatment of the subject yet printed, except that of Mr. Sanborn. It perhaps falls short of this last work in arrangement, but surpasses it in directness and simplicity; shows less profuse details of historical investigation, but more of personal intimacy, at least during the Kansas period. The author went first to Kansas in 1856, as a member of one of the three parties organized at Worcester, Mass., under the auspices of the State Kansas Committee and afterwards of the National Committee, and having no connection with the Emigrants' Aid Society, which had then passed its prime. He was a young English printer and journalist, resident in Boston, ardent, liberty-loving, and thoroughly honest. He knew most of Brown's men, and traces their career more thoroughly, in some respects, than has hitherto been done. Incidentally he makes clear the utter preposterousness of the view taken in Nicolay and Hay's 'Lincoln'—and hitherto confined to that too superficial book—that these men were largely a set of impecunious hangers-on, attracted to Brown by the prospect of support. Nothing was more remarkable in Brown than the Puritan vigor with which he shed from him all men of that class, and impressed his own self-denying type, for good or for evil, on those who followed him. He was, in this respect, the greatest contrast to his contemporary, "Jim" Lane, to whom the humbler Wildrakes and swashbucklers of that unsettled period naturally gravitated.

Perhaps the most eminent service rendered by Mr. Hinton's book is in exploding, even more thoroughly than Mr. Sanborn's, the curious theory urged of late years in some quarters, and embodied in Prof. Spring's volume on Kansas in "American Commonwealths," to the effect that there was a distinct division in that Territory, during its period of struggle, between the advocates of diplomacy and those of armed resistance. Mr. Hinton makes it very clear that this whole theory is an afterthought. In Kansas, as elsewhere, different men were assigned by temperament and accident to different vocations, which they discharged more or less well—Robinson to diplomacy, Brown to fighting; but this implied no real antagonism between them. Mr. Sanborn showed long since, by documentary evidence, that Robinson put the seal of explicit approval for many years on Brown's most extreme and most censured act, the massacre at Pottawatomie. Now comes Mr. Hinton and shows, moreover, that Robinson told Brown himself, in 1856, that "the Pottawatomie slaying was entirely justifiable, and that more of the same sort should be done" (p. 88); that in 1859, three years after the event, he supported at Lawrence resolutions declaring the act "a sad necessity" (p. 89); and that in 1877, on the unveiling of Brown's monument, Robinson made a speech comparing him to Jesus of Nazareth. Not only this, but Mr. Hinton shows that Mr. Eli Thayer, who has of late years been constant in his denunciation of Brown's career at that period, presented him, the year after the Pottawatomie affair, with a gun made expressly for him in Worcester, the receipted bill of which, made out to Mr. Thayer, was endorsed by him on the back to this effect: "Presented to my friend, Captain John Brown, for use in the cause of freedom. Eli Thayer" (p. 90). We are not now arguing whether the Pottawatomie "necessity" was right or wrong; Mr. Hinton has shown pretty clearly that there was not at the time in Kansas any prominent "free-State" man or class of men who did not approve of it. If one sinned, all sinned, at least by way of sympathy.

The main features of Captain Brown's career were so simple and are now so well understood that Mr. Hinton puts them in no essentially new light, though he throws, from his own memory and the correspondence of others, many side-lights on the man and his times. The other two books are monographs on special periods in Brown's life. An organization known as "The Historical Department of Iowa" publishes several monographs by Mr. Richman, of which the most interesting is a study from original sources of the life of Captain Brown in Springdale and Tabor, Iowa, both well known in those days as settlements founded by anti slavery Quakers. It was there that Brown obtained, in August, 1857, the rifles deposited there by the Kansas State Committee of Massachusetts, but actually the property of George L. Stearns, its chairman. It was there also that he brought Captain Hugh Forbes, the erratic English Garibaldian drill-master, who first taught Brown tactics and then betrayed him. Some of his subsequent followers at Harper's Ferry joined Brown there; and they went thence, in 1858, to Chatham in Canada, for their well-known "quiet convention," as their leader called it.

Here Mr. Hamilton takes up the tale and gives in his pamphlet the best account yet printed of that assemblage, and this especially from the point of view of the colored members, although the writer himself appears to be white. Chatham was chosen for the meeting as being near the headquarters of the colored race, of whom Hinton says that there were then 75,000 in Canada, although Hamilton thinks this an over-estimate. Many of these interested themselves in the convention, and the portraits of some of them—strong faces all—are given. Pictures also are given of the rough little schoolhouse and engine-hall of Chatham, where, as the author thinks, "the train was laid that fired the mine whence resulted the overthrow of the proud Southern oligarchy."

The Art of Thomas Hardy. By Lionel Johnson. Dodd, Mead & Co.

THERE was once a lady who lived in Alabama and who wrote novels with heroines especially dear to girls of a literary turn. These heroines were compact of learning. Asked a question about household affairs, they promptly replied with a long quotation from the Vedas. An adorer venturing a compliment was turned from his frivolous way by a disquisition on Babylonic cuneiform or a pressing invitation to consider the wanderings of the Aryans. Except those edifying novels, there is nothing in our literature of which Mr. Lionel Johnson's 'Art of Thomas Hardy' reminds us. No comment is made on any manifestation or phase of that art without a corollary mentioning how Tibullus puts it or what appears in an ancient version of Herodian, or the sentiments of Quintilian, Dante, Bossuet, and Mr. Pater on subjects ranging from the use of words to the destiny of the soul.

Perhaps all the pagan and Christian classics have been absorbed by Mr. Johnson and become native to his memory, but unfortunately his use of them is so harum-scarum that he does not make the impression of one crammed to bursting with erudition, rather of one possessing a large library of excerpts and quotations, and resolute to share it with the public, heedless of relevancy to Homer or to Hardy. In his first chapter he quotes Dr. Johnson's "I never desire to converse with a man who has written more than he has read"; and, in view of this performance, it may almost be assumed that Mr. Johnson was inspired to show that the Doctor would have found him worthy even of a temporary suspension of his own eloquence. However, he says that the object of his essays is to show that "Mr. Hardy is often of the humanists and may be of the classics." The extreme caution of this statement binds a man to nothing, especially as the company is declared to be catholic, excluding only the "perverse," by whom, we gather from the context, are meant only clever photographers of a moment, a class to which no one would ever dream of relegating Mr. Hardy. We feel that Mr. Johnson might have permitted himself the excess of trying to show that Mr. Hardy is always of the humanists and must be of the classics. Then there would have been a chance for spirited argument. But who so rash as to argue with a man capable of observing that his author's manner of presentation "has about it something Elizabethan, something Shakespearian, or something of later date, Jacobean, and Caroline," with constant reminder that it has also something Victorian and something *fin de siècle?*

What Mr. Johnson does manage to show in intervals of rest from citation, we think scarcely needed to be shown. The principal points of emphasis are that Mr. Hardy writes by preference about Wessex, which means that portion of England once known as the Kingdom of Wessex, which was the home of the West Saxons; that his favorite motive is the meeting and clashing of the restless, modern spirit with the repose, or rather stolidity, of antiquity; that his design is free and worked out with patience, sincerity, and composure; finally, that he ought not to use the "split infinitive" (Mr. Johnson takes that sin deeply to heart), and ought to have denied himself "all commentary" in telling the tragedy of Tess of the D'Urbervilles. Many minor propositions, hardly, however, less valuable, are advanced in such pomp of diction and splendor of allusion that at least the admirers of our lady novelist from Alabama (if such be still among us) will never perceive how great is Mr. Johnson in making much ado about nothing.

The book is admirably printed on rough, light paper, provided with a careful bibliography, decorated with an etching of Mr. Hardy, and distinguished from other books by

the constant recurrence of "an habit," and the insertion of a *u* in the first syllable of portraiture.

The Marches of Wales: Notes and Impressions on the Welsh Borders from the Severn Sea to the Sands o' Dee. By Charles G. Harper. With 114 illustrations from drawings by the author and from old-time portraits. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894. Pp. xvi, 368.

THIS is an old-fashioned book of travel. The author goes slowly along from village to village, and tells with gusto all manner of little anecdotes of his pleasant and unpleasant experiences. The odd people whom he meets are duly described, and specimens of their dialect given in full. He stops at ruined abbeys and castles, at elegant modern mansions and parish churches, and about each he has his word to say, as concerning their architecture, their associations, even their history. Any famous man or woman whose name is somehow associated with town or tower receives his or her due biographical notice. Every battle or siege whose locality is visited is related, in a true chronicler's fashion, with details. Modern railway and manufacturing works come in for their word of comment; and mingled with it all are the traveller's own views on history, art, politics, and sociology given with great freedom as by one who is sure of the sympathy of his readers.

The record begins with the railway tunnel under the Severn, from Northwick to Portscuett; and we are told how hard it used to be to enter Wales from the southwest, as you had your choice only between the stormy passage across the "Severn Sea" and the long journey round by the north. Chepstow Castle comes next, and we read at length, as we might do as well in the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' about Henry Marten, and that he was a "regicide"; that King Charles's putting to death was "murder," and that Marten was let off with "altogether inadequate retribution" for his signing of the death-warrant. At Tintern Abbey we are treated to the queer notions which the eighteenth century had of Gothic architecture, and there is much about the ideally rustic cottage in which the author found a lodging, and about the dog and the two cats attendant upon it. At Raglan Castle we learn of the food and the table-equipage of a wealthy household of the seventeenth century—something also about the Marquis of Worcester, and something of the famous siege of 1646; and we are informed that the Puritans were "those whining humbugs who formed the greater part of the hosts called by some writers of the time the Army of God," and again that the civil war was "a pseudo-religious revolution." At Shrewsbury the whole campaign of Henry IV. against the Percys and their allies is recounted, and the battle fought under the town wall is described at length. It appears, too, that Owen Glendower deserted his allies "like a true Welshman, half-hearted and treacherous." Apropos of the Roman Uriconium, the story of the abandonment of Britain by the legions and its invasion by Danes and Saxons is told as if in a child's history of England. At Franknell, where Charles Darwin was born, the whole Darwinian controversy of 1860 to 1880 is gone through with, as if in a popular encyclopædia. At Hawarden we learn that the castle is "the house of Rimmon," that Mr. Gladstone is much admired by Radicals, and that these Radicals come to see him and his place a good deal; further, that "it is a singular irony of fate which has made a demagogue of the owner of so beautiful a demesne as Hawarden Park," apparently because "a country gentleman and rural squire" who talks "in anathema of class and glorification of that superlatively virtuous noun, the People," is a surprising and almost inconceivable phenomenon.

The book is not uninteresting, however. It belongs to the class of the amusing and mildly instructive. The reader of Sunday newspapers will find in it a better selection of scraps of knowledge than his weekly sheets can offer, and that held together by a thread of geographical association which will help him to remember some interesting facts. The illustrations, too, though hardly more artistic than those of the Sunday paper, are evidently more trustworthy. In fact, it is because of the illustrations that this book deserves notice from local antiquarians. There are very curious epitaphs and other inscriptions given in representative drawings. A really remarkable sculpture on a tombstone at Mitchell-Troy is shown at page 55—a relief, absurd in meaning, but rather artistical in design. What seem very truthful renderings of Gothic sculpture are presented at pp. 131 and 145. A very unusual form of the heraldic portcullis of the Worcesters occurs on page 65. Urishay Castle appears at page 140 as a most picturesque country house of moderate size. A good mediæval churchyard cross is figured at Trelleck, and another, beside which lies the grave of John Kemble, Catholic martyr of 1679, at Welsh Newton. At page 152 is an impossible sort of structure well portrayed—the belfry of Pembridge Church, a wooden structure of the fourteenth century looking like a windmill without its sails; a delicate morsel for the students of mediæval building. Mr. Harper is at his best when he has an object before him whose characteristics it behooves him to set down with accuracy; then he inspires respect by his obviously faithful recording.

Philosophy of Mind: An Essay in the Metaphysics of Psychology. By George Trumbull Ladd, Professor of Philosophy in Yale University. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. Pp. xiv, 414, 8vo.

THERE were but few, we venture to think, who read Prof. Ladd's 'Psychology, Descriptive and Explanatory,' issued last year, that did not feel the presence of an obscure background of opinion which in part, at least, was determining the author's course at every step, but found no adequate expression in his argument; and the like is true of the 'Philosophy of Mind.' Neither book contains its own final premises. Those of the 'Psychology' are now first published in the 'Philosophy of Mind,' and those of the 'Philosophy of Mind' lie hidden, as the author intimates (page 81), in "certain points of view, and even certain conclusions" which he has not yet made accessible to the public. The result may be imagined. The series of which this volume forms an instalment is composed on the plan of a Ciceronian period, and purposes to move in all the pomp of suspended intelligibility till the last word. The "secret of Ladd" retires before one like the boxes in a Chinese puzzle, and every volume hands on its mystery to the next. This is, of course, a matter of exposition, simply; and Prof. Ladd unquestionably has a right to keep his secret through as many volumes as he may choose; but he presents meantime too often the ungraceful attitude of sweeping in the stakes without showing his cards.

With this drawback, or rather in spite of it, the 'Philosophy of Mind' is a full, rich book, with that amplitude of by-remark which fattens the writings of middle aged men. It opens with two chapters on the relation of Psychology to Philosophy. Their general purport is, that in spite of the failure of its professors consistently to treat it so, Psychology is properly a natural science like any other, and proceeds upon assumptions which it is not its own business, but the business of metaphysic as the general science of final assumptions, to criticise. There is much in them to remark, but as they stand in no vital connection with what follows, we pass at once to the rest of the book.

Prof. Ladd is interesting among psychologists of note at the present day in his holding by the soul, and the 'Philosophy of Mind' is in the main devoted to his declarations on that head. The reader will find them very new wine in an old bottle. The soul, according to this new dispensation, is terribly up to date; it differs from the soul of tradition in pretty much everything but the name. It is not an entity over and above consciousness. It is not an unchanging core of reality—a perdurable substratum of the conscious states. It is not simple, it is not indivisible, it is not in its essence immortal (the "possibility" or "perhaps the probability" of immortality is at the utmost but "suggested"), it is not even continuously existent in the past. In every deep dreamless sleep, in every case of fainting or other loss of consciousness, the soul ceases utterly to exist. The self we are conscious of—the "agent" we observe in introspection actively presiding over consciousness—is the only human soul there is. It begins with the appearance of consciousness in the body; it dies, so far as the weight of the evidence goes, with the death of the body; its existence is broken into blocks by every gap in consciousness, and between these blocks there exists no unity but a felt unity—the later block remembers the earlier and looks upon itself as a continuance of it. For the trustworthiness of memory, however, we have but the guarantee of a tender bit of dialectic which will not, we may suspect, outlast the strain of close inspection. It is as follows: We can't doubt the memory, for unless we remember correctly the premises of our argument to disprove it till we reach the conclusion, the conclusion does not follow. But we apprehend that premises and conclusion are never in different moments of consciousness; we don't conclude that Socrates is mortal because we remember that we *formerly* believed that all men are mortal and that Socrates is a man; we conclude it only on the ground that we believe this *now*. If premises and conclusion are not in the same moment of consciousness, there *is* no conclusion.

One wonders, in these days of Hegelian formulæ, how the pews in most of the churches would "sit up" if they ever got a notion what the pulpit is saying. Prof. Ladd's doctrine of self is very good doctrine, and the ten chapters of which it forms the backbone are in many places models of sustained argument and masterly exposition, but one wonders why he calls it *soul*. His statements differ not at all from those of the least hirsute (*baldest* is his word) phenomenism; unless it be in the term "agent." But an agent who is not an entity over and above consciousness is an ego that Hume himself might have accommodated. Phenomenism, however, Prof. Ladd regards with unconcealed aversion, sometimes on the ground that it is "shallow," sometimes on the ground that it is "bald," sometimes that it is self-contradictory and absurd. It

would seem a pity, if this last be true, that he should have argued himself into it. Happily his reasons for regarding it in that disparaging light may not prove inexpugnable—so far, at least, as he has yet suggested them. (There may no doubt be better ones in that dark background of assumption to which allusion has been made.) We can examine but one of them before we close, but it may be taken as a sample of the rest. It may be stated as follows: That one knows something, one cannot doubt—one assumes it even in the argument to disprove it. But knowledge of phenomena is not knowledge; knowledge by its very terms imports reality. Therefore, the fundamendal doctrine of phenomenism, that we know nothing but phenomena (of consciousness), amounts to this, that we know that we know nothing.

We apologize for the harshness of the terms (it would be a mistake to speak of Prof. Ladd in semi-tones—he does not deal in them himself), but this bit of reasoning reminds one of a celebrated syllogism mentioned by Molière, in which the major was inept, the minor ridiculous, and the conclusion impertinent. For if (as Prof. Ladd grants for the purposes of argument) one can, on the assumption that one knows something, have a proof that one knows nothing, that assumption, like any other which issues in a contradiction, is sufficiently discredited. That a knowledge of phenomena is not knowledge sufficiently discredits itself. And that the conclusion is not pertinent will be plain to anybody who reflects on the bare meaning of the proposition that one knows *nothing* but phenomena. It means above all that the one thing we cannot know about consciousness is, that it is a phenomenon of something else—that consciousness is the only reality.

These, however, are but blemishes in a book which is strong enough to carry even worse ones. We have touched on its central and most interesting topic, but it treats incidentally and often at some length of many things besides. "The self, . . . not simply as known to itself, but also as scientifically known in its relations to the bodily organism," is the author's own statement of his subject, and under the latter head he discusses monistic materialism, monistic spiritualism (that monism of the "unknown" and "absurd" which regards both matter and mind as common manifestations of a single *tertium quid*), the law of causation, the conservation of energy, etc., etc. The three monisms mentioned he rejects for the time being in favor of something very like a plain man's dualism, which he assumes provisionally until the publication of the "certain points of view" and "even certain conclusions"—the undivulged premises of the 'Philosophy of Mind.' They will amount in their entirety, it seems, to an Idealistic Monism, not otherwise defined than that it issues in a personal Absolute, the One Ground of all interrelated existences and activities. The positions of the present book the reader is left to adjust to this as best he may.

Corea, or Cho-Sen, the Land of the Morning Calm. By A. Henry Savage-Landor. Macmillan & Co.

Mr. Landor's record as a writer of trustworthy narratives of travel does not predis pose us to accept without reservation his story of what he tells us about Cho-Sen. Like those of almost all writers upon the peninsular kingdom and people, his observations were confined to the capital and vicinity. He tells us a good deal about Chemulpo, the mushroom seaport, and of Seoul, which shares with Peking the reputation of being one of the dirtiest cities in the world. Being an artist, he was able to make realistic pictures, which are reproduced in text and full-page illustrations. One of these, entitled "A Study from Still Life," is horribly suggestive. It pictures scenes on one of those execution grounds which old residents of Japan, also, remember as being common, but which have so far disappeared from view that Japanese born since 1870 know nothing of them. The book, as a work of literary industry, shows vastly more care than our author's initial work, 'Alone with the Hairy Ainu,' and there is a good index. Evidently the author has profited by the severe criticisms and merciless exposure of his misstatements by those who have lived long among the Ainu. Hence, despite the tone of exaggeration on many pages of his present volume, and notwithstanding that certain episodes are reported as having taken place which we doubt utterly, we can recommend the narrative as in the main lively and interesting.

Mr. Landor, as his preface states, does not write "literary" English, but there are too many unnecessary colloquialisms to suit even the moderately critical reader, while whenever we meet the expressions "If I remember right," "I believe," etc., we are pretty sure to have a doubtful story or statement. The author nowhere refers to any authority for his knowledge of Korean history, and the very liberal way in which he has decanted considerable portions from a well-known work entitled 'Corea, the Hermit Nation,' without once referring to his source of information, cannot accurately be called fair or generous. Still further, remembering an article which he has written quite recently for an English periodical, in which he suggests that a startling romance could be constructed out of materials furnished in the book just named, and also (disguised under philanthropic pretences) in Oppert's 'A Forbidden Land,' we doubt the story of his meeting at Fusan the alleged body-snatcher (pp. 5–15). After reading the factitious conversation, we do not wonder that on Mr. Landor's appearing on deck to interview the "pirate," the latter had already gone, while his own ship was very conveniently on the point of raising anchor bound for Chemulpo. Besides other exaggerations and contempt of accuracy, we find that on page 1 the Pappenburg of Nagasaki Bay becomes Battenberg; the well-known Japanese firm Mitsu-Bishi becomes Mitzui Bashi, etc. We are told that "Corea is an extremely cold country, the thermometer reaching as low sometimes as 70 or even 80 degrees of frost." As for the (author's) tiger, he is omnipresent, and really Mr. Landor's ideas about him are very much like those of a child that has been frightened by its nurse. One has but to compare his thoroughly untrustworthy talk about tigers (not one of which he saw alive) with the very honest book of Capt. Cavendish, who, in his 'Korea and the Sacred White Mountain,' tells of his journeys through tiger land, showing that, besides the comparative rarity of the beasts, no European has yet had a shot at one of them. Mr. Landor seems to be more at home when he is describing the mythical zoölogy of the peninsula, in which, as in other subjects, his indebtedness to his authorities is not at all expressed.

Apart from these criticisms, the work is a narrative that has in it the element of personal adventure, and the pictures of the outdoor life of the white robed natives are full of warmth and color. The conversations which Mr. Landor had with both the educated and common folks, through more or less skilful interpreters, show a people too easily satisfied with their condition. They are not fond of cleanliness, though as a rule neat in their dress. They are great smokers of tobacco. They are not at all nice in the preparation of their food. They partake liberally of meat diet, and are, as a rule, fine-looking and stalwart. The contrast between their physical appearance, giving the suggestion of robustness, and their moral weakness, is clearly brought out. Mr. Landor's observations, however, seem to have been confined almost wholly to the capital, where the people, as a rule, are said to be shorter in stature than those in the north. In his realistic style we are told about the lepers, the various sorts of diseases, the gluttons, the criminals, the stone fights, and the fires, which vary the monotony of life. One chapter is devoted entirely to the mental traits, the physiognomy, the emotions and their expression, in the Korean man and woman. Families are generally small in number, it being rare that more than two children of the same father and mother come to maturity. Infant mortality is very great, and there are many reasons for it. Owing to the dissolute and effeminate life among the upper classes, very few able men are to be found among them. In short, this book gives a picture of Korea which is astonishingly like that of old or unreformed Japan. The pessimistic view of the author, who regards the future of Korea as almost hopeless, chimes in with that of Mr. Curzon in his recent book on 'The Problems of the Far East.' Thus far it appears that English authors and students, who look at Asiatic politics in the light of the necessities of the English market, do not seem to know that the old Korea which they describe is now for ever past. The Murata rifle has blown it to the winds, while at the same time piercing the rhinoceros crust of Chinese conceit. A new Korea is as surely and steadily, though very slowly, rising as has risen the New Japan of our day.

A Life of William Charles Macready. By W. T. Price. Brentano's.

The chief object of this publication in the "Masks and Faces" series seems to be the justification of Edwin Forrest for his share in the unfortunate quarrel which ended in the slaughter in Astor Place in 1849. One would have thought that it was scarcely worth while, especially in the case of an avowed friend of the American tragedian, to recall these bitter memories after a lapse of forty-five years. Mr. Price has nothing to add to the established facts with which all readers of stage history have long been familiar. His main contention is that Forster was Macready's most intimate friend, confidant, and agent, and that, therefore, Macready cannot be absolved from responsibility for whatever he may have said or done to the prejudice of Forrest in London. This is not a very ingenuous argument. It would be just as fair to hold Forrest to account for everything that his partisans wrote or said about Macready. Beyond doubt Forster was an ardent admirer and supporter of the English actor, but the extent of his active participation in the literary campaign against the American performer is uncertain. He denied the authorship of some of the articles ascribed to him; and Macready himself—a fair-dealing man in spite of his passions and jealousies—always declared that he had never stooped to suborn the press against his rival. Of course there

were faults and lamentable misunderstandings on both sides, but the fact remains that the first act of overt hostility was committed by Forrest, when he publicly insulted his adversary by hissing him in the theatre and boasting of the deed afterwards. Had it not been for the later bloodshed, this tempest in the theatrical teapot would never have been recorded except in the newspapers of the day. The responsibility for the closing tragedy does not rest upon any one man or two. Possibly a scheme of theatrical advertising may have had more to do with the inflammation of public feeling than has been suspected generally.

Mr. Price's biographical sketch is pleasantly written and affords a compact and comprehensive synopsis of Macready's career as previously set forth in the diaries and elsewhere. His selection of anecdotes, or, rather, his arrangement of them, is, perhaps, a little malicious; but, on the whole, he gives due prominence to the many virtues as well as the notorious faults of his remarkable subject. An interesting feature of the little book is the excerpts from contemporary criticism. Macready's life ought to be studied by all who wish to know what the pursuit of theatrical art for its own sake really means.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bangs, J. K. The Idiot. Harpers. $1.
Boardman, S. L. Handbook of the Turf. Orange Judd Co. $1.
Chambers, G. F. The Story of the Stars. [Library of Useful Stories.] Appletons.
Chambers, R. W. The King in Yellow. F. T. Neely.
Couperus, Louis. Majesty: A Novel. Appletons.
Davis, Prof. Noah K. Elements of Inductive Logic. Harpers. $1.
Davis, R. H. The Princess Aline. Harpers. $1.25.
Defoe, Daniel. The Life and Strange and Surprising Adventures of Robinson Crusoe of York, Mariner. 3 vols. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Denney, Rev. James. Studies in Theology. Armstrong. $1.50.
Dougall, L. The Mermaid. Appletons.
Echegaray, José. The Son of Don Juan. Translated by James Graham. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. The Book of Daniel. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Flagg, E. O. Poems, and Later Poems. Whittaker. $1.25.
Fletcher, W. I., and Bowker, R. R. The Annual Literary Index. 1894. *Publishers' Weekly.*
Forbes, W. H. Thucydides, Book I. Part I.—Introduction and Text. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Fortier, Prof. Alcée. Louisiana Folk-Tales, in French Dialect and English Translation. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Foster, Roger, and Abbot, E. A. A Treatise on the Federal Income Tax under the Act of 1894. Boston: Boston Book Co. $3.50.
Four American Universities: Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Columbia. Illustrated. Harpers. $3.50.
Garver, W. L. Brother of the Third Degree. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Hope, Anthony. A Man of Mark. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Hope, Anthony. Father Stafford. F. T. Neely.
Hoppin, Miss Emily H. Under the Corsican. J. Selwin Tait & Sons. $1.
Hoppus, J. D. Poems. London: Richard Bentley & Son.
Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia. New ed. Vol. VI. Appletons.
Kendrick, Prof. A. C. Martin B. Anderson: A Biography. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Knapp, J. M. The Universities and the Social Problem: An Account of the University Settlements in East London. London: Rivington, Percival & Co.
Kuhns, Prof. L. O. A Selection from the Poetry and Comedies of Alfred de Musset. Boston: Ginn & Co. 90 cents.
Kürschner, Joseph. Deutscher Litteratur-Kalender, 1895. Stuttgart: G. J. Goschen; New York: Westermann.
Lecky, Walter. Down at Caxton's. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. 35 cents.
Life and Dreams. Poems. G. W. Dillingham.
Life and Times of Frederick Douglass. Written by Himself. Boston: De Wolf, Fiske & Co.
Lillie, Lucy C. Allison's Adventures; A Story for Girls. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Linton, E. L. The New Woman. The Merriam Co.
Love, W. De L., Jr. The Fast and Thanksgiving Days of New England. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Lovell's Gazetteer of British North America. Montreal: John Lovell & Son.
Molière, J. B. Les Femmes Savantes. Le Malade Imaginaire. Translated by Katharine P. Wormeley. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Nordau, Max. Degeneration. Appletons.
Pendered, Mary L. A Pastoral Played Out. Cassell.
Ruggles, H. J. The Plays of Shakspere founded on Literary Forms. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Tabley, Lord de. Poems Dramatic and Lyrical, Second Series. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Thomson, Dr. W. H. The Parables and their Home. Harpers. $1.25.
Turgenev, Ivan. On the Eve. Macmillan. $1.25.
Ufer, Chr. Introduction to the Pedagogy of Herbart. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 90 cents.
Watson, Augusta C. Off Lynnport Light. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Weichselbaum, Prof. Anton. The Elements of Pathological Histology. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.50.
Whitley, Charles. Underdowne's Heliodorus. [Tudor Translations.] London: David Nutt.
Wilson, Rev. S. J. Occasional Addresses and Sermons. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Young, A. W. The Government Class Book. Maynard, Merrill & Co. $1.05.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 28, 1895.

The Week.

Our esteemed contemporary the *Tribune* continues to lift its Cassandra cry against the improvement of trade, pointing out particularly "the flood of imports" that is rushing upon our shores. In order to give this flood its due effect on the imagination, it takes up the several countries and articles seriatim. Thus, we learn that during the quarter ending December 31, 1894, we imported from Canada $475,000 worth of fish, $92,000 of apples, $56,000 of flax and tow, $107,000 of hides and skins, and a total of forest and farm products of $3,608,000. If Canada belonged to us, this condition of trade would be considered highly flourishing, because her products would be paid for with our products; but since she is a foreign country, we must pay for her products with gold, and this leads to our impoverishment. It relieves the situation somewhat to learn that we are selling pig-iron in Canada to such an extent that we have driven Scotch pig out of the Montreal market. This fact we learn from the columns of the *American Manufacturer* of Pittsburgh. This paper says apologetically that the selling of so much American iron in Canada is due to the very low price at which it is offered, a fact that usually accounts for large sales both at home and abroad. Perhaps the sales of Canadian fish, apples, flax, tow, hides, etc., to us are accounted for in the same way.

The lamentable increase of imports extends to Russia and to Sweden. The former country has flooded us with bristles, camels' hair, goat skins, carpet wool, licorice root, and manganese ore, while the latter has deluged us with iron ore and wood pulp. Switzerland has dumped upon our shores aniline colors, cheese, condensed milk, embroideries, curtains, dyestuffs, chemicals, silk goods, straw goods, watches and watch materials to the amount of more than four million dollars, being an increase of fully a million as compared with the last quarter of 1893. Holland is not far behind Switzerland in this nefarious business, having sent us bulbs and plants to the amount of $54,000, besides Edam cheese, cocoa, coffee, herrings, rice, Sumatra tobacco and, alas, diamonds, to the value of $642,000. Who is going to pay for these diamonds, we should like to know? Horace Greeley used to lecture us once a week on the purchase of foreign gewgaws. Can there be a more reprehensible gewgaw than a diamond? And when American citizens buy diamonds for their wives, do they reflect that they have to be paid for with gold, if indeed they are paid for at all?

We are sorry to say that it has been decided in the newspaper offices that we must have a war with Great Britain on account of Venezuela, if not also on account of Nicaragua. What is the trouble? Why, according to one of the space writers, "the facts are so clear that nobody needs to be for a single moment in doubt. The case is perfectly simple. Venezuela owns the land [the Cuyuni Valley], Great Britain covets it and is trying to grab it, by guile if she can, by force if she must. Is she to succeed? That is the whole Venezuelan question. This is therefore a barefaced attempt by a European power to oppress an independent American state, and to seize and colonize its territory." The facts being so clear, there can be no difficulty in applying the Monroe Doctrine to them. We must repel Great Britain from Venezuela by force of arms. What we wish especially to point out is the wonderful simplicity we have introduced into diplomatic controversies. Nothing has come out so clearly within the last two or three years as the absurdity of maintaining expensive diplomatic services and foreign offices and the like, and the futility of the long discussions carried on over these international disputes about rights and wrongs. There are few newspaper offices in this country in which all such questions cannot be settled by a young man at a salary which is not one-twentieth of what is paid to our pompous ambassadors and ministers plenipotentiary. Take this Venezuelan controversy. It has been so examined in the *Tribune* office that "nobody need to be for a single moment in doubt" about it. Now see the advantages of this system. Everybody is not interested in the Venezuelan trouble, but those who are can have their minds cleared about it for three cents. The man who clears their minds probably gets only $40 a week. Gresham gets probably $150, and Bayard gets about $336. But we must not suppose that these two are the only persons who are paid for doing this silly business. There is a whole army of secretaries, clerks, and précis-writers employed at Washington in the State Department to work over complaints against Great Britain, ocean "keys," military cables, and manifest destiny. The waste, sheer, wicked waste, of all this must surely be becoming clearer to a religious and thrifty people.

The weight of the religious press is not what it used to be in politics, for reasons which it is not necessary to discuss, but on the subject of needlessly embroiling the country in war it still speaks with conviction and influence. It was the warnings and protests of the religious press that, as much as anything, showed Harrison how strongly the sentiment of the country was against his senseless and desperate project of going to war with Chili; and again last week we were pleased to see the *Independent*, the *Outlook*, and other papers of their class, condemn the bloodthirstiness of the Jingoes. There never was a more ludicrous case of a handful of penny-a-liners and noisy and unscrupulous politicians pretending to speak for the dignity and majesty of a nation, which is in more danger of humiliation by their braggart silliness than by anything else.

Senator Proctor is a man for good Americans to keep their eyes on. He does not agree with Lodge, Frye, and Cullom in hoping for a war with Spain so that "we may have an opportunity to annex Cuba." The character of the population, he adds, is not such as he would consider desirable in a State of the Union, and a State Cuba would necessarily become, he thinks, if annexed. Now it is hard to have to sit down with a United States Senator and point out to him what Lodge says every intelligent schoolboy knows, but we must do it if our institutions are to live and prosper. Does not Mr. Proctor know that intense Americans never ask how we are to govern distant islands and mongrel races after we get them? That, as President Harrison said when urging the annexation of Hawaii, is a mere matter of detail which it is always wise to leave to the future. Moreover, if the Cubans are undesirable, what are the Hawaiians, what are the Samoans, what are the other nondescript islanders that Lodge says we must annex? Surely Senator Proctor must see that these disagreeable inquiries about the character of new citizens have a "holier-than-thou" appearance. They are, in fact, thoroughly provincial, quite like the unreasonable squeamishness of a Vermont villager over having a Russian boarding-house opened next door to him. America can never, under that system, become the great and glorious bully of Lodge's dreams. Besides, does not Mr. Proctor know what the instantaneous effect of American institutions upon alien peoples is certain to be? Can he not see them becoming, at first contact with our politics, industrious and sober, students of the constitution, enemies of corruption, good Republicans? We fear he has not read Lodge's great speech, which, we are glad to see, has been reprinted, colored maps and all, for the benefit of just such slow wits as Senator Proctor.

The Missionaries and their friends are clearly disturbed in their minds by the attention which has been called to the discrepancy between the accounts they used to give of the moral condition of the natives of Hawaii and those they give now after

getting their property away from them and overturning their Government. So Mr. Gorham D. Gilman has come to the rescue in virtue of fifty years' residence and experience in the Sandwich Islands, and characteristically enough furnishes an explanation of it all in that "home of lost causes," the New York *Sun*. The way it happens that the Hawaiians are so bad now when they used to be so good is this: All went well till Kalakaua ascended the throne. This wicked sovereign promptly "cut loose from moral restrictions," and set to work "seducing his people from the code of morals which had been established." He also used "political influence and bribery." After sixteen years of this, the natives perceived that they might abandon Christianity without losing their palace "pull," so they abandoned it, and "soured on" the Missionaries.

But a far worse thing than this happened about the same time, namely, "the withdrawal by the American Board in 1862 of the financial support which for forty years they had generously given." This seems to have precipitated the moral collapse of the natives. As soon as they found the Missionaries had lost their "financial support," they cried, "Evil, be thou my good," and, "Satan, come to my arms." They then set to work to breed an evil and adulterous generation, with this result:

> "The condition of affairs in 1865–1895, a generation of the race, is vastly different, not from any course of action of the missionaries or their sons, but from the conduct of the native leaders, who have endeavored persistently and systematically to turn the people from the gospel of truth and purity to the condition in which we find them to-day. It is not by any means to be understood that all of the natives are to be classed as degenerate or apostates. There are still many of them who maintain respectable church connections, and it is believed that under the present influence of renewed activity in religious life, and the stable government which has been established, very many will again return to their churches."

We must all rejoice that the determination of the Sons of the Missionaries to get hold of the Government for business reasons should have coincided with need of a revival of religious life among the natives. But we cannot acquit the Missionaries of all responsibility in the matter, because it is plain from Mr. Gilman's own admission that the withdrawal of the "financial support" caused some relaxation of evangelical activity on their part. But in a country of yams, breadfruit, wild pigs, and other necessaries, and in a fine climate, this ought not to have had any effect on real apostles. Sooner than let the natives go to the dogs in this way, ought they not to have preached in breechclouts and lived on locusts and wild honey? We are sorry to hear that "the men now in charge of affairs are largely men of Christian character"; for much of their conduct is well calculated to bring "Christian character" into disrepute.

The registration of the laborers in the city service is probably one of the most important steps yet taken in this city by the Civil-Service Commission, for in no department has corruption been more rampant and more corrupting. It is no great exaggeration to say that the privilege of laboring for the city with shovel or spade, or pickaxe or broom, has for years and years been an article of merchandise; that it was regularly dealt in by aldermen, district leaders, and ward "heelers"; that poor men were compelled to share their wages with the scum of the community, and in return were allowed to dawdle and loaf over their work. The bargain, however, gave them no security of tenure, for they were turned adrift as soon as something was to be gained by finding a place for another "man." One of the worst features of the system, besides its corruption and injustice, was the profound belief in the venality of everybody connected with the administration of city affairs, which this diffused among the working classes, especially the more ignorant portion of them. A worse preparation for the exercise of the electoral franchise could hardly be conceived of, especially when backed up by a totally corrupt police and a vicious and blackguard police-bench. Indeed, we think it may be said that the release of the laborer from this base tyranny is the foundation on which all other city reforms must be built. Under the new rules, every laborer who is physically fit and whose character is good, can register himself as an applicant for labor, and all departments of the city government employing labor must take the men as they stand on the list, without sale, denial, or delay.

The strike of the electrical workers is declared "off" after having been "on" for more than a month. The men gain nothing which was not theirs from the beginning for the asking, and go back to work with the proud consciousness that they have lost a month's wages in vain. Some of them have lost their jobs permanently, and will have to find employment elsewhere. Yet we suppose the next time the walking delegates order a strike, a strike will come with the same unquestioning obedience of the men, and child-like faith as in superior powers. What organized workmen can gain without strikes is shown by Mrs. Lowell's account of the New York bricklayers. They have not struck once in the past ten years, yet during that time have succeeded in getting their wages raised from forty-two to fifty cents an hour, and in securing an eight-hour day; although a long strike in 1884 for a nine-hour day failed disastrously. These results have been brought about through a permanent joint arbitration committee, composed of equal numbers of employers and employed, in which all differences have been rationally discussed and amicably adjusted. This method is hard on the dignity and emoluments of the walking delegate, but as far as the man is concerned who does the work and earns the wages, it seems to be successful, though very inglorious.

The Massachusetts committee which went down to the South to inquire into the cotton-mill question, got into an amusing trouble at Richmond, Va. One of its members named Teamoh was a negro, but he appears to have been very nearly white, for he made his way into the Governor's mansion to lunch along with the others without obstruction. But Gov. O'Ferrall found it out afterwards, and he has accordingly written to the committee that if he had known there was a colored man in the party, his reception of them would have been much more "formal." He would have met them at his "executive office," and not in "his mansion." He appears, too, to accuse the committee of double-dealing, for he says the stories the members have been telling in Boston about the affair do not tally with "the expressions of disgust and annoyance in which they indulged *ad libitum* in Richmond at having with them the negro Teamoh." The Governor is undoubtedly in a very embarrassing position. His white constituents would never have forgiven him had he knowingly entertained Teamoh, and, on the other hand, had he excluded Teamoh he would have been guilty of discourtesy to a sister State. The committee, on the other hand, had to pretend in Boston that they were delighted to have Teamoh with them, but at Richmond, that he was a disgusting object. To ordinary men such situations are very trying, but politicians rather like them. They enjoy shamelessly the twists and turns by which they escape being "cornered."

Prof. W. J. Meyers makes a neat little demonstration in the *Political Science Quarterly* of the fallacies of municipal bookkeeping as applied to electric lighting. The report of the superintendent of the Chicago electric-light plant reports the annual cost as $96 per lamp, against $102 per lamp paid private companies. But an analysis of the figures shows that the superintendent made no allowance for water consumed, nor for interest, nor taxes, nor insurance nor depreciation of plant. Adding in a proper estimate for these items, the true cost is shown to be $167 per lamp. This is in line with the results obtained by Mr. Francisco in his instructive examination of the alleged economies of municipal ownership. The economies are almost invariably on paper merely, and a little figuring will show it.

Harvard clearly does not shrink from the distinction of administering the deathblow to intercollegiate football. After thinking over the matter for several weeks,

the faculty of the university have not only adhered to their former resolution, adopted on February 19, requesting the committee on athletics to put a stop to such contests, but have gone a step further, and, by a considerable majority, have voted that they "remain of the opinion that no student under their charge should be permitted to take part in intercollegiate football contests." This action was taken after a report of the committee on athletics, recommending a continuation of the game restricted to college grounds and placed under other limitations, had been rejected. While there are some pretences of doubt as to what this action means, there can be only one interpretation put upon it. It means that Harvard has abolished the game, and that other colleges will be obliged to follow suit. That such a course was inevitable has been sufficiently plain for several months. There has been a great deal of anxiety "to save the game" among the graduates and undergraduates, but the faculty of Harvard have been more anxious to save the cause of learning, and have adopted the surest course possible to that end. What a pitiable figure the colleges of the present day would have cut in the eyes of posterity if, in order to "save the game," they had let the cause of learning go by the board; yet this is what many of them, egged on by the clamor of graduates, were in danger of doing. Harvard has saved the cause for them, and within a few years they will all be grateful to her for her courage in doing so. The devotees of the game will weep for a season, but their sorrow will be short-lived, and sanity will speedily resume sway in their minds.

Mr. Gladstone's latest literary achievement is the publication of a concordance to the Psalter. In explaining why he chose the text as it stands in the Book of Common Prayer, he speaks of its "incomparable beauty," and says that "there are many of its single verses on which, taken severally, we might be content, so lofty is their nature, to stake the whole argument for a Divine Revelation." Such high praise could scarcely have appeared too high to those who read the Fiftieth Psalm in the church service a Sunday or two ago, and perceived with what a sure touch a man of our own day was hit off by the sacred writer. "Thou hatest to be reformed," says the Prayer-Book version, certainly with much more point than the vague rendering, "Thou hatest instruction," preferred in the church where Platt worships. Then with what a prophetic pen does Asaph go on: "When thou sawest a thief, thou consentedst unto him, and hast been partaker with the adulterers." "These things hast thou done, and I held my tongue, and thou thoughtest wickedly that I am even such a one as thyself; but I will reprove thee, and set before thee the things that thou hast done." We are conscientiously opposed to a union of church and state, but a law, or even a constitutional amendment, requiring this psalm to be read daily before the Legislature, we could not find it in our hearts to oppose. And much as we, in common with Platt's pastor, are attached to King James's version, we should be glad to see the Prayer-Book text adopted in the Marble Church—at least on those Sundays when Platt is present. "Thou hatest to be reformed," read with proper elocution before a devout assembly of which he was a conspicuous member, could not fail to heighten the general reverence for Holy Writ.

Among the silver nostrums proposed for the next international conference, if one should be held, is that of Herr von Schraut, who was one of the German delegates to the Paris conference of 1881. He proposes a method of smoothing the way for England's coöperation in the attempt to "do something for silver." His plan is to authorize any country to issue silver certificates against bullion or coin at an agreed ratio with gold, such certificates to be accepted in international trade at their face value and to be redeemable by the issuing country in silver or gold at the holder's option. Thus, if the ratio agreed upon should be 20 to 1, the United States could issue a certificate for 20,000 ounces of silver or 1,000 ounces of gold, and the certificate would be legal tender for its face value in all the countries embraced in the treaty, on condition that the United States should pay on demand to the holder either 20,000 ounces of silver or 1,000 ounces of gold, as he might elect. This arrangement, it is needless to say, would be laughed to scorn by our silverites, and indeed it ought to be. Herr von Schraut thinks that it would be well to put a time limit on the plan at first, making it operative for only five years. The declared object of the scheme is "to mobilize the unproductive mass of silver so as to facilitate the relations of exchange among the various countries." This is rather a Delphic utterance, but as it seems to relate mainly to the mass of silver now in existence, we must ask what will be the effect of it on silver mining. If it should cause an advance in the price, it would assuredly lead to an increased output. The *Engineering and Mining Journal*, which keeps a pretty close account of the yield, says that, while the production of our own mines shows a decline of ten or eleven million ounces per annum since the repeal of the Sherman law, those of Mexico and of Australia show an increase and those of South America no diminution. It is too early to say that the aggregate yield of the world has declined.

Absolute freedom in teaching has been so long associated with the German universities that few Americans have taken seriously the reports that the so-called *Umsturzvorlage*, now before a committee of the Reichstag, has for one of its objects the limitation of *Lehrfreiheit*. Yet such is undoubtedly the case. Paragraph 130 of the bill contains a provision by which any person convicted of publicly attacking religion, the monarchy, and the institutions of private property, marriage, and the family, shall be liable to a penalty of imprisonment for not more than two years, or a fine of not more than six hundred marks. Both the language of the journals that are supporting the bill, and that of the Social Democrats, who are rejoiced at this opportunity to aid their cause by making martyrs of the university professors, make it plain that an attack upon *Lehrfreiheit* is intended. It is urged, on the one hand, that it is hopeless to attempt to stem the tide of social revolution among the lower classes if the upper classes are to be taught at the universities that the existing social and political order is unjust and unjustifiable; and, on the other, that it is not logical to punish Socialist orators for proclaiming on the platform the very doctrines that the professors are systematically expounding in their lecture-rooms. One deputy has mentioned by name, in debating this bill, Profs. Ziegler of Strassburg and Wagner and Paulsen of Berlin as men whose writings contained passages that attack certain widely held beliefs, and who should therefore be punished.

For a time the university professors seem to have taken no notice of these attacks; but more recently Prof. Haeckel of Jena and others have come forward to defend their privileges. Haeckel enumerates the scientists, from Keppler to Helmholtz, whose works the law would suppress; as for the defence of marriage, he suggests the abolition of sacerdotal celibacy. Prof. Paulsen, in an article that has attracted much attention, throws down the gauntlet to the friends of the bill, by pointing out that, from Wittenberg down, all the great revolutions of Germany have proceeded from the universities, that such a measure as is proposed will tend to hasten the very calamity that it is designed to prevent. The students are strongly supporting the professors, and have recently made a formal demonstration in honor of those who have been attacked. The committee of sixteen having this bill in charge are listening to most extraordinary propositions. It is publicly reported that a Catholic member of the committee soberly proposed an amendment to provide that any one who does not believe in the existence of God and the immortality of the soul shall be punished with two years' imprisonment. Not only was this amendment actually proposed and discussed, but it is said that only Dr. Barth, editor of *Die Nation*, and Bebel, the Socialist leader, took strong ground against it.

GOVERNMENTAL WASTE.

In the closing hours of Congress, reports were received and ordered printed from the Joint Commission on the reorganization of business methods in the executive departments of the Government. Little or no attention was paid them. How could there have been when all the truly great minds at Washington were convulsed over the Hawaiian cable, the sugar-bounty grab, and other really practical matters? Yet to the plain mind of an ordinary citizen, gladly leaving statesmanship to those who have a genius for it, and taking merely an humble interest in the actual working of the machinery of state, in economy, in despatch of business, in the adoption of modern methods of office-work, the reports will appear as important as anything which Congress did or left undone.

The Commission was created by act of March 3, 1893, and consisted of Senators Cockrell, Jones (of Arkansas), and Cullom, with Representatives Dockery, Dingley, and Richardson; Mr. Dockery being chosen chairman. Early in May three business experts were employed, who first directed their attention to the methods of accounting in the Treasury Department. These were at once found to be antiquated, cumbrous, and costly. A system which every large business had long since cast aside was clung to by the Government, partly out of sheer inertia and laziness, partly because any reform would involve a cutting down of the force of employees, which is something no public man could contemplate without horror. Still, the exposition of the experts was too convincing and their arguments too powerful to be withstood, even by a lumpish Congress, and, under the skilful guidance of Messrs. Dockery and Dingley in the House and Mr. Cockrell in the Senate, a bill reorganizing the general accounting system of the Government passed and was approved July 31, 1894. It dispensed outright with the services of 176 clerks, at an annual saving to the Government of $239,430. This is the incredible part of the story. To devise new methods of book-keeping is all very well if they only call for greater outlay and a larger force; but to legislate 176 clerks out of a job at one blow is enough to rouse apprehensions among all lovers of the Constitution. Apprehensions were roused. Senator Sherman was put forward to allege that the methods good enough for "the fathers" were good enough for the children, and to hint vaguely at great losses to the Government which might result if so many manipulators of red tape were dispensed with. Still, the bill passed, and is the greatest single achievement of its kind, the greatest triumph of common sense as applied to public business, since the war, if not since the foundation of the Government.

Of course the prophets of evil were bound to make good their own predictions. As if by concerted arrangement, complaints about the new system began to find their way to the newspapers soon after it was instituted. Some of the discharged clerks shook their heads ominously as if they could tell a tale an they would, and as if the losses and stealings under the new plan would prove something tremendous. Outraged Government contractors were discovered in the Far West whose accounts had been terribly muddled in the department, who were never so delayed and vexed in their lives, and so on. But the report of the Commission has effectually stilled this outcry. It contains letters from the secretary of the treasury and from all the heads of departments, showing that the new system is working well, that accounts are adjusted with greater rapidity and certainty than ever before, and that the Government business is distinctly in a more forward and intelligible condition than before the useless clerical lumber was got rid of.

But the Commission did not stop here. It took up the question of purchase of Government supplies, and devised a system by which the Senate should not pay a higher price for ice than the House, the attorney-general's carpets should be bought as cheaply as the secretary of agriculture's, and coal got at as good advantage for the Treasury Building as for the War-Office. By a little consolidation and systematization here another $100,000 a year is saved to the Government. The Commission's experts also devised a new and economical form of postal money-orders, and effected various other savings and retrenchments which are set forth, together with those mentioned, in the following table:

	Clerks	Salaries.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
Purchase of supplies	.....	.....	$100,000	$100,000
Treasurer's report	2	$2,000	6,500	8,500
Certificates of deposits by postmasters	5	6,000	.....	6,000
Accounting in Post-Office Department	40	77,780	70,000	147,780
Property returns	13	15,000	.....	15,000
Destruction of old money-orders	.....	.....	10,000	10,000
Warrants and drafts	4	5,400	.....	5,400
Returns of quartermaster and commissary generals	5	6,000	.....	6,000
Statistics, international money orders	5	7,000	3,000	10,000
General Land Office	1	2,000	1,181	3,181
Inspecting coal and wood	.....	.....	6,300	6,300
Books, stationery, rent, etc	.....	.....	50,000	50,000
Treasury accounting	176	239,430	.....	239,430
Total	251	$360,610	$246,981	$607,591

Other recommendations made but not yet acted upon would cause a further annual saving of $449,928, or a total of more than $1,000,000, at a cost in salaries of experts, etc., of $41,264.

These results not only are significant and cheering in themselves, but are suggestive of still greater reforms to come. No man can go an inch below the surface of federal, State, or municipal administration without finding evidence on all sides of waste and extravagance. Executive departments and offices are created, not to do the public business in the best and most economical way, but to make comfortable "places" for a certain number of politicians. This was very neatly brought out in one separate report of the Joint Commission. They showed that the new form of money-order devised by them and adopted in September, 1893, made entirely superfluous the "checking division," employing thirty-six clerks at an annual cost of $37,120. Under the new system there is no checking to do. Yet those thirty-six devoted clerks have gone on checking and drawing their salaries just the same. No change of system can change their fidelity. There they are, true to the last, awaiting the order of the secretary of the treasury to go. The commission recommends their discharge as cumberers of the office, but Mr. Carlisle still clings to them, as far as the public knows. They are spared monuments of governmental waste. When our socialist friends want a clinching argument to show how economically and at what a low cost of production business can be carried on by the state, let them bring out those checking clerks, their work abolished, their occupation gone, but still mechanically checking away and drawing their salaries.

THE SUPREME COURT AND THE DICTIONARY.

One of the oddest things in the income-tax discussion through which we have been passing during the last few months is the general acknowledgment of the power of the Supreme Court to alter nomenclature—that is, to give one name to a thing when the dictionaries and popular usage give another, and on this change to base a decision seriously affecting property rights. The attention of the lawyers has been given so largely to the legal aspects of the case, to the task of proving that the income tax is a direct tax, that comparatively little attention has been paid to the liberties taken by the court with the language; and yet this is really a more serious matter than the amount of the tax, for if it can take one thing out of the purview of the Constitution by giving it a new name, of course it can take another, and then what is the use of the Constitution?

The distinction between direct and indirect taxes has been known and talked of almost ever since taxation became regularized. Turgot says (vol. i, 394): "There are only three possible forms of taxation: the direct on land; the direct on persons, which becomes a tax on exploitation; the indirect on consumption." Adam Smith does not mention the direct tax, *eo nomine*, but he describes it. The fifth "Maxim" of Quesnay, the French physiocrat, "that the tax should be laid immediately on the returns of real estate, and not on salaries or products," is described by Lavergne in his 'Économistes Français du 18me Siècle' as "nothing less than the theory of the direct or sin-

gle tax (*impôt unique et direct*), to the exclusion of indirect taxes on consumption." McCulloch, in his notes to his edition of Adam Smith, quotes a discussion of the comparative merits of direct and indirect taxes by the Marquis de Garnier in the preface to his translation of Smith. He discusses them himself also (p. 615). Alexander Hamilton, in No. 36 of the *Federalist*, talks of the division of internal taxes into "direct and indirect," and says, "By the latter must be understood duties and excises on articles of consumption." Say (vol. ii, p. 396) says, "progression can only take place in relation to the direct tax"; that it "is impossible to apply it to the indirect tax, such as customs duties and taxes on consumption." Tooke, in his 'History of Prices' (vol. i, p. 87), in the index, speaks of "taxes on commodities" as "indirect." Ricardo (p. 145) speaks of the distinction as existing, but misleading on the point of final incidence. John Stuart Mill (book v, p. 51) says "taxation demanded from the very persons who it is intended or desired should pay, is direct taxation." Prof. Nicholson, in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' ("Taxation"), makes the same distinction. Prof. Henry Sedgwick, in his 'Principles of Political Economy,' treats *direct or indirect* as "the common classification," but agrees with Ricardo in thinking it misleading as to incidence. Mill's definition has likewise been adopted by Fawcett and Wagner the German, in his 'Handbuch.' All the large dictionaries, English and American, adopt it also.

Léon Say, in his 'Dictionnaire d'Économie Politique,' describes a direct tax as

> "any tax which falls directly on persons or property, is collected by means of registered names, and passes immediately from the tax-payer to the tax-collector. Indirect taxes are so called because, instead of falling directly and by name on persons, they fall, in general, on objects of consumption or on services rendered."

The direct tax is, in common parlance, and by apparently universal agreement, a tax paid directly by persons without any special or immediate means of diffusing it.

We may mention, also, that there is a very brilliant discussion of the working of direct and indirect taxation under the old régime in France, in Taine's 'Régime Moderne' (p. 263 *et seq.*). To crown all, we think we may assert with confidence that in no economical work or philological dictionary is "excise" defined as anything but a tax levied on articles of consumption or on movable property, which may be avoided by not consuming or not owning the articles taxed. Yet this term has been applied by the Supreme Court and the lawyers to the income tax. All this would seem to indicate that a claim is solemnly made for the Supreme Court of a power over nomenclature—that is, over the names of things—in disregard both of their nature and uses, which to the lay mind is quite incomprehensible, and which if often resorted to would bring contempt on the law.

There does not appear in the history of the terms any better cause of the departure of the court from common usage than a suggestion of Alexander Hamilton in the carriage case (1796) that capitation and land tax were the only direct taxes known to the Constitution, which was possibly true, for Pitt did not introduce the income-tax bill till 1798. But the oddity of this decision, which, when the tax appeared more than half a century later, on our side of the water, made it "an excise," lay in the fact that the nature of the tax, its subject and manner of collection, were apparently not considered by the court at all. It simply said, Is this a capitation tax? No. Is it a land tax? No. Then it must be an excise. All this is more important than it seems at first sight, because the judgment of the court in the carriage case (Hylton agst. the United States) confesses that the provision in the Constitution that a direct tax must be based on population, was expressly intended to protect one part of the country from oppressive taxation at the hands of another—the South, for instance, with its slaves and scanty population, at the hands of the rich and prosperous North. Alexander Hamilton recognizes this same danger in the *Federalist*, for, speaking of the direct taxes, he says:

> "An actual census or enumeration of the people must furnish the rule, a circumstance which effectually shuts the door to partiality or oppression. The abuse of this power of taxation seems to have been provided against with guarded circumspection. In addition to the precautions just mentioned, there is a provision that 'all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States.'"

Singularly enough, the value of this provision did not become apparent for a century, as no direct tax was attempted till during the war, when the patriotic enthusiasm of the time made its examination impossible. But the one which is now under discussion undoubtedly aims at the very thing which the South feared in 1787. That is, it is a tax meant by the South and West to oppress and harass the region in which gold-bugs most abound, and in which people are supposed to be rolling in luxury through their adhesion to a sound currency.

REPUBLICAN HIGHWAYMEN.

The list of Republican Senators who advocate the conquest of Cuba now includes two from New England, Lodge, and Frye, with Cullom of Illinois. Lodge scored a "beat" on the others by announcing in the *Forum* that Cuba would soon "become a necessity to us." The others have, however, made up for their tardiness by the boldness of their language. Cullom, with the true fury of a fresh-water Senator spoiling for a sea-fight, declared last week that Cuba was "the natural property of the United States," and, of course, could not be made ours too soon. "In fact," said the tough old Illinoisian, working himself up into a patriotic frenzy becoming to one who was talking to a *Tribune* reporter, "it is time that some one woke up and realized the necessity of annexing property." When this interview reached Washington, Frye saw at once that he must look to his laurels as a freebooter, and accordingly delivered himself of the following praise of piracy:

> "It looks as if Spain would make the required apology, and as if all would soon be settled. I had hoped it would be otherwise, and that Spain would assume such an arrogant and belligerent tone that it would be necessary for the United States to go over and take possession of Cuba. We certainly ought to have that island in order to round out our possessions as they should be, and if we cannot buy it, I for one should like to have an opportunity to acquire it by conquest."

In casting about for suitable epithets to apply to these eminent Republicans, one cannot do better than turn to the platform of the Republican party in 1856. One of the planks of that platform, the first ever adopted by the Republican party, reads as follows:

> "Resolved, that the highwayman's plea, that 'Might makes right,' embodied in the Ostend circular, was in every respect unworthy of American diplomacy, and would bring shame and dishonor upon any government or people that gave it their sanction."

What was the Ostend circular? It was a proslavery plan of campaign to seize upon Cuba, based on almost precisely the same arguments as those now used by the New England Senators. Soulé, Buchanan, and Mason declared in 1854, just as Lodge, Frye, and Cullom declare in 1895, that "the United States must have Cuba." Spain ought to sell us the island at a fair price, but if she would not, then we should be justified in taking it by force, and need not care for the "reproaches of the world." Even Lodge's wonderful "map" argument was anticipated by his proslavery predecessors, inasmuch as the Ostend conspirators were able to see, as well as he, that "a glance at the map" would show that Cuba was "necessary to the United States." These arguments the Republican party, in the first flush of its moral enthusiasm against slavery, denounced as the arguments of highwaymen, little dreaming that the next generation would see Republican Senators, representing the religion and humanity of New England, taking the places of Foote and Slidell and Brown. The last-named, a Senator from Mississippi, made a speech in New York city in 1859, which Senator Frye seems to have plagiarized almost bodily. Said Brown:

> "Cuba must and shall be ours. If Spain is disposed to sell the island, I, for one, stand prepared to pay for it. If Spain be indisposed to sell, I would seize Cuba as indemnity for the past, and then negotiate for future security. We intend to meet Seward face to face on this question."

How Seward and Sumner and Davis would rub their eyes if they were here now and found leading Republican Senators taking the place of the Southern fire-eaters and highwaymen of fifty years ago! *Hamlet* and *Laertes* changing swords is nothing to this. The Southern slave-own-

ing Senators used almost the same arguments, and acted from almost the same motives, as their Northern imitators. They wanted to expand our territory. They wanted to extend our commerce. Moreover, they hated England with as fierce a hatred as the most patriotic Republican of the present day. England was then the stronghold of freemen; therefore she must be the deadly enemy of a slave-owning country. She is now the stronghold of free trade; therefore a protectionist country can never live on good terms with her. If seizing Cuba would mortify her, then we need no other reason. The Southerners were the Jingoes of a generation ago. They were spoiling for a fight as our valiant Republican Senators are now—but, again like them, they did not want to pick out too big an antagonist. When Lord Salisbury told Harrison that this country would seize another British ship in Bering Sea at its peril, the Republicans discovered a sudden zeal for arbitration; but against feeble Chili, against distracted Spain, they rage with awful and unappeasable fury.

This remarkable historical *volte-face*, by which the Republicans take the place of the men whom they denounced as highwaymen forty years ago, has of course a political and psychological explanation. Republicans adopt the tactics of the slave party because they have got themselves into substantially the same position that the slave party occupied. They have tremendous and urgent domestic questions to confront and settle, but find the work dangerous, politically, and irksome. The currency, civil-service reform, good government in state and city—these are the burning questions of the day just as slavery was the burning question of the 50's. But it is much easier to blink these matters, with their difficulties and dangers, get up a foreign war, if possible, at any rate whoop loudly about our navy and our greatness as a nation, and try and distract attention, in that way, from the really pressing questions of public policy and national good repute. But the Democratic highwaymen of 1856 failed to work this trick successfully, and we are confident that the Republican highwaymen of 1895 will similarly fail.

M. DE MONTROND.

PARIS, March 12, 1895.

AMONG the minor, but not the least important, actors of the Napoleonic era and of the Restoration, Count de Montrond has a prominent place. His name was familiar in the diplomatic world, as he was the *âme damnée* of Talleyrand. M. Welschinger, well known by his important historical studies on the unfortunate Duke d'Enghien, Marshal Ney, etc., has just written a short biography of Montrond. A French proverb says: "Tel maître, tel valet." In his remarkable and severe study of Talleyrand, Sainte-Beuve says: "To each man his acolyte and his favorite aide-de-camp. If the pious Aeneas had his faithful Achates, if Saint Louis had Joinville, Fénelon his Abbé de Langeron, Talleyrand and Montrond are inseparable."

Count Casimir of Montrond was born in 1768, son of an officer of the Gardes Françaises. His mother was a distinguished person, even a writer. She wrote for a little while in the royalist paper *Les Actes des Apôtres;* in 1790 she took refuge, first in Switzerland, afterwards in England, where she wrote a 'Histoire du Long Parlement d'Angleterre et de ses Crimes'—a satire on the French Constituent Assembly. After the 18th Brumaire, she returned to France and lived at Besançon, where she died, at the age of eighty-two years, in 1827. Her son Casimir remained in Paris during the Terror, and was imprisoned at Saint-Lazare, with the Duchess de Fleury, who, after her divorce, had resumed her name of Coigny; it was for her that André Chénier wrote "La Jeune Captive." She owed her life to the intervention of Montrond; for a hundred louis he obtained her liberty as well as his own. After the 9th Thermidor he married her, and they left together for England. Their honeymoon was not long; she obtained a divorce and returned to France, where she died in 1820 at the age of forty-four. There can be little doubt that the Memoirs which she left must have been of great interest; they were probably not very flattering to her husband. Unfortunately, they were confided by her to Talleyrand, and they have disappeared; Montrond evidently obtained their suppression from his powerful friend.

The intimacy of these two men began during the Directory. They felt immediately drawn to each other. One of the beauties of that time, who had Montrond, with many others, among her lovers, is said once to have asked him why he seemed to like Talleyrand so much, and to have received this answer: "Who would not like him? He is so vicious." Montrond belonged to a type which has now only a few representatives; it may be found already under Louis XIII., during the minority of Louis XIV.; it was represented during the reign of the great king by such *libertins* as Bussy-Rabutin, D'Évremond, and under the Regency of the Duke d'Orléans by the famous *roués*. Montrond as well as Talleyrand had all the traditions of the *roués* and of the famous courtiers who succeeded to the *roués* during the reigns of Louis XV. and Louis XVI. The traits of the *roué* were somewhat softened in Talleyrand, owing, perhaps, to the ecclesiastical education which he had received; but, on the whole, they had the same ideal, if that word can be used for an abnormal combination and essence of all possible vices, contempt for the truth, systematic hypocrisy and treachery, total disregard of all the common duties and obligations of life, a satanic pride and pleasure in defying the vulgar code of morality.

As long as Talleyrand was Minister of Foreign Affairs, Montrond was a sort of confidential agent; he helped him in many secret negotiations, he helped him chiefly in his pecuniary dealings with the German Princes. "I am inclined to think," says M. Welschinger, "that M. de Montrond, whose capricious fortune was a mystery to everybody, had the art of bringing into the Rue d'Anjou or the Rue Saint Florentin [where Talleyrand lived] the sums promised or exacted for such or such diplomatic services, and that he took a commission on these sums. As these receipts were frequent, he thus made a good revenue."

In 1807, Talleyrand was replaced at the Foreign Office by the Duke of Champagny; he fell completely into disgrace in 1809. Montrond was exiled from Paris, and forbidden to come nearer than forty leagues to the capital. He chose Antwerp for his residence. Antwerp was at that time the *chef-lieu* of a French department, "des Deux-Nèthes," and the prefect, Voyer d'Argenson, was a personal friend of Montrond. Talleyrand, to do him justice, did all he could to obtain the pardon of Montrond, and wrote him long letters, in his own peculiar fluid style: "Once you come back, you will have to find a mode of life open to the least possible objection. We will search for it and find it. Relieve your tedium by reading and writing. Don't spend money, and think kindly of your friends. Nobody loves you more tenderly than I" (January 13, 1810). Talleyrand, in another letter, says to him in English that he has himself become "an indolent looker-on."

Montrond, tired of Antwerp, went to Spa, where he found Pauline Borghèse (who, if we may believe M. de Lanzac de Laborie, counted him among her numerous lovers). Always under the eye of the Imperial police, he goes to Aix-la-Chapelle, to Besançon, returns to Antwerp. In September, 1811, Napoleon suddenly arrives in Antwerp, and, by his order, Montrond is arrested and sent to the fortress of Ham (the same prison where Prince Louis, who became Napoleon III., was long confined). After a month's imprisonment he was authorized to live at Châtillon-sur-Seine; he had to give his word of honor not to leave this place, and to report himself twice a week to the subprefect. A few weeks after his arrival he suddenly disappeared. Orders for his arrest were sent all over the empire; his flight was a real Odyssey. He had procured almost by chance a passport for Spain. On reaching the Spanish frontier, he crossed a country full of guerillas till he came to the seashore; he took a fishing-boat and met an English ship, which gave him a passage for Mahon. The brig which transported him met the admiral's ship, and the admiral, hearing that a Frenchman was on board, kept him as a prisoner, mistaking him for a French general. Montrond was held for five weeks till they fell in with another English ship, on which fortunately was Lord Walpole, who recognized Montrond. He was allowed to go to Sardinia, and from there he sailed for England, the only safe place for him at the time.

Montrond came back to France only after the departure of Napoleon for Elba. During the Hundred Days Napoleon, who needed a secret agent in Austria who could approach Talleyrand during the Congress of Vienna, did not hesitate to choose Montrond, who did not hesitate to accept this extraordinary mission. He was instructed to try to convert Talleyrand, who was officially in Vienna as the representative of Louis XVIII., to the interests of the Emperor, and, if an occasion could be found, to bring Marie Louise and the King of Rome back to France. Montrond succeeded in going to Vienna, and saw his friend. Talleyrand writes to Louis XVIII. on April 13: "Everything proves that Bonaparte is greatly embarrassed. I judge so from the emissaries he has sent here. One of them, M. de Montrond, has arrived in Vienna. He had no despatches nor any ostensible mission. He was charged with verbal messages for M. de Metternich, M. de Nesselrode, and for myself. He was to learn if the foreign Powers had seriously decided not to recognize Bonaparte and to make war on him. He also had a letter for Prince Eugene." He had still another letter for M. de Méneval, who accompanied Marie Louise. M. de Méneval told him that Marie Louise was much more occupied with M. de Neipperg than with Napoleon or with her own Regency. M. de Montrond was not

long in perceiving the plans of the allies. Metternich said to him, when he raised the question of the possibility of a Regency, "The Regency, we want no more of it." He asked Nesselrode what was the object of the allies: "The destruction of Bonaparte and all his following." Talleyrand had made up his mind; Montrond, failing in his mission, had a liver complaint, and went to Carlsbad to look after his health before returning to Paris.

As soon as the Bourbons returned to Paris in 1815, Montrond returned to his master and friend in the Rue Saint Florentin. They were now left more freely to their natural inclinations; the fear of Napoleon was no longer felt. Montrond continued to ape Talleyrand; he invented bons-mots for him occasionally. Talleyrand treated him with familiarity mixed with contempt. I have not discovered in Welschinger's notice an anecdote which is very characteristic of their relations. Montrond was an inveterate gambler; one day he had a quarrel with some people he had been playing with at cards. He flew to Talleyrand in a state of great agitation. "Would you believe it," said he, "they threatened to throw me out of the window?" "I have always advised you," said Talleyrand very quietly, "never to play cards except on the ground floor."

Talleyrand as well as Montrond were objects of suspicion to Louis XVIII. Talleyrand used Montrond in a thousand ways; he sometimes sent him to London, sometimes kept him with him at his château at Valençay. In 1830, after the Revolution which placed Louis-Philippe on the throne, Talleyrand was sent as Ambassador to London, and took Montrond with him. Raikes wrote in 1832: "Montrond, who is about sixty-five years old, is a protégé of Talleyrand, and a constant guest at his table. He has been through the various scenes of the French Revolution. . . . He is received in the best houses. He is witty and seductive, though his tone is almost trenchant. He plays high and wins daily. He is full of anecdotes, and tells them well." Raikes asked him once if it was true that Louis-Philippe gave him a pension. He answered: "Yes, 20,000 francs a year, for speaking well of him in the clubs and in England."

Montrond was struck with paralysis a year before the death of Talleyrand, at the age of seventy. He was carried about at Valençay in the park, almost blind; he had still at times some flashes of his former wit. He outlived his friend more than five years. Talleyrand before his death went through the form of a conversion and made his peace with the Church. Montrond imitated him in this as well as in the rest. When the priest asked him: "You probably in old times uttered many pleasantries against religion?"—"No," said he, coldly, "I have always lived in good company." I have another version of his answer: "Sir," said he to the priest, "I have been accused, and justly accused, in my lifetime, of many vices; I have never been accused of being an imbecile."

Correspondence.

COMPANIONS IN MISERY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Commenting upon M. Jules Roche's recent speech in the Chamber of Deputies on the necessity for increased expenditure on the French army, if it is to be kept in readiness to cope with the army of united Germany, the *Spectator* of the 9th inst. says, as regards Europe:

"It seems a hard situation for the civilized section of mankind to be eternally asked for more forced labor, a larger slice of wages, a greater readiness to lie out in the open with shattered bones; but where is the remedy to be found? The peoples are wild to find one, the statesmen would help them if they could, and the Kings, for the first time in history, look on war with sick distaste, as if it had no 'happy chances' to compensate for its incalculable risks; but they are all powerless to improve a position which for them all brings nothing but more toil, more discomfort, more responsibility. The single alleviation for the peoples is that they are not much worse off than their brethren in America, where, without a conscription, without fear of war, without a frontier in fact, the Treasury is as overspent as if it were European, the people are as much robbed by currency fluctuations as if they were at war, and all men are as care-stricken as if they might be summoned at any moment to defend their homes."

What a comment is supplied by the last paragraph on the cruel and stupid selfishness at Washington, which has, by its improvident recklessness, reduced the people of the United States to a pass so miserable and contemptible in the sight of Europe.

An Old Subscriber.

London, March 12, 1895.

THE SUGAR BOUNTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was rather surprised to see you denounce the payment to the sugar-planters of 8-10 cent per pound (in place of the payment of the bounty of 2 cents given by the McKinley tariff). Some time ago the *Nation* expressed the opinion that the sugar-planters ought to receive the bounty on the crop of 1894. I think all bounties are wrong in principle and probably unconstitutional. But, as the matter is *fait accompli*, it is needless to go into the discussion.

While rather savagely assailing some members of Congress who spoke and voted in favor of paying the small portion of the earned bounty for 1894, as embodied in the Sundry Civil Appropriation bill, I was glad to find that you did not assail the course of Mr. Wilson, who did the same thing. Your high appreciation of his character and abilities, expressed by you when noticing his appointment as a member of Mr. Cleveland's cabinet, gave great pleasure to his many friends and admirers. In your comments on the action of the House in voting the bounty, you say: "The strongest leaders on both sides were against it, Mr. Reed was against it [most inconsistently], and Mr. Cannon and Mr. Payne—that is, the next Speaker, the next chairman of the appropriations and possibly the next chairman of the ways and means committee [I trust "the sugar bolting planters" of Louisiana will note this]." Do you not consider Mr. Wilson a strong leader on one side?

I was glad, also, that you did not reflect upon Mr. Cleveland, who openly, in conversation with the Louisiana delegation and several other citizens of that State, expressed himself in favor of the payment of the bounty on the crop of 1894, on the just and equitable grounds advanced by the Louisiana Representatives in the House and by the Louisiana Senators in the Senate. Mr. Carlisle was also believed to be in favor of the payment.

Wm. Porcher Miles,
A Louisiana sugar-planter.

Houmas House, Ascension Parish, La.,
March 19, 1895.

[We cannot better explain the difference between "the earned bounty of 1894" and the sum Congress actually voted than by the following citation from Congressman Cannon's speech:

"They say that $238,000 of this money is going to people who made sugar, who took out licenses, who had made their preparations; and the tax was due on the 28th day of August, when the Wilson bill went on the statute book. If that is so, there is not one single man of them who cannot go into the Court of Claims and recover. Yet that $238,000, according to the statement that is made, is a debt due to these people, and is to be used to pull through the $5,000,000 that is produced after the Wilson law went on the statute book."

—Ed. Nation.]

THE OUTREACHINGS OF ATHLETICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If the ill consequences of excess in intercollegiate athletics were confined within the colleges, the case would be sufficiently distressing. But every one acquainted with the state of things knows that they are not. They affect deeply and lamentably the preparatory schools. A boy in one of our large academies, making ready for college, becomes impressed very early with what we may call the social power of athletics. Success in sports will do two things for him: it will assure him "prominence" in college, and a good opening into the business or professional world beyond. The first of these facts is natural in the present conditions of undergraduate life. If the second seems strange, it is to be noted that "loyal graduates" of a college now make it their duty to reward the youth who has "upheld the honor" of the institution, by rendering him practical assistance when he starts in the world.

A boy in a preparatory school knows that if he goes up to college with a good athletic record and prospects of further development, the "prominent men" in the upper classes will take him in hand, fraternities will vie with each other to secure his membership, the freshman societies will all want him, and class offices will be open to him. He will be from the first a "prominent man." Especially is this so if he be a football player, so that his value to the college becomes apparent in the very first days of his freshman year. Then, if he bears out the promise he has given and does well for his college in the field, he is brought in contact with those graduates who are interested in athletics, usually of the wealthy and leisure class. He is wined, dined, and made much of, so that by the time he is ready to become a lawyer or to go into business, he has a host of friends of just the right kind, whom, moreover, he has put under a quasi-obligation to him by his services to the common glory. Is it any wonder if a schoolboy, perceiving these facts, acts on them—if they mould in a powerful way his aims and efforts?

This may be, says some one, the state of things in the colleges, but how does a boy, while still in his Euclid and Latin grammar, know of all these incentives to muscular ambition? The process is something like this: He cannot long be distinguished in the sports of a large school before the eyes of some one interested in a particular college are drawn to him; usually more than one such watcher perceives his value. Soon he is receiving visits from captains, athletic managers, and "prominent men" out of half-a-dozen colleges. When a vacation comes, he is enticed to visit this university or that. Then a set of good fellows take him in hand

who "make it pleasant" for him. Graduates of standing are even brought to use their influence with the boy or his parents. Rivalry, however, does not stop here. It frequently drives the competitors for an athlete's services to make substantial offers. His friends from one college where good rooms are highly prized promise him a room on the campus. This is met by rival canvassers with a promise of equally choice lodgings and membership in some desirable society. If he is a fellow of limited means, his tuition for four years or his board, or both, will be assured to him. He is not being hired, of course; he is merely "assisted." Or it is put in the form of a loan, which, after he graduates, is forgiven. Sometimes a liberal alumnus supports an athlete entirely. The graduate is interested in muscular humanity and in the athletic success of his college. Thus, from his point of view, he is as much justified in educating the boy of his choice as any person of religious interests in assisting a candidate for the ministry. The fever has attacked even the less athletic sex. One of the teams at a well-known university contained, a few years ago, three men who were being supported by the same woman.

Such are the inducements spread before the athletic schoolboy. When he has made his choice, he is regarded as pledged to the college whose representatives have won him, and hard names are like to be called if he is then induced to change his mind. The reader may recall some heated items in the papers of two years ago, when it was given out that three athletes at a prominent New England fitting-school, who were fully scheduled for one of our chief colleges, had decided to enter another. Of further signs which mark this chase for the promising athletes, most remarkable is its persistency. Last summer a young man in one of our large cities, who had left school and gone to work for his living, was followed for two or three months by the athletic management of a certain college with offers to give him good accommodation and relieve him from all anxiety in regard to the cost of tuition. Another boy who had passed his examination for one college, engaged a room there, and made every preparation to matriculate in the fall, was besieged during the summer vacation by representatives of a rival institution. Their enticing offers culminated in a letter from the venerable president of the college, one of the oldest and most honored in this country. He expressed his interest in the young man, who had never written to him, and hoped, with many expressions of good will, that he would decide to come there for his education. Now, what had the president heard of this boy—that he was desirable by reason of character or abilities? The manager of one of the athletic teams brought him a name, and said: Here is a fellow we want. For colleges nowadays are run on business principles, and there is no advertisement like athletic success.

Some special results of this state of things have already been indicated—its effect on the schoolboy athlete. But it warps the mind and feelings of every boy in every preparatory school in the country. Before the child is out of knickerbockers he has acquired the idea that college is a place where they have crack athletic teams, and that college life is like a great tournament at which every one is devoted to the encouragement of some one combatant to the exclusion of all others. No better illustration of the latter phase ever occurred than the remark of a little boy on seeing two men, whom he knew to be of rival universities, conversing amicably: "I suppose Uncle Harry and Mr. B. can be friends now because they've graduated from college." HECTOR.

A NEW REVIEW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have received so many replies to my letter seconding Mr. Lawton's motion for a new literary review, that I beg leave to trespass upon your space a second time.

My thought was, that the conduct of a literary review might very properly become a part of the plan in the development of the American university, and that possibly some benefactor might be found who would be glad to endow a literary journal, just as chairs of Latin or of applied science are endowed. Such a publication, under a management that could command widespread respect, would exercise an influence on American letters that is simply incalculable. It would bring distinction upon the university establishing it, and would be a monument of which any lover of his kind might well be proud.

Without endowment, I feel sure that a good review could be made to pay. But it would need an editor who, in addition to the necessary qualifications of ability and literary conscientiousness, should be possessed of some old-fashioned virtues. If the commercial spirit were allowed to control the enterprise, the review would at once enter into competition with the magazines, and the day of picture-writing would not be far off.

A comment suggests itself as to the relation of a university review to graduate work, especially for women. Several gentlemen write to me that women are more ready than men both to read and to write for a high-class literary periodical. I fancy my correspondents base their conclusion on the fact that women in general care more for the ideal in life than men do—at least they make sacrifices for it more willingly. As to the conclusion itself, I am not perhaps a fair judge; what struck me in it was, that we can still count on the fingers of one hand the years since women were admitted to university privileges in the United States, and that so far a considerable number of university women have been students of the humanities. Possibly women are to bring about the renascence of literature. "This is very midsummer madness."

MARY AUGUSTA SCOTT.

1507 PARK AVENUE, BALTIMORE, March 23, 1895.

THE LEISURE OF PROFESSORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Mr. Werner A. Stille's letter, in your last issue, occur these words:

"It is easy to show that we have great leisure classes. First and foremost the children of the rich. . . . Next the great army of professors and teachers who have two holidays each week during the school year, besides the long summer vacations. These say that when the school day (of five or six hours) is at an end, they need rest; and when the five school-days end, they sorely need rest; and when the school-year ends, they are absolutely worn out."

The sarcasm is as evident as it is unjust. I do not know your correspondent's position, profession, or trade, but I feel he has never taught, and knows nothing, therefore, of the great drain on the nervous system caused by teaching. He knows nothing, either, I should judge, of the manifold duties and responsibilities of professors in large American colleges, who do not have, many of them, even *one* holiday a week, and whose long summer vacation is not unfrequently more of a name than a reality.—Yours sincerely,

F. C. DE SUMICHRAST.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 23, 1895.

THE BOOKMAN AND HIS ENGLISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Bookman*, Dodd, Mead & Co.'s new monthly, quotes, as its motto, "I am a Bookman," from James Russell Lowell. One wonders whether Lowell was this sort of "Bookman," and what he would say to such expressions as the following, which occur, with many others about equally bad, in the first twelve pages of the March number:

"Mrs. William Claflin . . . of Boston, whose home has been for so long the centre of social and literary attraction, and where Whittier," etc. "Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, . . . the famous author, . . . has been received into the Laurel Crowned Tales emanating from the press of A. C. McClurg & Co." "Sketches on the famous Bens he climbed and the fish he angled." "Mr. Mosher's laudable plan is to garner in the hidden corners of scarce editions for those rare exotics of literature which do not find a wide or ready audience." "We learn, as we go to press from a friend in England." "This novel . . . is laid among the scenes and characters of old Virginia."

If this Bookman cannot mend his English, we are doubtful about letting him proffer his wares at our stand to the young men to whom we are trying to teach a little of their mother-tongue along with a great deal that is of perhaps less value.—Very truly yours,

W. I. F.

AMHERST COLLEGE LIBRARY, March 19, 1895.

AN INTERESTING BOOK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many of your readers, other than the Harvard graduates upon your list, may be interested to learn that among the valuable gifts made by Dr. Fitzedward Hall to his Alma Mater, and mentioned by you in your issue of yesterday, there is one of most noteworthy character and history. It is a copy of the first Sanskrit book ever printed, given by Dr. Hall to the Harvard College Library. The title reads: 'The Seasons: A Descriptive Poem, by Cálidás, in the original Sanscrit. Calcutta: M.DCC.XCII.' And the "Advertisement" of twenty lines on page three begins with the words, "This book is the first ever printed in *Sanscrit*." Neither here nor on the title-page is there any mention of the editor's name; but we know his name from the fact that the "Advertisement" is reprinted (vol. xiii., p. 386, 8vo ed. of London, 1807) as a part of "The Works of Sir William Jones."

The book is an octavo of 4+64 pages, printed in Bengali letters, on admirable paper of J. Whatman, with broad margins. As early as 1840, Von Bohlen, in his edition of the 'Seasons,' says of Jones's edition: ". . . et primum omnino, id quod memoratu dignum est, opusculum fuit Sanskritum prelo subjectum. Europam vero hoc incunabulum, quod vel in ipsa India jam dudum prorsus evanuit, vix vidit; et ubi forte, veluti in Chambersiana codicum collectione [in the Royal Library at Berlin], invenitur, codicis manuscripti instar aestimandum est." There follows Jones's "preface" entire. And Gildemeister, in his 'Bibliothecæ Sanskritæ Specimen' (Bonn, 1847, p.

70), says: "Liber sanscritus omnium qui typis exscripti sunt primus isque rarissimus."

But this is not all. The title-page bears the name "Cha^{s}. Wilkins," presumably in his autograph. Now, in the ninth volume of the Journal of the American Oriental Society, p. lxxxviii (October, 1870), are extracts from "thirteen inedited letters from Sir William Jones to Mr. (afterwards Sir) Charles Wilkins," communicated by Prof. Fitzedward Hall, D.C.L. Several extracts may follow: "You are the first European that ever understood Sanscrit, and will, possibly, be the last" (October 6, 1787). "The ships of this season will carry home seven hundred copies of our first volume of Transactions; . . . but unless the impression should be sold in London, Harington and Morris (who print the book at their hazard) will be losers, and we must dissolve the Society [The Asiatic Society of Bengal!]" (February 27, 1789). "I am so busy at this season that I have only time to request your acceptance of a little Sanscrit poem, which Morris has printed [*i. e.*, presumably Harington and Morris], and which you are the only man in Europe who can read and understand" (January 14, 1793).

As is evident from the date of the last extract, the "little poem" can be no other than the 'Seasons' of "Cálidás." The extract itself is a copy of the very words of the editor that were sent with the poem. And the volume itself, without doubt, is no other than the identical copy given by Sir William Jones to Sir Charles Wilkins. Illustrious owners! Homer tells of "the handing-down of the sceptre" (of Agamemnon). Here is a book whose handing-down ought to have for Oriental students no less interest than the story of the sceptre had for Thucydides. Dr. Hall's gift deserves to be held in honor.

CHARLES ROCKWELL LANMAN.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 22, 1895.

Notes.

A WORK on 'Korean Games,' with notes on the corresponding games of China and Japan, by Stewart Culin, director of the Museum of Archæology and Palæontology of the University of Pennsylvania, will contain twenty-two full-page colored plates from Corean paintings, and be in other respects a handsomely made book. Mr. Frank Hamilton Cushing of the Bureau of Ethnology will contribute a comment on the games. The subscription price is five dollars.

Silver, Burdett & Co. will publish next month 'Poems of Home and Country; also, Sacred and Miscellaneous Verse,' by the Rev. Samuel Francis Smith, author of "America." Portraits will accompany this collection.

Ginn & Co. have in preparation 'An Introduction to the Study of Literary Criticism,' by Profs. Charles Mills Gayley and Fred. Newton Scott, in two volumes: Poetics and the Drama; Literary Types (other than the Drama).

Further announcements from Macmillan & Co. are a new edition, in four volumes, of H. E. Watts's translation of 'Don Quixote'; the first of four volumes of a 'History of English Poetry,' by W. J. Courthope; volumes of verse by H. C. Beeching and by Arthur C. Benson, brother of the novelist; a third series of William Winter's 'Shadows of the Stage,' and from the same pen 'Brown Heather and Bluebells.'

T. Fisher Unwin is about to issue a modern English prose version of 'Piers the Plowman,' by Miss Kate M. Warren. Dr. Wm. Lyon Phelps of Yale is editing a volume of Chapman's plays for the "Mermaid Series" published by Mr. Unwin. It will appear in the autumn.

Prof. Barrett Wendell of Harvard and Dr. A. W. Colton of Yale are joint editors of a new 'Selections from Addison,' to be published this year in Ginn's "Athenæum Press Series."

The late Rev. J. B. R. Walker's 'Comprehensive Concordance to the Holy Scriptures' (Boston: Congregational Sunday-school and Publishing Society), is a one-alphabet text-finder calculated to supersede Cruden, whose defects are notorious. It is compactly printed in triple columns, with heavy-face type for the rubrics, and with new-style and old style figures for chapter and verse respectively—aids to the eye which somewhat detract from the typographic beauty of the page by giving it a spotty appearance. The proper names are accented for pronunciation. The upwards of 900 pages make a solid but not bulky volume.

'The Royal English Dictionary and Word Treasury' is a large name for a handy little work compiled by Thomas T. Maclagan (T. Nelson & Sons). It aims at great simplicity in its definitions, and to supply, as occasion offers, lists of what it calls "similar words," whether synonymous or not. For ordinary, popular use the vocabulary seems well chosen, and the etymologies are neither more nor less subject to the customary caveat. The definitions are generally to be praised. "One who *causes* anarchy" is not exactly our latter-day Anarchist. The effort to condense is shown in the grouping of derivatives under stem-words, with the occasional penalty of such dislocation as the introduction of *railroad* before *raillery*, and *daybook* immediately after *daily*.

The Dryburgh Edition of the Waverley Novels (Black-Macmillan) has been judiciously supplemented by Scott's Poems, in two volumes uniform with the novels. Mr. Andrew Lang has been called upon to make the selection, to edit text and notes, and to supply an introductory estimate of Scott's poetic gift. All this he has done in a satisfactory manner. The print is extremely good, and the absence of illustrations is by no means to be regretted.

An excellent popular account of the Crusades is that recently issued under the title 'The Crusades: The Story of the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem,' by T. A. Archer and Charles L. Kingsford (Putnams). The authors have made a consecutive story, into which, besides the expected chronicle of battles, they have introduced a very interesting description of the life of the Franks who dwelt in Syria for nearly two centuries. Usually, historians have regaled us only with the martial exploits, which were in the main so similar that they are hard to remember; to lay stress on the other side of the Crusaders' experience—to remind the modern reader that there were long periods during which not only they were not fighting, but actually lived on amicable terms with the Saracens—was well worth doing. Properly, also, the authors omit the Fourth Crusade, in which the Latins turned aside to seize Constantinople in true brigand fashion, and those miscalled crusades against the Albigenses and other heterodox Christians. We have not seen elsewhere so sober, suggestive, and able a summing up of the subject as is contained in the last chapter of this book. Especial commendation should also be given to the illustrations, which are reproductions of historical maps, views, coins, tapestry, etc., and which really enhance the value of the work. We note some misprints: Caloman for Koloman (p. 37); Gotschalk for Gottschalk (p. 39); jougleur for jongleur (p. 285); Domenicho Michaeli for Domenico Michiel (p. 295); the title of the Italian translation of Brunetto Latini's *di Tresors* should be *Tesoretto*, not *Tesauro* (p. 444). We notice also some discrepancies; thus, "Mentz" and "Mayence" are both used (p. 372 and 36), and there is no uniformity in the Englishing of the Eastern, particularly the Arab, proper names. "Bayazid" for the common "Bajazet" (p. 420) seems unnecessarily odd.

Mr. J. H. Wylie, who published the first volume of his 'History of England under Henry the Fourth' (Longmans) some ten years ago, has recently issued a second volume of 490 pp. covering only the years 1405 1406. This is an amplitude of canvas that we can allow to Mr. Gardiner in dealing with the Great Rebellion; but when it is demanded for the Lancastrian period, we cannot help thinking that there must be some want of selection and generalization. Mr. Wylie's work is most solid and thorough, with exact references for every statement, and these usually to contemporary writers. It has, alas! scarcely more style than a table of statistics. After saying this, it need hardly be added that it is not a book to be read with a light heart. It is to be taken in small quantities at a time, and these well digested. But it is a book true scholars will respect, for it is a mine of learning; and it will long remain one of the standard authorities for the period.

In 'Ancient Rome and Its Neighborhood' (London: Bell; New York: Macmillan) Mr. Robert Burn offers a convenient little handbook, condensed from his 'Rome and the Campagna' and 'Old Rome.' Revisions have been made, as well as additions containing brief accounts of the results of the latest excavations; and the volume is illustrated with good cuts and several maps. Although scarcely full enough to be interesting reading by itself, the book will serve, on the classic sites, as a useful supplement to one's Baedeker, and would be helpful to students who are "getting up" the topography of Rome.

'Half-Hours with an Old Golfer,' by Calamo Currente (Macmillan), is not a particularly valuable addition to the literature of the game. It is mainly written in doggerel verse of decidedly poor quality, and for the production of which no excuse is offered. It is claimed by enthusiasts that there is an element of poetry in the game, but they will hardly accept this book as a specimen of the poetic evolution of the sport.

The Burlington Fine Arts Club of London has just published a large quarto volume with two and twenty plates to commemorate the Exhibition of Ferrara-Bolognese Art held last summer. Besides an interesting introduction and the catalogue of the pictures exhibited—nearly all of the school to be found in Great Britain—this volume contains an admirable *catalogue raisonné* of all the known works by the painters under consideration. Students will find it of such aid that, despite the difficulty of obtaining copies, libraries should make every effort to possess themselves of it.

The fifth volume of Señor Menéndez y Pelayo's 'Antología de Poetas Líricos Castellanos,' (Madrid) somewhat belies its name. It is hardly fair to designate as an anthology of lyrics this volume of 442 pages, of which only 62 pages are in verse at all. The real bulk of the volume is the editor's prefatory study of the literary court of D. Juan II. This preface fills no less than 308 pages, the remaining 72 being given up to "documents pertaining to the poetry of the middle ages." Such poetry as is supplied

does not amount to much, since it is but a postscript of the previous volume, entering a few poems before neglected or forgotten. But if Señor Menéndez y Pelayo's anthology is something like a Parisian filet in which the meat is only an excuse for the sauce, at least it must be admitted that the excuse is a good one. The first half of the sixteenth century in Spain was one of much verse, but little poetry. The Renaissance had begun to break down the old national types, but was as yet too new, too confused, too undigested to offer new models. The time was one of origins but not originality; hence its literature is peculiarly interesting to read about but tiresome to read. Three men stand out, however, who either wrote or abetted good poetry of a more personal sort than the sweet, colorless rest, and of these three we have here very full and sympathetic studies. They are D. Enrique de Villena, Iñigo López de Mendoza (Marqués de Santillana), and Juan de Mena. In addition to this biographical criticism Señor Menéndez y Pelayo gives an excellently condensed account of the Spanish writers in the court of Alfonso V. at Naples from fresh sources.

The first volume of the Ginori lectures for 1894, entitled 'Vita Italiana nel Seicento: Storia' (Milan: Treves), contains a good although bombastically worded sketch of general European history during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries by Guido Falorsi; some frothy paragraphs by Pompeo Molmenti on the decay of Venice, and articles on the Catholic Reaction and on Rome and the Popes by Ernesto Masi and Domenico Guoli respectively. Continuing the lines of thought expressed in a previous lecture on the Reformation in Italy (which we have had the pleasure to notice), Signor Masi ventures to suggest that, even without the impulse of "the German revolt," the religious element was bound to get the upper hand in reaction against the veneer of paganism prevalent at the beginning of the sixteenth century. Count Guoli gives an account, fertile in data culled from unpublished documents, of the systematic nepotism begun by the reëstablished Papacy, and of the accompanying degradation of the Roman populace to an abject dependence for its very subsistence on the beck and nod of the priest. This, by the way, was only the resurrection of the patron and client system of imperial Rome.

The *Nuova Rivista Misena* is a bi-monthly publication, now in its seventh year, appearing at Arcevia (Marche), and edited by Signor Anselmo Anselmi. Although devoting itself more especially to the art of the March of Ancona, the *Rivista* is a periodical which has already published innumerable documents of great—a few of the greatest—value to students of Italian art and history. The annual subscription is 6 lire.

One often hears inquiries for an Italian magazine of light reading, and such a one, by no means unattractive, is the new *Emporium*, a monthly illustrated review of art, literature, science, and miscellany. It is issued at Bergamo by the Istituto Italiano d'Arti Grafiche, at one lira per number, or thirteen per annum to foreign parts. The January number opens with a paper on the pictorial treatment of the visit of the three kings from the Orient to the infant Saviour, followed by one (in pretty stiff contrast to the Prince of Peace) on naval armaments, old and new, and another on Carpineto, the birthplace of Pope Leo XIII. Noticeable also are articles on Corea and the Coreans, on young French men of letters, and on telegraphic photography. The pictures are all half-tone or facsimile, but are adequate.

The *Korean Repository* for January, 1895, has reached us from the Trilingual Press, Seoul. Prof. Homer B. Hulbert, the translator of the new Corean constitution, in a paper on the reforms already begun under Japanese auspices, shows how far-reaching in their effect these will be. The distinction between the patrician and plebeian classes is abolished, and appointment to office will be upon the basis of merit only. This act is really a great moral lever for the elevation of the whole people; it reduces also to the class of producers the excessively large parasitic element. Rev. Graham Lee, after personal visitation, gives a graphic picture of the battle-field of Ping Yang. The student of Buddhism will enjoy, for its own sake and for comparison with Japanese usage, Dr. E. B. Landis's paper on "The Classic of the Rosary." This is accompanied by a folding diagram illustration. Besides juicy notes and comments there is a retrospect of the year 1894, with editorial explanation and a list of officers in the royal cabinet. The quondam exiles and refugees have been recalled from the ends of the earth, and now hold the highest offices. Among visible fruits of the wholesale reforms instituted are the disappearance of the conventional long sleeves of the Yang-Ban, or parasitic office seeking class, and the discharge, both from prefunctionary service and from the Government pay-rolls, of seventeen thousand eunuchs, palace servants of both sexes, runners, hangers-on, torch-bearers, etc. This monthly magazine costs $2 a year, and subscriptions may be sent to Hunt & Eaton, 150 Fifth Avenue, New York.

Students of things Spanish will be interested in the announcement of a new *Revista Crítica de Historia y Literatura Españolas*, the first number of which was to appear on March 10. The purpose of the review is to supply a monthly account of works, both in Spanish and in other languages, relating to the literature and history of the Spanish peninsula (Portugal included) and of Spanish America. In the list of Spanish contributors we note several well-known names—Azcárate, Cánovas del Castillo, Codera, Joaquin Costa, Menéndez y Pelayo, Juan Riaño, Rubio y Lluch, Eduardo Saavedra, etc. Several foreign scholars also have promised aid—Morel-Fatio, Hübner, Fitzmaurice Kelly, Farinelli, Croce, and others. The editing of the historical part of the periodical will be in the hands of Sr. D. Rafael Altamira of the Royal Academy of History; and that of the literary part in those of Sr. D. Luis Ruiz y Contreras. A further interesting and valuable feature, especially for foreigners, will be *comptes-rendus* of the more noteworthy novels, dramas, poems, and other works of belles-lettres published in the Spanish-speaking countries. The subscription price of the review is to be 15 pesetas ($3.00) a year for countries in the Postal Union; and subscriptions may be addressed to No. 55, Paseo de Santa Engracia, Madrid.

It is estimated that in the course of five years woodland acreage equal to the whole of southern New Jersey is burnt up in that section. The evil at all events is so gross that organizations have arisen to stay the devastation, and an illustrated bi-monthly magazine, the New Jersey *Forester*, has begun to be issued at May's Landing, by John Gifford, under the auspices of the South Jersey Woodmen's Association and the Avalon Summer School of Forestry. The conductors of this enterprise are in earnest, and the *Forester* is likely to train public opinion in the right direction. Incendiarism is a chief cause of the destruction.

In his latest report (1892-94) on the receipt, distribution, and sale of public documents, the efficient superintendent, Mr. John G. Ames, records the chief provisions of the bill which legislates him out of office, while embodying principles which he has so long labored to get enacted. Though he makes his valedictory, we should hope it were morally impossible for the Public Printer, under the new order, to appoint any other to the superintendency than this faithful servant of twenty years. We are yet to have from Mr. Ames, in addition to his recent 'Comprehensive Index of the Documents of the 51st and 52d Congresses,' a new edition of his 'Check-list of Congressional and Other Documents,' and a list of the principal speeches on important subjects made by Senators and Representatives of the 43d to the 52d Congresses inclusive. Since 1887, $5,526 has been taken in for public documents sold at cost of presswork and paper. The dearest book on the list is a Hayden Survey monograph on Invertebrate Palæontology ($8.00). The largest sale was of State maps at 17 cents each; for these there were 822 orders. The 'Growth of Industrial Art,' costing $2.00, is recommended by the superintendent for public and school libraries, "as illustrating in a graphic form the development of mechanical arts from the beginning."

The little *Almanach de la Coopération Française*, edited by Charles Gide (Paris: Imprimerie Nouvelle, 11 Rue Cadet), enters upon its third year. It is now able to present detailed statistics concerning French coöperative societies, which still lack a common statutory regulation, though a measure has been before the Legislature for eleven years. Some account is also given of similar societies in Italy, Holland, Germany, and England, with lists of establishments in all Europe and in the United States. Here we find Houghton, Mifflin & Co., the Century Co., Rand, MacNally & Co., the *Public Ledger*, side by side with Peace Dale, the Pillsbury flour-mills, Alfred Dolge, John Wanamaker, etc., etc. There are several cuts of coöperative establishments, and a translation by Édouard Monod of Hood's "Song of the Shirt." This is in all respects a wholesome and cheering publication.

The Boston Museum of Fine Arts has recently acquired what is beyond comparison the most important collection of Greek vases ever brought to this country. It comprises fifty-three specimens, and those who are familiar with Greek ceramics will appreciate their value from the fact that they include signed examples of such masters as Euphronios, Hieron, Hermogenes, Kachrylion, Duris, Brygos, Pamphaios, Nikosthenes, and Xenokles. A number of them contain interesting inscriptions besides the makers' names; but the most remarkable feature of the collection is its intrinsic beauty. Every specimen is a masterpiece of the type to which it belongs, both in shape and in the quality of the drawing upon it, and will appeal to the artist no less than to the archaeologist. Boston is not the only city to be congratulated upon this splendid acquisition; for the opportunity it gives to all American students to see Greek pottery at its very best, and the stimulus which is thereby given to the study of the subject, cannot fail to be of benefit to the country generally. It is pleasant to learn that the museum was able to make this purchase out of its own funds, it having received several important bequests lately for the purchase of works of art of various periods.

—The putting into print of the 'Watertown Records' is in line with the efforts made by the Massachusetts Commissioner of Public Records

to preserve these earliest documents of the Puritan commonwealth. The town had the good sense to intrust the transcription (no easy matter) and publication to the local Historical Society, which has discharged its duties admirably, with the aid, we may remark, of more than one woman in its membership. The volume is divided into four parts, viz., the Town Proceedings; Lands, Grants, and Possessions; Proprietors' Book of Common and Undivided Land; and Births, Marriages, and Deaths. Each part has an index. There is not much in the records that seems peculiar to one familiar with Puritan annals. After the usual difficulties over boundaries and allotments, the keep of fences, the ringing of swine, the felling of public trees, the intrusion of possible burdens on the community, one is struck most, perhaps, by the concern to suppress poverty and idleness in quite another than the socialistic way. The town offered to be helpful to Edward Sanderson and his wife in "giteing a servis for the bigist of his two least of his childeren wher it may be to their own content and the good Edewcation of the child in lerneing and labor." Nor was an income tax in view when it was "Ordered y' John Baall be warned to the next towne meeting to make knowne his condicion," for Capt. Mason was then bidden "to Joyne with Brother Baall in putting forth two of his children to Brother Pearce." At the same time the jealousy engendered by ostentatious wealth was guarded against by a sumptuary ordinance against "eccesse in apparrell." The illiteracy of the later records as compared with the earlier marks the falling off of the second and third New England generations from the culture of the first. Watertown began its school in 1650, or 16 years after its records begin, when Mr. Richard Norcross "was Chosen Schoole master, for the Chilldren to Reed & write & soe much of Lattin acording to an Order of Courtt," and he might teach "any maidens" desirous to learn to write. But the town sanctioned the most irregular attendance, "for a weeke or two and [the Inhabytant] to take them away agayne at his plesure." In December, 1670, each parent had to send a quarter of a cord of wood to the school to enable it to be held in cold weather. Garfield is a prominent name in the Proceedings; one Edward appears on the scene December 30, 1637.

—In Viollet-le-Duc's well-known 'Dictionary of French Architecture' from the eleventh to the sixteenth century, more than half the fourth volume is devoted to a remarkable monograph on Construction. In this article of 280 pages, including 150 cuts, there are laid down the principles which guided the builders of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries in their revolutionary dealings with architecture; and the feeble efforts of the earlier men, as well as the changes slowly made by the late Gothic builders, are also described. No architecture has ever been so logical and so intelligent as French Gothic. In comparison with this style all others are simple and child-like—rich, perhaps, in decoration, massive and durable in the piling up of cut stone or cemented brick and rubble, but the work of men who had few ideas about building and who held tenaciously to those few. To see bold experimenting and swift decision applied to building problems, one must study European, and especially French, work of from 1150 to 1250. All this is well set forth in the celebrated Frenchman's text and drawings, and this has been translated by Mr. George Martin Huss, an architect of this city (Macmillan). The translation is literal, almost a fault. Viollet-le-Duc was a discursive writer; he did not take time enough to write short, but let his too ready pen run freely along. And yet Mr. Huss has done rightly in translating him word for word. Not to do so would be to substitute another sequence of thought for that of the author, and to cause a doubt in the reader's mind as to how far the changes might extend. The difficulty of doing so in a book of this kind is very great, for the English vocabulary of building and of fine art is very much less rich than the French, and the words do not correspond. You may translate *moellon* by "rubble" three times out of four, but on the fourth appearance of the word it may not be rendered so. *Arc-doubleau*, *arc d'ogive*, *butter* and *contre-butter*, and many such terms are as untranslatable as the warmest lover of difficulties could desire, and even the innocent-looking *contrefort* cannot always be rendered as "buttress." Therefore Mr. Huss's task has been difficult as well as worthy, and the stiffness of the text in many places is chargeable to the laudable effort to give exactly the idea of the original.

—A notable contribution to the literature of modern miracles is Friedrich Jaskowski's 'Der Trierer Rock und seine Patienten vom Jahre 1891' (Saarbrücken: Carl Schmidthe), a pungent reply to Bishop Korum's 'Wunder und Göttliche Gnadenerweise' noticed not long ago in these columns. The author is a Catholic priest in the diocese of Trier, and therefore under the ecclesiastical authority of the bishop whose statements and opinions he so courageously attacks. The holy coat, he asserts, acts just as any other old garment would do under similar circumstances; it is marked by the same defects and liable to the same accidents, and must be cleaned and darned and patched, and, if kept in a damp closet, gets mouldy like any profane piece of cloth. For three centuries (1512-1810) no one ever thought of endowing it with the gift of working miracles. A few wonders of this sort were reported in 1810, but failed to receive the endorsement of the Church. At the next "exaltation," in 1844, the popular demand for miracles became so loud that the clergy yielded to it (or, as our author puts it, "stellte sich auf die Seite der Schreier"), and announced through the mouth of Bishop Arnoldi that "leibliche Wunder" had been wrought. A critical examination of the whole list of cures reported by Bishop Korum shows that in many instances the patient experienced only temporary relief and sometimes died shortly afterwards. Of thirty-eight cases, twenty-five were women and thirteen men; this special predilection for the fair sex (*besondere Vorliebe für die Damenwelt*) is regarded by Jaskowski as a suspicious circumstance. He quotes Prof. Charcot and other neuropathologists to prove that persons affected by hysteria or similar nervous disorders may be healed by heterosuggestion or even autosuggestion, and cites as an example the words of the woman who approached Jesus with the fixed idea: "If I may but touch the hem of his garment, I shall be whole." He admits that peculiarly constituted individuals may have recovered of certain ailments through firm faith in the holy coat of Trier; "in no case, however, was the cure effected by a miracle, or by any divine interference with the established course of things, but happened in a purely natural manner."

—By the death of Leopold von Sacher-Masoch literature loses a novelist of great fecundity and cleverness, of much originality, and of a distinct flavor and charm. It is but little more than twenty years since he began to work in fiction, and in this brief time his fertile imagination has brought forth more than fifty novels and volumes of shorter tales and stories. As an observer he had a specially keen eye for the characteristics of race, and the reader of his novels moves through crowds of Galicians, Poles, Germans, and Little Russians—and, above all, of the Jews who are fellow countrymen of these—with a strong sense of the life-likeness of his surroundings. Sacher-Masoch was born at Lemberg, in Galicia, in 1836. He studied at the Universities of Prague and of Grätz, and engaged first in teaching, which he soon left for literature. He devoted himself first to history and afterwards to criticism, achieving good results in each. In 1873 he commenced novelist with an historical romance, 'Kaunitz.' Then followed the fifty volumes just spoken of. At different times he resided at Prague, Grätz, Budapest, and Leipzig. Paris held him for two years. He liked France, and was liked there, and most of his books were translated into French. He died on March 9 at his country-house at Lindheim, in Hesse, to which he retired some years ago. About one year ago a false report of his death was current, and many obituary notices of him appeared in Europe and America.

SKEAT'S CHAUCER.—III.

The Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer. Edited, from numerous manuscripts, by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, Litt.D., LL.D., Ph.D., M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. Vols. IV.-VI.

Prof. Skeat has accomplished his great task in the time allotted, and the Oxford Chaucer is now complete. Vols. iv. and v.—one for text and the other for notes—are occupied by the 'Canterbury Tales,' and vol. vi. contains glossaries, indexes, and other apparatus belonging to the whole series. The last part of vol. iii. is taken up with a long essay on the sources of the Tales, and this claims our first attention.

The study of sources has to do not merely with immediate derivation, but with widely ramifying literary relations. In the department of mediæval literature it has for some years proved attractive to many of the best heads among scholars, and the results have been proportionately great. Mr. Skeat, as it happens, has never made this one of his special fields of research, and, though there is no kind of Chaucerian investigation that is not indebted to his efforts, he has done less for Chaucer in this line than in almost any other. We were to expect of this essay, then, not so much original discoveries as a compendious account of what is already known, with full references, and, above all, a searching criticism of some theories now provisionally accepted. Of criticism we do not find so much as we had hoped for; but in other respects the discussion is in the main satisfactory. Few contributions to this subject have escaped Mr. Skeat's eye, and he has generally made a good digest. Still, there are conspicuous inequalities, some unaccountable omissions, and a few errors. A good part of the essay has appeared before in the editor's small Clarendon Press volumes, and this has been transferred to the present edition with the least change possible. In this process it was inevitable that some bits of erroneous or obsolete information should elude the revising pen, and that shapeliness and method should frequently be sacrificed to a

momentary convenience. Nor is this all. Throughout the essay we miss that power of condensing and codifying which such discussions demand. The several versions of a story, instead of being arranged according to their age or their relations to each other, are often set down hap-hazard. Indeed, there is sometimes no attempt to point out relations in any but the most general terms. We have no wish to belittle either the labor of putting this essay together or the convenience of having so many facts at hand in a single volume. We yield to no one in our gratitude to the editor for accomplishing so much; but we could wish that he had revised his manuscript once more before sending it to the composing-room.

To criticise this part of the edition in full would require much space, but we may mention a few details that call for correction. The reasoning as to the date of the "Man of Law's Tale" is not very close, nor are the arguments advanced as to its supposed revision for insertion in the 'Canterbury Tales' at all convincing. The existence of a verse translation of Innocent's 'De Contemptu Mundi' is confidently asserted on very weak grounds. No such postulation is needed to account for all the phenomena. In the matter of Ser Giovanni and Il Pecorone it is not a little surprising that Mr. Skeat has nothing later to offer than a quotation from the 1845 edition of Dunlop's 'History of Prose Fiction.' He seems to have disregarded recent Italian research. The vexed question of Chaucer's relations to Gower is left in an unsatisfactory condition. Meier's ingenious work is not even referred to. The suggestion that Chaucer was offended at a few trivial coincidences of expression between Gower's story of Constance in the 'Confessio Amantis' and his own version in the "Man of Law's Tale," is not to be lightly accepted. These coincidences are probably accidental, and, even if they were deliberate copying on Gower's part, cannot have been any ground for ill feeling. A serious mistake is the ascription of the 'Roman de la Manekine' to Philippe de *Reimes*. This implies that Mr. Skeat knows the poem in Michel's edition only, and accordingly we find no mention of Suchier's 'Œuvres poétiques de Philippe de Rémi,' which would have furnished him with incalculably the best discussion of the whole cycle of stories to which the "Man of Law's Tale" belongs. The summary of the literature of the "Prioress's Tale" is meagre and out of date. Prof. Child's 'Ballads' would have furnished the editor with much fuller information. For the "Wife of Bath's Tale" Mr. Clouston's rather fragmentary notes are followed. Much more could have been made of this interesting subject.—Such are some of the particulars in which Mr. Skeat's essay on the sources of the 'Canterbury Tales' is inadequate. It must not be supposed, however, that these are fair samples of the accuracy or learning of the whole.

The text of the 'Canterbury Tales' fills the fourth volume, with the exception of a few pages devoted to a list of manuscripts and to three short poems discovered by Mr. Skeat since the appearance of vol. i. One of these poems, "Womanly Noblesse," may be ascribed to Chaucer with some confidence. The other two, called by the editor "Complaint to My Mortal Foe" and "Complaint to My Lodesterre," are more than doubtful.

The text of the Tales is of course based on the Ellesmere MS., which is closely followed, though with many slight changes in the interest of a uniform spelling. These changes are made with good judgment and are in no sense modernizations. The foot-notes register variations from this manuscript and also contain a somewhat condensed collation of the other important codices, readings from which are now and then adopted. Emendation has seldom been resorted to, for the superior manuscript tradition of the 'Canterbury Tales' makes it far less necessary than in the Minor Poems. Mr. Skeat has taken great pains with this part of his work, and no previous text can compare with the present edition either in accuracy or in readableness. Still, much remains to be done; for, as he would be the first to admit, we can never have the 'Canterbury Tales' in a satisfactory condition till the genealogy of the chief manuscripts has been worked out. As things stood, the only practicable course was that taken by the editor—to use the best single manuscript as a basis, and to patch up its errors by the help of such other manuscripts as seemed worth consulting. How far this process falls short of scientific textual criticism is clear enough. Fortunately the Ellesmere codex is so good that one may usually rest content with the results. We shall not trouble our readers with dry details of *variae lectiones*; but we may remark, in passing, that the mystery of the Harleian MS. remains as dark as ever: Mr. Skeat has apparently given up the problem.

The Notes to the 'Canterbury Tales' fill vol. v. Mr. Skeat's merits as a commentator are well known. He has learning and penetration; he writes with spirit; and he is never daunted by difficulties. His previously published notes on selected Tales were the best since Tyrwhitt's, and encouraged us to expect something quite extraordinary of his complete commentary. That these expectations have not been altogether fulfilled may be regarded as further testimony to our high opinion of Mr. Skeat. The commentary shows two general faults. The first is the result of an attempt to serve two classes of readers—the tyro and the adept. We do not mean to suggest that a "library edition" should contain nothing except what the specialist will need. On the contrary, it must furnish a good deal of rather elementary information. But it seems equally clear that to combine long and erudite notes, like many of Mr. Skeat's, with little suggestions about pronunciation and common grammatical forms is an attempt to serve two masters which both of them may properly resent. The second general fault is discursiveness and lack of condensation.

Of particular points there are, of course, in so extensive a commentary, many on which we cannot agree with the editor, others in which he fails to give full information, and some in which he is manifestly in error. Without trying to distinguish between these three categories, we shall refer briefly to several such points, to enable our readers to judge for themselves. Mr. Skeat's note on *goliardeys* is a conspicuous example of hasty work. It is confused and inadequate; the references neglect the latest discussions of the subject; and the conclusions are vague and untrustworthy. "It would appear that *Golias* is the sole invention of Walter Map, the probable author of the 'Golias' poems" (p. 48), is a statement which, in the present condition of this question, is little less than amazing. The application of the term *goliardeys* to the Miller is also left uncertain. The unwary will think that this person was "a ribald jester, one who gained his living by following rich men's tables, telling tales, and making sport for the guests." Not that Mr. Skeat means to make precisely this assertion, but that the form of his note has not been carefully considered.

The editor's views on the Prioress's French are reaffirmed. The wording varies slightly from that of the school edition, but the erroneous assertions and false conclusions remain unchanged. We take this to be the very worst note ever written on a passage of Chaucer, as some of Mr. Skeat's come near being the very best.

Of less moment are such slips or oversights as occur in the note on *this pestilence* (p. 286), which assumes that this particular line was in the supposed Italian original of the "Pardoner's Tale"; on *rede colera* (p. 251), which is hardly intelligible; on *Galianes* (p. 266), which misses the fun; on *to-tore* (p. 419), which clothes the canon in strange attire; on the *Secree of Secrees*, which ignores Benedict Burgh and his painstaking editor. To multiply small criticisms of this kind, however, would be worse than ungracious—it would be misleading; for these imperfections and their fellows bear no proportion to the sound and scholarly part of the volume. Chaucer-commenting is not done with yet, by any means, nor are Mr. Skeat's annotations the sea-mark of its utmost sail; but he has accomplished enough to justify one in associating his name with that of Tyrwhitt—and no Chaucerian can ask for higher honor.

Vol. vi. brings the work to a close with General Introduction, Glossary, and Indexes. The introduction, which is very elaborate, not only furnishes a compendium of the familiar, indispensable facts about language and versification, but affords a number of new observations. Particularly interesting are some of the remarks on metre, the excursus on open and close *ē* and *ō*, and that on the Kentish dialect. The refutation of Prof. Lounsbury's errors with regard to Chaucer's rhymes is spirited and in the main conclusive, but its effectiveness is weakened by an odd confusion of terms by which Prof. Lounsbury is actually represented as having assailed Chaucer! In the grammatical outline due credit is given to Prof. Child as the founder of the scientific investigation of Chaucer's language. The General Index is not very full, but it is supplemented by a number of special indexes. The Glossary is admirable It fills more than 350 pages and is excellently arranged. We are glad to learn that a supplementary volume, uniform with the series just completed, will soon be published. This will contain the prose 'Testament of Love,' and most of the poems which have been mistakenly attributed to Chaucer. Some of these have much merit, and nearly all possess an interest apart from the question of their authorship.

In conclusion we wish to express once more our deep sense of the obligation under which Prof. Skeat has laid all who care for learning or for literature. If we have dwelt at times on some of the defects of his edition, we have never failed to recognize its merits. He may rest secure of the gratitude of more than one generation.

ROOSEVELT'S WINNING OF THE WEST.

The Winning of the West and Southwest, from the Alleghanies to the Mississippi, 1769–1790. By Theodore Roosevelt. 3 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

BEFORE Mr. Roosevelt began his work, there was no satisfactory account of our westward expansion as a whole. As a rule, older writers relied too much upon tradition, lacked the critical method, and wrote without insight into the broader aspects of their subject. Mr. Roosevelt had the historical insight and the good for-

tune to make use of a vast mass of original material. It is surprising, considering the primitive conditions which are the subject of the work, what large accumulations of letters, journals, official records, etc., remain. Aside from the documentary fragments in the older histories, Mr. Roosevelt has had access to the manuscript collections at Washington and at Nashville, the Haldimand Papers in the Canadian archives, the Durrett collection at Louisville, the Draper manuscripts of the Historical Society of Wisconsin, and other collections. It is to be regretted that he used the Draper papers for his last volume only, as they are rich in material relating to Boone, George Rogers Clark, and other pioneers whose story falls in the period covered by the first volumes.

These abundant materials Mr. Roosevelt has used with the skill of a practised historian, writing with appreciation of the fact that he is describing a phase in the general movement of civilization. Having experience as a rancher and hunter upon the present frontier, he writes with sympathy of the frontiersmen of the old West, the West that lay between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi. In his first two volumes he relates how the pioneers took their way along the parallel ridges of the Alleghanies through Cumberland Gap, and down the Tennessee and Ohio, into the pasture-lands and game-preserves of Kentucky and Tennessee. He describes the Indians at either end of the Alleghany Mountain barrier, the French on the Great Lakes and in the Illinois country, and their foes the frontiersmen, "hewing out their own fortunes in advance of any governmental action." He depicts the leaders in this advance, a host of border heroes, like Sevier, Shelby, and Robertson. "Above the throng of wood-choppers, game-hunters, and Indian fighters, loom the sinewy figures of Daniel Boon [*sic*] and George Rogers Clark." Next follows the history of the formation of the Watauga commonwealth and the Cumberland settlement (the communities which were to become Tennessee), and the early settlement of Kentucky. The story of Lord Dunmore's war and the Revolutionary war in the West is well told, including an excellent description of George Rogers Clark's campaign in the Illinois country, and a discriminating account of King's Mountain. Mr. Roosevelt brings out the western aspects of the Revolution as a war for the right of entry into the country beyond the Alleghanies. He views the winning of the West and the Southwest as a stage in the conquest of a continent. The frontiersmen, he says, somewhat grandiloquently, and certainly with no pretence of moral discrimination,

> "warred and settled from the high hill-valleys of the French Broad and the Upper Cumberland to the half-tropical basin of the Rio Grande, and to where the Golden Gate lets through the long-heaving waters of the Pacific. The story of how this was done forms a compact and continuous whole. The fathers followed Boon or fought at King's Mountain; the sons marched south with Jackson to overcome the Creeks and beat back the British; the grandsons died at the Alamo, or charged to victory at San Jacinto. They were doing their share of a work that began with the conquest of Britain, that entered on its second and wider period after the defeat of the Spanish Armada, that culminated in the marvellous growth of the United States."

In his third volume, under the title "The Founding of the Trans Alleghany Commonwealths, 1784–1790," the author tells of the inrush of settlement after the Revolutionary war, and shows how land furnished almost the sole object for speculation in that period. The analysis of society in the second stage of Western growth, with the indication of the rise of a Western gentry, is a particularly welcome contribution, especially as Mr. Roosevelt is disposed not to devote as much attention to social and economic aspects of the movement as the student of the period would like to have him give. His sketch of Indian wars between 1784 and 1787 affords him an opportunity to restate his favorite doctrine respecting the relation of whites and Indians. He contends that the wars were inevitable if the savage was to be superseded. Treaties could be secured only by war, or the effective menace of war, and, as a rule, the treaties of the nation with the Indians seem to him more than just. Only a silly morality, he says, would forbid such a course of conquest: "The rude, fierce settler who drives the savage from the land, lays all civilized mankind under a debt to him. American and Indian, Boer and Zulu, Cossack and Tartar, New Zealander and Maori—in each case the victor, horrible though many of his deeds are, has laid deep the foundations for the future greatness of a mighty people."

The most important and most interesting portion of the third volume is that which deals with the struggle for the navigation of the Mississippi River, the intrigues of the Western leaders with Spain, and the schemes of separation of the Western communities from the mother States and from the Union itself. Mr. Roosevelt enables the reader to perceive the mutual jealousies and misunderstandings between the coast States and the Western settlements, and the lack of national sentiment in the country as a whole. Describing the intrigues of men like Sevier and Robertson with Spain, he neither feels called upon to view that turbulent and particularistic era through the glasses of present-day consolidation, and to execrate as traitors the men who felt that the interests of their communities lay in independence, nor does he find it necessary to attempt to explain away the actions of the frontier leaders. The manuscript sources make it plain that Sevier, Robertson, Gardoqui, and Clark, as well as the mere freebooters like Wilkinson, engaged in intrigues for Spanish aid. While he rightly considers the actions of these men in the light of their times, he also points out in the true historical spirit the disastrous results that the success of their plans would have implied. In this connection he makes an interesting comparison with the history of the States of Spanish America, although it may well be doubted whether the fate of these States could by any possibility have befallen the West, under its physiographic and racial conditions. Mr. Roosevelt's castigation of that disreputable soldier of fortune, Gen. Wilkinson, is well applied. The closing portion of the volume is devoted to an account of the settlement and territorial organization of the Ohio region, and to the territorial organization of the Southwest.

The third volume bears evident marks of haste in imperfect proof-reading, loose citation of authorities, and occasional whipping together of material. Mr. Roosevelt has not fully freed himself from the point of view of the earlier writers. His work leans to the romantic side of the subject. On the other hand, in avoiding the unessential details given by the annalist, he sometimes seems to hasten over his materials, and to take refuge in a certain smartness of generalization which is not entirely free from the appearance of a homily. In illustration of his neglect of certain topics his treatment of the plans of Arthur Campbell of Washington County, Virginia, may be cited. The projects of these western Virginians were of grave importance and of long-continued interest, but Mr. Roosevelt passes them by with hardly more than a mention of Campbell's scheme for separation from Virginia and union with Franklin. As early as the winter of 1782 there were proposals of common action for the Virginia and North Carolina counties of this region. Campbell corresponded at that time regarding the project of calling a convention of deputies from Greenbrier, Montgomery, and Washington Counties in Virginia, and of the two North Carolina counties on the Western Waters, Sullivan and Washington, with a view to joint action by the men residing in the western country. They thought that, "in the general confusion and disturbance, they ought to take care of themselves." Jefferson and Madison recognized the danger lest the people of this region and the settlers in the limits of the Indiana Company's claim (West Virginia) should unite with Kentucky in forming a separatist State. In Congress a number of the States were regarded as favorable to such a separation from Virginia, some of the members being moved by the intrigues of the friends of the Indiana and other companies, some of them by a desire to see the revenue from the back lands fall into the hands of the Federal Government. It was in part the fear of losing all of her lands unless she ceded some that led Virginia to cede the Northwest. The Western Virginians petitioned Congress in 1784 and 1785 for organization as a State with Kentucky and Tennessee. In 1788 Caleb Wallace of Kentucky was writing to Campbell about the anger in Kentucky over the failure of Congress to act favorably on Kentucky's desire for statehood. He intimated that radical action would soon be taken, and was "reflecting on the hint" which Campbell held out "of a general coalescence of the western country."

These indications show the significance of the movement which had its centre in Washington County, Virginia. It deserves a fuller elucidation. The evidence also enables us to criticise Mr. Roosevelt's failure to give the history of such land companies as the Indiana Company and the Vandalia Company. The influence of these companies upon the question of the cession of the back land was very important, and Mr. Roosevelt's disregard of them does much to vitiate his account of those cessions, which is but superficial at best. It is, further, impossible to understand the land-company schemes, such as those of Morgan (formerly agent of the Indiana Company), Wilkinson, and the Yazoo Company, without tracing these earlier manifestations of the spirit of land speculation. With all his excellent generalizations on the subject, Mr. Roosevelt has not grasped with sufficient firmness the fundamental importance of land questions in relation to settlement. The desire of the Western communities to control their own lands affected their desire for independence in a way which the author fails to perceive.

Another criticism is suggested by the evidence drawn from Arthur Campbell's plans. Mr. Roosevelt states that "the national feeling among the separatists was so slight that the very communities which wished to break off from the Atlantic States were also quite indifferent to the deeds and fates of one another. The only bond among them was their tendency to break loose from the central Government." On the basis of this conclusion he goes on in later pages to compare the future of the West, if separatist influences had prevailed,

with the warring Spanish-American States. Respecting this view it is to be remarked that the sentiment of independence was a real bond among the Western communities. The phrases used in this connection in pamphlets and letters were, not Kentucky, or Franklin, or Washington County, but "the men of the Western Waters," "the western country." It was this recognition of the physiographic unity of the West that made the possibility of separation. When Kentucky was considering statehood in the fall of 1787, Cumberland sent two agents to wait on the convention to see if they might be allowed to join her. Georgia, a frontier State, entered into relations with Franklin. The connection of Franklin and the settlements of western Virginia has been noted. The readiness of each community to defend itself against the Indians, regardless of its neighbors, is evidence of the same spirit that led the frontiersmen to fight as individuals instead of in close ranks, rather than an evidence of indifference to the fate of each other. Moreover, there is positive evidence that these Western communities did ask and receive assistance from each other in their wars. With all their contentiousness, the Westerners showed an unmistakable tendency to combine on issues that affected them as a whole.

In mentioning the schemes for land companies, Mr. Roosevelt omits the Yazoo Company, which, through its agent O'Fallon, had important intrigues with Spain and with George Rogers Clark and Wilkinson. He also omits the less important, but interesting, plan of Isaac Sherman of Connecticut to colonize west of the Mississippi and attack Spain; and the attempt to interest France in Western separation. It would appear probable that the material in the Canadian archives upon these movements was unknown to the author. We miss, also, in Mr. Roosevelt's pages any attempt to exhibit the reaction of Western settlement upon the East. This might be shown in various ways, as in the effect of Western land politics upon Congress. Mr. Roosevelt further ignores the relation of internal-improvement schemes to the calling of a constitutional convention; and he does not explain the bearing of the Mississippi question upon the ratification of the Constitution. Finally, the work also loses much by beginning in 1769, and thus leaving unexplained the origins of the frontier conditions and institutions. They arose in the area east of the Blue Ridge. This was the oldest "West."

To sum up, we should be thankful to Mr. Roosevelt for the valuable work which he has done, while not shutting our eyes to the fact that the study of the early stages of the spread of a democracy over the virgin soil of this continent is far from being exhausted.

Life and Adventures of George Augustus Sala. Written by himself. Charles Scribner's Sons.

BEFORE he has gone very far in this book the reader will have formed a pretty accurate estimate of the writer's peculiarities. He will not be surprised to learn that Mr. Sala is a great admirer of Donizetti, and that he considers modern ears "depraved and distorted by Wagnerism." Long before reaching this confession of faith the reader will have divined that Mr. Sala's ideas of music, if expressed, would be certain to take some such shape; for, in fact, this book records the experiences and opinions of a Philistine of the Philistines. If it be true that a majority of readers are in the same category, then Mr. Sala's book will be a popular one. On the other hand, those who set before themselves high ideals of life and of literature will find a sentence here and there with which they can cordially agree. For instance: "I have always had a lively aversion for my own writings and my own individuality, . . . and I am grossly ignorant of the rules of English grammar." Moreover, they will give Mr. Sala due credit for some of the things which he has *not* done: "I could have swollen these volumes to thrice their size had I distended them with excerpts from my writings as a newspaper correspondent." "It is not my business to be a moralist, and I have studiously endeavored in the course of this book to avoid bombasting my pages with reflections." "Even now I see my way to the composition of an historical tragedy; but not a line of it has been committed to paper." It would seem that the world has been spared this tragedy owing to the ready wit of Sir Augustus Harris, who assured Mr. Sala that it would cost £4,000 to produce his unwritten tragedy with adequate spectacular effect.

Mr. Sala tells us that he first saw the light in 1828, and that his mother was an actress and singing-teacher. The most remarkable thing about his mother, however, was that in some mysterious manner she managed to get thirteen months into her years: "She lived a third of the year in London, six months in Brighton, and the remaining three months in great country houses." Other passages go to show that it was from his maternal relative that Mr. Sala inherited his love of the aristocracy which is one of his most decided tastes: *e. g.*, "Late in the seventies came other distinguished friends, among whom I hasten to mention the Duke of Fife and the Earl of Rosebery, and I frequently enjoyed the hospitality of the Heir of the Crown."

Mr. Sala states that he was "brilliantly educated"—whatever that may mean—at a school in Paris and another near London. When this process was completed, he tried his hand at drawing and etching, at which he was able to earn some money, and from time to time he ventured into the outskirts of journalism. When Soyer, the celebrated French cook, opened his restaurant in the Exhibition of 1851, young Sala became his head clerk, and he naïvely remarks that this connection was of much more benefit to him than to Soyer, inasmuch as he was brought in contact with "various distinguished persons." It was at this time, also, that he began to contribute articles to *Household Words*, then conducted by Charles Dickens, who had known his family; and for some years he earned by these articles an average of £5 a week, and never had an article refused—from which the judicious reader may perhaps infer that Dickens allowed his friendly feeling to outweigh his literary judgment. Encouraged by this steady income, Mr. Sala began to wander about Europe. He visited Belgium, which he describes as being "in some respects French, but in others wholly and delightfully unaccustomed to me." He also crossed what he calls the Alpines, and finally went to Russia, and described his journey in a series of articles which, after a quarrel with Dickens, he was allowed to republish in the form of a book called 'A Journey Due North.'

In 1857 he joined the staff of the *Daily Telegraph*, a journal which then occupied in the London press a position corresponding to that of the *World* in the New York press of to-day, and from that time to this he has remained in the service of the same paper. This connection with the press is evidently a source of supreme satisfaction to him. He constantly refers to his capacity for producing "copy," and to the number of words he is able to turn out in an hour; and very odd words some of them are. Here are a few taken at random: engendrure, addictiveness, unvested, frankalmoign, oppressingly, needments, viatorial. It is to be hoped that the *Daily Telegraph* employs an expert to turn Mr. Sala's "copy" into English, for there are sentences in these volumes that are quite incomprehensible. But to all this Mr. Sala replies, in his grandiloquent fashion, that he does not write to please the critics, but to entertain and instruct the public.

In the early sixties the *Saturday Review*, then largely written by the late T. C. Sandars and Lord Bowen, used to make great game of Mr. Sala and his literary pretensions, and he candidly admits "that in many respects the writers were justified in reviling him"; but he chuckles at the recollection that at that very time he was earning £2,000 a year. Some years later Matthew Arnold was wont to cover with ridicule the writings of the gentlemen whom he called "the young lions of the *Daily Telegraph*"; and to this also Mr. Sala replies that his income at that time was £40 a week. This is the quintessence of Philistinism. He says, in effect: My style is execrable, and my ideas on most subjects are snobbish or banal, but I care not so long as they please the readers of the *Daily Telegraph* and bring me in so much a year!

Mr. Sala has acted as special correspondent of his paper in all parts of the world. He always kept trunks packed with clothing suited to different climates, so that he could start to the North Pole or the Equator at a moment's notice. He was quite in the habit of receiving such messages as this: "Please write a leading article on the price of fish at Billingsgate and go to St. Petersburg in the evening." He of course met with many adventures, some of which he describes with humor. He was in a train which was "held up" by Carlists in Spain, and he overheard a Spanish gentleman who was overcome with fright murmuring to himself: "To die so young, to leave my wife and babes: oh, it is sad, it is sad! and I haven't even had my breakfast."

Mr. Sala came to this country in 1863-'64. It is perhaps unnecessary to say that his sympathies were altogether with the South. This was invariably the attitude of the British Philistine of the period, and is therefore not surprising. But incidentally he states that the closest friend he made was William Henry Hurlburt, and that their friendship remains undiminished to this day, and he is "wholly at a loss to understand the *acharnement* with which Mr. Hurlburt has been pursued." This surely indicates, to any one aware of the facts in the case, a strange sort of moral obliquity. In relating his American experiences, which, by the way, are singularly uninteresting, Mr. Sala makes the odd blunder of calling the well-known Capt. Judkins of the Cunard line Capt. *Jenkins*.

On the whole, Mr. Sala has produced an unsatisfactory book, for the reason that it was not in the nature of the man to do otherwise. He had seen much of the world and had abundant material out of which to fashion an autobiography of considerable interest; but he is entirely destitute of literary skill, and the all-pervading impression of his personality is decidedly unattractive.

The Foundations of Belief: Being Notes introductory to the Study of Theology. By the Right Hon. Arthur James Balfour. Longmans, Green & Co.

Mr. Balfour's six years' wrestle with the Irish seems to have given an added touch of wariness to his methods as a philosopher. He puts out his views with the caution of a Chief Secretary for Ireland expounding a new coercion bill. Before giving wrong-headed obstructionists a chance to fall upon him, he falls upon them. Confessing with charming frankness that his constructive chapters are open to formidable objections, he holds them back to the very last; meanwhile having no end of fun with the opinions which he imagines his opponents will set up as rivals to his own. If he must confess, in the end, that he knows but little about the deeper things of knowledge and life, he will at least make his retort on you before you have a chance to make yours on him, quite with the air of an Irish Secretary triumphantly demanding, "If coercion is bad, what in heaven's name would home rule be?"

The result is to give his book the appearance of standing on its head. Before being told why or what we are to believe, we have "Some Consequences of Belief" thrust in our faces. These consequences are, of course, horrid, as they are not those of Mr. Balfour's belief, but of that of his enemies; and he is preparing their minds to accept his philosophy further on by showing them at the start how absurd and harmful their own philosophy is. Then comes Part II., "Some Reasons for Belief"—again other people's reasons, not Mr. Balfour's; and inadequate and foolish reasons they are before he gets through with them. Still leaving his coercion bill lying on the table, provokingly unread, he next takes up "Some Causes of Belief," showing that you really believe not at all for the reasons and in the way you think and allege, but for quite other reasons and in a wholly different way, as he will explain to you if you will stop interrupting and listen to him. After having thus nagged and worried the Opposition through 240 pages, he at last brings out, in 120 pages and with much deprecation, his "Suggestions towards a Provisional Philosophy." He states, in effect, that he fears his constructive theory would have been torn to pieces if he had laid it before his critics while they were fresh, but that he hopes in their wearied condition they will not be too hard on him.

Mr. Balfour is undeniably clever and interesting. His wit and unconventionality in dealing with abstract philosophical subjects are as refreshing as they are rare. But a more sceptical book was never written—this, despite the acclaim with which he has been hailed as a new defender of the faith. His scepticism is of that thoroughgoing and hopeless character which throws doubt on the validity of all knowledge. He displays this more openly, it is true, in his analysis of scientific presuppositions; but it always lurks around the corner in his exposition of religious presuppositions. He himself is dimly conscious, and in several places more than half admits, that the weapons which he had used in the first part of the book would be too strong for his own defences if turned against them. But he has a parent's tenderness for his own progeny. It may be "a hard thing for us to believe that we are made in the likeness of God, yet it is a very necessary thing." In other words, Mr. Balfour, when put to it, consents to reason after what Hallam called the *a-tutiori* method, and exposes himself to the indignant scorn of Maurice for those who thought of religion as "the greatest betting-book in the world," in which the odds were altogether in favor of a real heaven and a real hell.

Mr. Balfour is at his best and evidently most enjoys himself as a destructive critic. Some popular forms of current theology were never more neatly impaled than in his chapters on "Rationalist Orthodoxy" and "Science and Theology." Our old friends of the "two parallel lines," science and religion, never really touching each other, will find Mr. Balfour bringing them rapidly into serious collision and disaster. And as for those modern champions of the faith who go forth to withstand science, panoplied in a hastily patched-up scientific armor, what presage of their final fate could be more doleful than that which Mr. Balfour addresses to "the rationalizing theologian"?

> "He has borrowed the premises, the methods, and all the positive conclusions of Naturalism. He advances on the same strategic principles, and from the same base of operations. And though he professes by these means to have overrun a whole continent of alien conclusions with which Naturalism will have nothing to do, can he permanently retain it? Is it not certain that the huge expanse of his theology, attached by so slender a tie to the main system of which it is intended to be a dependency, will sooner or later have to be abandoned; and that the weak and artificial connection which has been so ingeniously contrived will snap at the first strain to which it shall be subjected by the forces either of criticism or sentiment?"

A word should be added respecting Mr. Balfour's own attitude towards science. Ostensibly he surrenders to its "psychologic climate"—a happy phrase of his. Only against its presuppositions does he wage war. Yet he shows but a meagre acquaintance, and a still more meagre sympathy, with the tentative, modest, patient, approximate methods of scientific inquiry. He must have a sweeping generalization, a complete explanation, or he turns away in disgust. The plodders who put together fact by fact to clear up some section of the puzzle of life are too slow for his impetuous temper. An excellent proof of this is seen in the chapter on "Naturalism and Æsthetic." Mr. Balfour is arguing against the sufficiency of the scientific account of the origin of pleasurable emotions, particularly those pleasurable emotions connected with music. Darwin's speculation on the subject, with Spencer's, he analyzes only to reject. He has not the patience to stop over their facts, or over the large collection of material on the point in hand to be found in such a book as Wallaschek's 'Primitive Music,' but hurries on for an all-embracing principle. Finding none to suit him in the scientific writers, he falls back on the assertion that "we must believe that somewhere and for some Being there shines an unchanging splendor of beauty, of which in Nature and in Art we see, each of us from our own standpoint, only passing gleams and stray reflections," etc. Apparently he does not see how blank and barren such an affirmation must remain, how it leaves the whole inquiry hanging in mid-air, stops all investigation at the threshold, and denies us the sense of reality and true (if groping) rationality to be had from contact with the terra firma of facts, confessedly incomplete as they still are. The scientific æsthetician may go on very slowly, but he moves; whereas Mr. Balfour stops everything short with a sweeping generalization which accounts for no single detail. This is but one of many indications to be found in the book that his mind, while profoundly sceptical, is really of the imperious, high-priori type, and deceives itself in thinking it has grasped and accepted scientific method.

The Church of Sancta Sophia, Constantinople: A Study of Byzantine Building. By W. R. Lethaby and Harold Swainson. Macmillan & Co. 1894. Pp. viii, 307. Illustrations.

The increased interest in Byzantine building and fine art which marks the present quarter-century is very encouraging. It is almost certainly a sign of increased catholicism in love and study of art. The style has never been taught in the schools or preached by partisans as the one style to follow. No one proposes a Byzantine Revival. The beautiful works of the Greek spirit acting under novel conditions, and with the Roman imperial traditions and requirements still powerful, are being studied for their beauty and suggestiveness in what seems a wholesome way. That this should be contemporary with an historical rehabilitation of the Byzantine empire is probably not very significant or very important, but it is pleasant to think of.

Sancta Sophia, or Aya Sophia, the great church of Constantinople, is recognized by many thinkers on fine art as the most important church in Europe, and the centre of modern building. That it is the most beautiful church in Europe is probably true if we consider the interior alone. Inasmuch as it has not been the prototype followed by Western builders generally, and inasmuch as Western architecture makes much of the exterior and, even in church work, gives equal importance to that with the inner design, Sancta Sophia is not quite the universal model which some of its admirers seem to assert. It is the more worthy of close study to-day that we may see whether some of the principles involved in its design and construction may not be of use to the uncertain and hesitating architects of Europe and America.

The book before us does not attempt to give large plates or a complete series of plates or any illustrations in color. It refers for these to books already existing, and especially to the folio of Salzenberg. The illustrations, which are freely used, give the plans of the church at a sufficient scale for easy comprehension, especially when aided by the text; by diagrams of the construction as in figure 34, where an isometric view is given of the system of vaulting; and finally by drawings of details of the ornament, inlaid and other, surprisingly useful and agreeable for such simple work. They are artistic in a rather high sense. The text in which these illustrations are set consists of an account of the church, its history, its design, its system of construction and ornamentation, all made up in a singular way from personal observation and the study of ancient documents. The two are combined together and each is used to elucidate the other. Thus, in section 4 of chapter x, on "Structural System and Vaulting," the arches, domes, and wagon-vaults are described as they appear to the skilled observer; their forms and combinations are explained by diagrams; questions of material and processes employed are answered by reference to Mr. Choisy's important treatise, to a Greek architect named Kouppas, who has described the traditional methods still in use in the East, to Viollet-le-Duc and his remarks upon early mediæval vaulting, and to other writers, and the whole is checked by the sagacious insight of the authors.

Chapters iii. and iv. give a kind of résumé of the often cited poem of Paul the Silentiary,

together with large parts of the poem in what appears to be literal translation. Chapter v. contains a full account of the disposition and arrangements of the church as it was intended to be; this being derived partly from the Silentiary's poem or from other ancient writers, and partly from the building as it exists. Chapter vii. gives the later history of the church and some of its legends. Chapter viii. takes up the church at the time of the much needed repairs begun in 1847, and includes a description of the church as it was then, abridged from Salzenberg's text. In the other chapters the minor details of the church, its lighting, its sacred vessels and utensils, its mosaics and marble lining, the carved capitals and alabaster shafts of its columns are dwelt upon with intelligent affection. The buildings in the immediate neighborhood of the church and which, like it, are a part of the palace-group of the Christian city, receive their notice in chapter ix.; and chapters i. and ii. give us the historical setting of the whole with diagrams of the plan of the city, the Acropolis and the church as first planned by the architects of Justinian.

The purpose of the authors, as expressly stated in the preface, is to call back students of architecture to "sound common-sense building and pleasurable craftsmanship." They find Sancta Sophia a perfect embodiment of all that is intelligent, rational, and logical in construction, and of admirable taste and judgment controlling the design of the whole and its parts. The entire book breathes the same spirit of sincere, almost devout, study of noble architecture and of that which makes it noble. It is as handsome as it is worthy. It is printed on laid French paper of a most agreeable texture and surface, with rough edges, and is simply bound in buckram. We regret to notice the death of one of the authors, Mr. Lethaby, while our notice has been in preparation.

Nihilism as It Is: Being Stepniak's Pamphlets, translated by E. L. Voynich, and Felix Volkhovsky's 'Claims of the Russian Liberals.' With an Introduction by Dr. R. Spence Watson. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams.

THIS volume has been published, as Dr. Watson states in his introduction, in answer to the general demand for authoritative information as to the aims and doctrines of the Russian revolutionists, whether extremists or moderate men. It also is intended to show what language the Russian revolutionist holds to his allies at home, and to disprove the assertion, which has been made, that he varies his tone according as the audience he addresses is foreign or native. It is a pity that the book bears no date. The letter sent by the revolutionary executive committee to Alexander III. on his accession to the throne, and the letter from the Liberals of Moscow to Count Loris Melikoff show for themselves that they were written in 1881. They have frequently been printed, and are so familiar to the public that it is not necessary to discuss them here. The substance of Mr. Volkhovsky's 'Claims of the Russian Liberals' is also known to American readers, through Mr. Kennan's article, "Last Appeal of the Russian Liberals," in the *Century*.

Mr. Stepniak is always interesting, but his pamphlets were written in 1890. This fact does not invalidate their worth as ancient history, and it is a happy thought on the part of Mr. Unwin to collect these documents in a convenient form. But a new reign has begun; new characters, if not new conditions, and, possibly, new principles, are already changing the situation day by day. This change brings out in relief what may be called the kernel of Stepniak's utterances, and shows how fluctuating is the value of belated documents.

"We believe," he says, "that the worthless gang which now rules over Russia, taking advantage of a misunderstanding of the peasant masses, can be overthrown only by force, and to this end we see no other means than force. In politics we are revolutionists, recognizing not only popular insurrection, but military plots, nocturnal attacks upon the palace, bombs and dynamite. We shall not, while living abroad, preach these things to our Russian comrades. Apart from the moral impossibility of inciting others to actions in which we ourselves can take no part, there is also the question of timeliness, and, therefore, of the expediency of a given action—a question which can be decided only on the spot. We regard all such acts as morally justifiable, and we are ready to defend them, and to acknowledge our moral solidarity with them, once people have been driven to commit them."

But Stepniak has stated, in his account of the book's origin, that the two pamphlets were "written originally in Russian, and for the Russians," and that he "never expected them to be known outside the dominions of the Czar." The question immediately occurs to the reader: What else is this but inciting to violence from a distance, and disclaiming beforehand all responsibility for results produced by zealous disciples acting on the creed thus plainly stated, and which, possibly, they have never previously heard? When Stepniak was in America, at about the time when this pamphlet was written, he professed to believe that the peasants might be induced to revolt "peaceably" by propagandist persuasion, and declared that bombs, murder, violence in general, would be adopted only in case persuasion failed. We are glad to have a definite assurance that the Russian revolutionists outside of Russia are not aiding in dynamite plots in Russia. They ought to be, if they are faithful to the creed which we have quoted above; or else, they ought not to be circulating tracts containing their confession of faith among the people whose precious lives will be endangered by living up to it, while lack of information keeps those at a safe distance from preventing useless sacrifices.

Another interesting confession is, that the Russian opposition suffers from internal dissensions, not only arising from the nature of domestic affairs, but strengthened by foreign and artificial differences. For these reasons, Stepniak says, "our 'cause' still continues to be a mere cloud of words cast upon the wind"; and he gives an amusing and truly characteristic account of the week-long, month-long discussion of entirely superfluous points between provincial philosophers, culminating in an uproar which attracts the police to the nest of reformers.

Other significant passages refer to the ultimate expectations of these reformers:

"Russia is a land of peasants. And yet, so far as we know, there is not at this moment a single section among the Russian revolutionists which seriously looks to the peasantry for support—that is, which really works to obtain partisans among them. . . . A new attempt to 'go among the people,' though, of course, not in the old way and not with the old message, but with a practical and comprehensible plan of a transfer of land by the State to the people, and of peasant autonomy—such an attempt would have, we believe, a good chance to meet with quite other response and to give quite other results from those obtained by the attempts of the seventies. . . . Up till now the world has invented no other form of free state except Constitutional Monarchy or Republic, and so far no voices have been raised for a republic in Russia. . . . But why all these fig-leaves? We prefer a republican form of government to any other, and most certainly have no prejudice in favor of the Romanoff dynasty. . . . It is only from the point of view of evolutionary socialism that the struggle against autocracy, with its numberless and terrible sacrifices, has a true and great significance; otherwise it is nothing but an aimless and sanguinary farce—strife for strife's sake, practice in self-sacrifice. . . . To anarchists, representative government is not worth fighting for, and, therefore, there are no anarchists in Russia. . . . We propose to take our stand openly in favor of evolutionary socialism, recognizing freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and universal franchise as fully sufficient weapons. . . . Both imperial and Jacobinical socialism lead to the same result—the transformation of the country into a huge workhouse."

The argument would appear to read, briefly, as follows: Nobody in Russia wants a republic, but everybody wants a republic. Everybody is to have the franchise and vote for representatives; but anarchists want no representative government, therefore the lamb-like people who are not anarchists are to roam about in wolves' clothing, stir up insurrections, military plots, and nocturnal attacks on the palace, and employ dynamite and bombs to prevent the republican, representative government which they crave. Only an inattentive reader could possibly accuse Stepniak of lacking clearness in his statements and deductions.

In his "Supplement: The Beginning of the End," he appears as a prophet of the millennium which the great famine of 1892 was to inaugurate, by revolution. As the prophecy has not been fulfilled in any perceptible degree, if at all, we may be excused for not taking it seriously.

Recollections of Life in Ohio from 1813 to 1840. By William Cooper Howells. With an Introduction by his son, William Dean Howells. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. 1895.

A SORT of glory is reflected back on these Recollections of the elder Howells from the celebrity of his son. But those who begin to read the book for the sake of the son will read on to the end for the father's sake and for their own. Multitudinous details regarding early decades of Ohio are missing in Howells's brief chronicle, though garnered up in cumbrous tomes in which most counties have already shown forth their beginnings. The truth is, these compilations are only material to serve for history; they are not history. They will always be consulted, but never read. They give us more than we find in Mr. Howells, but we receive less. They lack the individuality which pervades and vivifies every page of Howells.

The most noticeable feature in the outward life of Mr. Howells was his manifold changes of base. The first one, from the Old World to the New, began during his first year. Within half-a-dozen years thereafter his homes were in New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Ohio. After he emerged from childhood, all spots looked to him, as to his Welsh father, greener than that where he stood. He verified half-a-dozen times Franklin's proverb that three removes are as bad as a fire, yet never wavered in his faith that the next move he made would give him all he sought. As a natural result, the ups and downs of moves over the Alleghanies, through Ohio mud and on river arks, are portrayed by him with those minute and vivid realistic touches which all feel to be truthful. Such a feeling deepens in

every reader as the young pioneer describes, *à la* Tolstoi, his struggles to make the best of the privations, disappointments, and want of all things that now seem essential for making life worth living. Most of us have some idea of a forest fire, of the way to clear a field and grub it, as well as how to thresh grain and build a kiln to dry peaches. In running over, however, young Howells's experiences in these matters we learn not a little which but for him we should never have known. He saw through much that we only saw.

Mr. Howells's roughing it was well over before the birth of his distinguished son in 1837, but his past vicissitudes and even woes served for sweet discourses in the time to come. No wonder his children importuned him to set down the facts of his previous life. Though this record was meant for his family only, it was at once seen to be of general interest. It could not fail to be. With change of names and dates, it was the history not of one family, but, as to some one of its branches, of well-nigh all families who in early decades adventured beyond the Alleghanies. Few of those first comers came so near being nonagenarians as Mr. Howells, still fewer wrote out reminiscences. Accordingly, a myriad of Westerners in reading his book will rejoice in something analogous to their own family narratives. Some of them, had they his skill in spinning, could spin tougher yarns than his. His snake stories are tolerable, but not far from his beat an uncle of the present writer was the first minister, and at the close of a morning service in the school-house church he said: "Brethren, the sun is waking up the snakes, and they may make trouble for our children to-morrow. It would be a work of necessity and mercy to deal with them between meetings." Within an hour two hundred and fifty-six rattlesnakes lay in a heap at the church door of Granville. The members of this church were Sabbath-keepers. They had driven their oxen from Massachusetts, but not one step on Sunday. Yet every Sunday evening they held a business meeting in the church, for their Sabbath ended at sunset. If they knew the Presbyterians in the adjoining tier of counties, whose Sabbath, according to Howells, lasted till midnight, they must have fought on the question, "When does holy time begin?" Sabbaths from sunset to sunset were favored by Dr. Taylor, the theological professor at Yale. He did not insist so much on the text, "From even unto even shalt thou celebrate thy Sabbaths," as on the fact that the young people, who put on go-to-meeting suits Sunday morning, could go a-courting more conveniently on Sunday evening than on any other day, while it was not desirable that sparking should encroach on sacred hours. Disputes of a similar type, scandals, litigations, camp-meetings, husking-bees, are mentioned by Howells as all thrice welcome, for breaking the deadening monotony of life in the wilderness, where toil so seldom relented and gave its turn to play.

A most surprising statement to many readers is that the emigrant Howells, on going aboard for America, was arrested, as being skilled in woollen manufacture, and therefore not allowed by law to leave the country. The statute for detaining him ought to have been given. The acts usually cited, Blackstone iv. p. 160, do not cover the case. It may be the legal authority was Blackstone i. 266: "Some persons were anciently under a perpetual prohibition of going abroad, . . . among which were all . . . artificers, lest they should instruct foreigners to rival us in their several trades and manufactures." Howells's leaving the country may thus have been held a high contempt against the King's prerogative.

It is remarkable how a plain tale of things just as they are, unawares adds to the vast vocabulary of our speech. In no dictionary that we have consulted does "mourner" (p. 92), meaning one "on the anxious seat," or "niggle" (p. 59), to cut up a fallen tree, or "peach leather" (p. 77) appear. The homely narrative is enlivened by many sayings which at least under the circumstances were smart. The immigrant Howells, after an intrusive visitor had worn out his welcome, was called out on some business, and said to the guest, "I suppose you will not be here when I return, so I wish you good-by!" This was not bad, except in comparison with the superb stratagem ascribed to Gerrit Smith in such emergencies—as that he used to say in his family prayer, after breakfast, "May the Lord also bless Brother Jones, who leaves us on the ten o'clock train this morning!" Smith's hospitality was more imposed on than that of Howells; hence necessity may have made him more inventive of protective devices.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baldwin, F. S. Die Englischen Bergwerksgesetze. Stuttgart: J. G. Cotta.
Cassell's Complete Pocket-Guide to Europe. Revised and Enlarged. Cassell. $1.50.
Dyer, J. F. T. Strange Pages from Family Papers. London: Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Evetts, B. T. A. The Churches and Monasteries of Egypt and Some Neighboring Countries. Attributed to Abû Sâlih, the Armenian. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmilan. $6.50.
Fossler, Prof. Laurence. Selections from Rosegger's Waldheimat. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55 cents.
Gunter, A. C. The First of the English: A Novel. Home Publishing Co.
Gurteen, S. H. The Arthurian Epic. Putnams. $2.
Hart, Prof. A. B. Studies in American Education. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.

APRIL

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

PAPERS PREPARED FOR THE HARVARD TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.
1. Educational Aims and Educational Values, by Paul H. Hanus.
Educational Values:
2. The Ancient Classics, by William W. Goodwin; 3. History of the Fine Arts, by Charles Eliot Norton; 4. Mathematics, by Frank A. Hill; 5. History, by Anna Boynton Thompson; 6. Natural Science, by John F. Woodhull; 7. English, by George H. Browne; 8. The Modern Languages, by Hugo K. Schilling.
THE UNIVERSITY CRISIS IN GERMANY, by James E. Russell.
REVIEWS. EDITORIAL.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 4, 1895.

The Week.

THE invitation extended by the commercial bodies of Chicago to President and Mrs. Cleveland to accept a public non-partisan reception in that city to express "our deep sense of appreciation of your statesmanlike and courageous action in maintaining the financial credit of our Government, and your uncompromising attitude in favor of the preservation of a sound national currency," is the emphatic response of business men to the scurrilous attacks made upon Mr. Cleveland in Congress and the press on account of the syndicate loan which is now in course of fulfilment. That financial arrangement quieted a panic which was in full blast and would have drawn every dollar of gold out of the Treasury if it had lasted a week longer. Failure to pay gold would have been bankruptcy, and this fact would have put enormous difficulties in the way of getting more gold to resume with. Mr. Cleveland did the only thing that it was possible to do in order to save trade and industry from incalculable distress. For this he was abused and vilified, both in and out of Congress, in terms that would have disgraced the fish-market. The expiring House of Representatives, in order to give vent to its ignorance and malice in the most emphatic manner, voted that the bonds should draw 3¾ per cent. interest instead of 3 per cent., thus taking vengeance on the taxpayers to satisfy its animosity against Mr. Cleveland. That Congress has now "passed in its chips," and this Chicago invitation is the first public proof that the business men of the country are on the side of the President. What the commercial bodies of Chicago have said, all the other commercial bodies of the country think, and if Mr. Cleveland should make a tour of the United States at this time, he would be received by the business men everywhere with a more cordial welcome than he ever had before in his whole public career.

Immediately after the election last fall the reformers of Illinois began active work to secure from the new Legislature the passage of a law introducing the merit system in that State. The movement was under the leadership of the Civic Federation of Chicago, a non-political and non-sectarian association organized about a year ago for the purpose of "promoting the honesty, efficiency, and economy of the municipal government and the highest welfare of the citizens," and to "increase the interest of citizens in municipal affairs by securing the utmost practical separation of municipal issues from State and national politics." From the very start the movement met with the greatest popular favor. The press of the city supported it with practical unanimity, and the most influential newspapers in the State were earnest in their appeals for favorable action by the Legislature. So powerfully did public sentiment express itself that the spoilsmen were constrained to bow to it, and the Legislature passed "an act to regulate the civil service of cities," authorizing the voters of any municipality to apply the reform system to their civil service whenever so disposed. In the campaign leading up to the municipal election on Tuesday, the Civic Federation was backed by the clergy and unanimously by the Trade and Labor Assembly, and the cheering result was a majority of 45,000 for the abandonment of the spoils system.

Both in Ohio and in Connecticut, Monday's elections indicated the reaction against the A. P. A. movement which was sure to occur. Columbus has been the chief seat of the propaganda in Ohio, and the Republicans this week paid the penalty of encouraging the craze. In Bridgeport the A. P. A. element got control of the Republican convention, and made the issue sharp on members of the school committee. Extraordinary interest was aroused, and about two thousand women participated in the choice of committeemen, the great majority of their votes being cast for the liberal ticket. The result was a majority of about two thousand for the members opposed by the A. P. A., while enough Republicans were so much disgusted with the attitude of their party that they voted for the Democratic candidate for mayor, who was elected by a smaller majority. It is conceded by both sides that the election would have gone the other way but for the introduction of this issue. It is amazing that men who pride themselves upon their shrewdness as "practical politicians" should be so easily deluded with the idea that votes are to be made by such tactics, when the history of the country has shown over and over again that a party could not adopt a worse policy for carrying elections.

We are sorry to see in Senator Platt of Connecticut a disposition to warn the people against expecting too much of the next Congress. The last Congress was properly execrated for incompetence, and a successor of the opposite political faith was chosen. But if the new one turns out equally incompetent, we must not judge it too harshly, but encourage it to do better next time. It would appear, however, that Senator Platt cannot have read ex-Speaker Reed's recent interview concerning the personnel of the next House. Mr. Reed had met nearly all of the new Republican members, and gave a most cheering account of them. They were, without exception, men of singular patriotism, high-mindedness, and ability. They were all going to vote for Reed for Speaker, and to follow up that action by a succession of others (not named, we admit) fully as patriotic and equally designed to benefit the country and to make it truly great and glorious. This is first-hand testimony of an impartial witness, and why will not Senator Platt accept it? Is he prepared to believe, simply because Republicans misbehave in Albany or in Indianapolis, that such an order of men as Mr. Reed declares the next House to consist of can fail to make us all happy and rich and proud of our institutions? For our part, we shall not believe it till we see it, and we do not expect to see it before about a year from this time.

Senator Lodge is enabled to keep up his racket about the "Monroe doctrine" because few people know what it is, and many people will believe his account of it. Under it he says that a European power may demand compensation for injuries done to one of its citizens, but may not exact payment by any species of coercion. The notion that such a rule as this can be enforced against Europe on behalf of some fifteen American States deepens the impression that Lodge and his coadjutors are simply having some fun with the public. The alternative supposition, that they are in earnest, is too extravagant for general acceptance. There is no great harm done by it that we know of except making us ridiculous in the eyes of civilized man. Our recent discussions of foreign politics, especially through such organs as Senator Morgan, so closely resemble the dialogues between Birch and Backus, the famous minstrels, in the old days, that a great many people think them forgeries.

The narrow escape from war we have had in the Nicaragua matter ought to be a subject of great thankfulness. Lord Kimberley, in proposing arbitration for the settlement of Great Britain's difficulties with Nicaragua, laid it down that "no citizen of any American State" must be among the arbitrators. As there are forty-four North American States of this Union, and fifteen Central and South American, the young man in the *Tribune* office who attends to these matters was disposed to hold that this meant fifty-nine deliberate insults, besides being "an explicit declaration by England that she declined to recognize any force in the Monroe doc-

trine," and "a gratuitous reflection on the United States." Fifty-nine insults, one "gratuitous reflection," and one non-recognition of the Monroe doctrine constitute probably as promising a *casus belli* as has ever arisen. Another day of delay in explanation, and the dogs of war would have been let loose in every newspaper office in the country. Lord Kimberley, however, quickly saw what was impending, and changed his tune. He now says he meant only citizens of the South American republics, and that the British Foreign Office never uses the phrase "American States" in speaking of the United States. It can hardly be doubted that he is prevaricating, and that he really meant to insult us and to repudiate the Monroe doctrine; but let that pass. We suppose we are compelled, under what are called "diplomatic usages," to accept his explanation, but it is noticeable how obedience to these usages in Secretary Gresham's hands always results in the humiliation of the United States, and with what impunity the agents of monarchical powers can apologize and explain to him. "No British minister," says the young man in the *Tribune* office, "ever attempted to crawl out of a smaller hole than this quibbling explanation opens, but since Lord Kimberley is out of it, his disavowal may be taken as satisfactory." But why should it be taken as satisfactory? It is all very well for Secretary Gresham to take it as satisfactory—it is like him to do so; but why should a young "newspaper diplomatist," whose business is to keep Kimberley in his holes, allow him to crawl out? It seems to us as if our foreign affairs were getting into a critical condition in the hands of two such blunderers.

Capt. Mahan was rather cruel to the great international lawyer and naval strategist (temporarily acting as reporter for the *Sun*) who sought him out, on his return from his foreign cruise, to get his opinion about ships, war, England, the Oriental situation, insults to the flag, etc. Perceiving his inability to cope with his questioner in the subtler matters of diplomacy, the captain refused to discuss them at all. The reporter then passed lightly to the question whether England was not greatly concerned about her Pacific possessions, "since Japan has developed into a conspicuous naval power." But the hard-hearted captain denied that Japan had so developed, and asserted that even after the captured Chinese vessels were repaired and commissioned, England could easily assemble a superior fleet. Dropping that point, the newspaper publicist next took up the question of England's dread of Japanese competition in foreign commerce. Here again, however, he met with an unsympathetic request to point out a single manufactured article that Japan could supply in competition with England. "But the ships," said the reporter, "the increased Japanese naval power—do not they necessarily mean an extension of Japanese commerce?" The reply of the unfeeling Mahan was: "A power which seeks to extend its trade by the aid of its navy must have goods to trade." All this shows what an overrated man the captain is, or, what is more likely, that his stay and flattering reception in England have completely turned his head, and given it a dangerously un-American twist.

An Ohio Circuit Court decided last week at Cincinnati that the Dodge inheritance-tax law of that State is unconstitutional. The point upon which the decision turned was the section of the Constitution requiring that all taxes should be uniform. There could be no question here of "territorial uniformity," as in the case of the phrase of the federal Constitution making the same provision. The court said the section must mean that there should be no discrimination between the various owners of property. One rate and treatment should be applied to all. But the Dodge law, by exempting estates of $20,000 from the tax, really made such discrimination. An owner succeeding to an estate of $20,000 would enter upon it untaxed, but one inheriting $20,001 would be taxed, and thereby have his property cut down to $19,800. This process, the court held, was obnoxious to the constitutional requirement of uniformity, and hence the law contemplating it was invalid. Under such an interpretation of the word "uniform," it is clear that no such tax as the federal income tax could be levied in Ohio, nor can graduated taxation, that pleasing dream of socialists, ever be practised in that State.

The attempt to collect an income tax from foreigners, which the law passed by the last Congress evidently contemplates, is a novelty in our legislation if not in that of the civilized world. The income tax levied during and after the civil war did not include foreigners, and it was held in at least one ruling of the internal-revenue office that it could not include them because they were beyond the jurisdiction of the taxing power. There is room for a distinction, however, between a tax levied *in rem*—that is, against property within our jurisdiction, as, for example, railway shares—and on the gross income of the foreigner derived from property in this country. Corporations are taxed directly under the law, so that the income derived by foreigners from that source is lessened by the amount of the tax. That is clearly within the scope of our powers, but the attempt to make foreigners file statements of income derived from property situated in the United States—that is, to coöperate with our taxing authorities—and to impose penalties on them if they neglect to do so, is of doubtful validity. As the person is not within our jurisdiction, the question how the penalty is to be enforced becomes important. The theory of the law is, that the person liable to pay the tax must make a return under oath, and that if it is not a true return, he shall be liable to prosecution for perjury. What kind of oath taken by a foreigner in his own country would form the basis for a prosecution for perjury in this country, even if we could lay our hands on him? But how can we lay our hands on him in any case? If we cannot prosecute him for a false oath, what is the use of having his oath at all? These incongruities are, perhaps, among the seventy-five defects that Senator Vest says the finance committee intended to cure by amendments when the bill should go into conference committee, but which were rendered incurable by the action of the House in swallowing the whole bill as it came from the Senate.

One of the most interesting of the reports of the experts of the Dockery Commission related to the function of the naval officers in the auditing of collectors' accounts. There are six such independent naval officers—at New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, New Orleans, and San Francisco. What they really do, and all that they really do, is to audit accounts. But the experts show that the auditing can just as well be done in the auditor's office at Washington. They make an exception in favor of New York, on account of the great volume of business at that port and the expense of sending on so many papers to Washington; but the naval officers at the other ports they show to be entirely needless. Why should Baltimore, collecting $2,990,750 of duties, need a naval officer if Chicago, collecting $6,137,864, can get on without one? Why should New Orleans, collecting but $1,271,203, support a naval officer and assistants at an annual cost of $14,700? There is, of course, no answer except that the spoilsmen want the places. The experts recommend the abolition of all naval offices except that of New York, and show that the result would be a saving to the Government of $86,105 a year. But we fear this reform will prove as difficult to secure as the consolidation of Maine customs districts which Secretary Folger endeavored to get through Congress, but which was promptly blocked, presumably by Congressman Reed, who was reported to have said that there was more "political hell" in the consolidation bill than in anything he was acquainted with.

Mr. Bland, silver's true lover and ex-M. C., compiled and had published in the *Congressional Record* of March 20 a history of all the votes taken on silver in either house since the Forty-fourth Congress. This makes a handy record, but we notice a lack of fulness and accuracy in it at one point. It states that "in the House, November 7, 1877, Mr. Bland

moved to suspend the rules and pass a bill (H. R. 1093) to authorize the coinage of a dollar of 412½ grains silver standard, and for other purposes." Now, what were the facts? It was on October 29, 1877, that Mr. Bland made a motion such as he describes, but the bill was House bill 571. This bill was talked and filibustered out of time on that day, and went over, under the rules, to the following Monday as unfinished business. On that Monday, November 5, the Speaker called up the bill, but Mr. Bland slipped in a new measure, House bill 1093, not with the title he now alleges, but the entirely different one, "A bill to authorize the *free coinage* of the standard silver dollar, and to restore its legal-tender character." It was rushed through under suspension of the rules, though few members of the House knew what they were really voting for. This was made clear the next day, when Mr. Frye rose and charged Mr. Bland with having practised a fraud on the House in substituting one bill for another without notice or consent. Mr. Bland then answered that whether he was right or wrong, the House and the country were with him, and he wanted the gentleman to know that he was not there for the purpose of being catechised by the gentleman or by any one else. After all these years, however, he thinks it better to tamper with the record and give the bill that was passed its right number, but wrong title. It will look to the future historian as if there was such a thing also as "the crime of 1877."

Strikes for the restoration of wages to rates in force before the panic are reported in various industries, particularly in the woollen manufacture. In many cases wages have been voluntarily restored by employers, notably by that heartless enemy of labor, Mr. Frick. One large woollen house states, according to the *Reporter*, that it has restored all but 10 per cent. of the reduction made in wages during the past two years, and means promptly to restore the rest, inasmuch as the total production of their mills is contracted for in advance, and it is good business to guard against dissatisfaction on the part of the employees. Such things are the well-known incidents of improving business, but what of the great truth that wages cannot go up till the tariff goes up? We fear that the experiences of the present year will convince workers in protected industries that ex-Speaker Reed was right in admitting, under the prodding of Mr. Cockran, that high wages were ruled by the law of supply and demand, modified by the strength and wisdom of labor organizations; and not at all by the tariff.

The New Jersey thieves whose exploits are now undergoing investigation and exposure, can never have wondered at their own moderation, for they displayed none. As was shown on Friday, they sold everything in the State-house belonging to the State except the building itself, and robbed the public treasury on all bills presented. Gov. Abbett's postage stamps and incidentals cost the State $1,200, $1,869, and $3,627 for the three years of his service respectively, as against the $285, $405, $815 of Gov. Green, his predecessor, and the $515 and $561 of Gov. Werts, his successor. But of course Abbett was a great figure in national politics, and must have had a good deal of postage to pay on his letters to Hill and Gorman and other worthies, advocating the extension of New Jersey and New York machine politics to national affairs. That all this shameless and practically unconcealed stealing could have gone on without the knowledge and connivance of other Democratic bosses, no sane man should be asked to believe.

No political movement of the present year in this country surpasses in interest the South Carolina preparation for a constitutional convention. This convention was the wish of Tillman and his faction, and was carried last fall by a very small majority. The Tillmanites might have proceeded with a high hand to pack it, but with much shrewdness they privately entered into an agreement with their adversaries "to advocate before the white Democrats of the State" a scheme of proportionate representation, county by county, and a platform for delegates common to the extent of "the following principles or basic conditions":

"(a) No white man to be disfranchised except for crime.

"(b) Such qualification of the suffrage as will guarantee white supremacy ["the Mississippi plan or something better"].

"(c) Constitution of principles, and not dealing with legislation, but leaving to the Legislature full control of the free schools, and requiring the Legislature to liberally support them.

"(d) The Constitution, when adopted, not to be submitted back to the people."

This so-called "pacification scheme" has the familiar ante-bellum air of peace at the expense of the colored American, and there is one man in South Carolina—a white man and a native—who does not hesitate to stigmatize it as "un-Christian, un-American, un-democratic," and "a conspiracy against the Constitution and laws of the nation." We refer to Mr. John J. Dargan, editor and proprietor of the Sumter *Freeman*, and an independent candidate for delegate to the convention. His position in maintaining the fullest right of suffrage for the blacks, his appeals against race prejudice, against negro lynching and oppression in every form, and for practical assistance in elevating those whom it is now sought to disfranchise, are such as might have emanated from the Boston *Liberator*. Mr. Dargan has actively taken the stump in the intervals of his hard struggle to keep his paper alive, and has naturally received the usual admonition that his "incendiary speeches" will lead to bloody strife. "Legions of white men," writing from Hartsville, have assured him that "we consider it blood economy to take the blood of one man rather than the blood of many." Mr. Dargan, with rare moral courage, responds in the *Freeman* that if they will get up a meeting at Hartsville he will be happy to come there alone and address them on the negro question. "It would save them a long ride, and have me handy for the 'heinous deed' they say they wish to commit upon me." The convention will meet on the second Tuesday in September, and it will be a pity if Mr. Dargan's name is not upon the roll. He would probably be the sole representative of the nascent Southern conscience regarding the means employed for the past eighteen years to "guarantee white supremacy."

The departure of Croker to England last week to attend the races in that country, in high health, with his pockets full of money, leaving the reformers still wrestling with the problem of getting his creatures out of the city offices, recalls once more very vividly the extraordinary character of the episode known as Tammany rule in this city. Six years ago four unknown, and all but one utterly illiterate, Irishmen determined to get hold of this great city and manage it for their own personal benefit. They may be said to have issued a prospectus of their syndicate under the name of "The New Tammany, Limited." They carried out their programme in every particular, with the consent of the citizens. They got hold of all the offices and all the taxes, and kept them for six years. One of them opened an office where he sold legislation of the State Legislature at retail to all comers. The others levied taxes on salaries and contracts, and gave the most lucrative places to bummers and semi-criminals. They played their game so boldly that they made no pretence even of decency. After six years they retired with fortunes. Three of them are now travelling and horse-racing in Europe as rich *rentiers*. Another is living among us as a wealthy gentleman toying with street-car advertising. And so firmly did they lodge their men in office that it has taken almost a revolution on the part of the respectable citizens to get them out, and the work is not yet done. Can any one recall, in tale or history, an incident so extraordinary, so picturesque, so opposed to all the probabilities of modern life? We doubt if any modern author would have ventured before now to make a novel out of it or put it on the stage. Up to the present the escape of such men without punishment would have been considered a good Gaboriau story; but their leisurely departure with riches and éclat, leaving "bye-byes" with the newspaper reporters, belongs to the region of Oriental romance, to the land of Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves.

GEN. WALKER ON BIMETALLISM.

GEN. FRANCIS A. WALKER made a speech on international bimetallism at Springfield last week. He began by referring to the prejudices and prepossessions in the public mind created by a hostile press, which he would endeavor to remove by an exposition of facts. Now we do not consider academic discussions of this sort particularly harmful, but we like to see facts stated correctly, and for this reason we shall examine some of those which Gen. Walker attempted to set before his audience at Springfield.

His first proposition was that the bimetallists are not innovators, but are merely seeking a return to the old ways. In order to show this he said:

"In 1867, the first gold monometallist conference was held in Paris. That body, in perfectly cold blood, then and there declared that gold monometallism ought by contrivance, by authority of law, by act of government, to be imposed upon the nations which had immemorially down to that time used silver as their sole money of full value. Clearly, if there ever was a case of tinkering with the currency, it was that of the conference of 1867."

What is meant by voting "in perfectly cold blood" for the single gold standard? That phrase implies premeditation, if not malice also. That Gen. Walker meant to imply premeditation is evident from all that he says about the conference of 1867, *i. e.*, a preconceived purpose to establish gold monometallism. This is exactly contrary to the facts. The conference of 1867 was not called with any design of establishing the gold standard more than the silver standard, but simply to agree upon an international coin of some metal. As the French minister of foreign affairs said at the opening session, the object in view was "to substitute, instead of the variety of monetary types actually in use, metallic coins struck in accordance with uniform regulations and placed beyond any variations of exchange." If any inference might be drawn beforehand as to the cold-bloodedness of the delegates and their previous intention to adopt one metal, such inference must have been favorable to silver, since there were only three gold-standard countries, out of eighteen, represented. These were Great Britain, Portugal, and Turkey. All the rest were either bimetallic or silver-standard countries.

The proceedings of the conference show at every step an entire lack of premeditation. Even M. de Parieu, the president of the conference, who afterwards became the champion of the gold standard in France, was so much in doubt that, after silver had been rejected unanimously as the material of the proposed international coin, he suggested that each state should be at liberty to keep the silver standard temporarily, and the resolution in favor of gold was adopted with this amendment, and with only one dissenting vote, that of Holland.

The next statement of any importance in Gen. Walker's discourse is the following:

"The United States did, indeed, at the very beginning of our government, institute a mint ratio between the two metals, and has, with only a short interval, continued that system down to the present time. But, instead of loyally accepting the European ratio, our fathers purposely set the ratio away from that which prevailed elsewhere. The market value of the two metals being at the time about 15½ to 1, the first Congress established our ratio at 15 to 1. The result of this was that we were all the time pulling away from those with whom we should have been pulling in concert."

This is in direct conflict with Hamilton's report on the Mint, in 1792, which formed the basis of our ratio of 15 to 1. It is also in conflict with the facts. The Spanish milled dollar was our money of account. It had been declared such by the Congress of the Confederation in 1785. Hamilton said that 24 75-100 grains of gold was the equivalent of this dollar in the American market, and that the dollar itself contained 371 grains of pure silver, on the average. This was the Spanish dollar in actual circulation, being somewhat abraded. Now 371 25-100 grains, the chosen weight of pure metal in the silver dollar, was exactly fifteen times 24 75-100 grains. Consequently a ratio of 15 to 1 was the market ratio here, within a very minute fraction. But Hamilton was not satisfied with this. He scraped together all the information he could get from other countries, and came to the conclusion, upon the best evidence obtainable, that 15 to 1 was the market ratio in Europe also.

Now, what does Gen. Walker mean by saying that "instead of loyally accepting the European ratio, our fathers *purposely* set the ratio away from that which prevailed elsewhere"? What was the European ratio? A report made to the French National Assembly by a monetary commission in 1790, published by our Government with the proceedings of the monetary conference of 1878 (of which Gen. Walker was a member), gives eleven different ratios prevailing in Europe at that time in addition to that of France. The French ratio was 15½, established by Calonne in 1785, but the great question, at the time when Hamilton wrote, was whether it should be changed or not. Calonne himself said that the ratio of 15½ was too high, but that he had chosen it because he had observed that gold had an advancing tendency, and he believed that 15½ would become the market ratio in a few years. The truth is, that there was no "European ratio" at that time, and that if Hamilton had looked to France to find out what her ratio was going to be, he could have learned nothing at that time, because the French themselves did not know, and did not settle the question till ten years later. It follows that our fathers did not "purposely set the ratio away from that which prevailed elsewhere." If they had desired "loyally" to accept the European ratio, they could not have found any such ratio, because it did not exist. They chose a legal ratio as close to the market ratio as possible.

We will now consider a paragraph or two in Gen. Walker's speech which involve the reasoning faculty merely. Speaking of the want of a par of exchange between gold-using countries and silver-using countries, and the losses consequent thereon, he says: "It is a cause which is entirely adequate to explain the frightful series of panics, commercial disasters, and crises which have taken place during the past twenty years." Gen. Walker is a writer of text-books on political economy. He knows the importance of explaining in clear language the processes by which economic effects are produced by their causes, especially when he is talking to laymen. His assertion is that one particular cause is sufficient to account for all the panics and crises that have taken place in the past twenty years, namely, the fluctuations of exchange between gold countries and silver countries. This would include the Australian crisis of 1893, as well as our own crisis of that year, although the dealings of Australia and America with silver-using countries were never before alluded to, so far as we can now recall, by any human being as contributing causes. We are not now controverting Gen. Walker's assertion, but merely pointing out that when a teacher of political economy makes sweeping statements of this kind, he is bound to show some chain between the cause and the effect.

One more point is all that our space permits us to examine. Gen. Walker says:

"The prepossession of the public mind in America as to the impotence of law in affecting values has been derived partly from the experience of our Revolutionary Congress, and partly from our observation, in our own day, regarding the greenback era. So that many people have come to say, thoughtlessly, that law is impotent to affect values. If, indeed, law is impotent to affect values, why was it that all the protectionists urged the passage of the McKinley act? If law is impotent to affect values, why was it that all the free-traders and revenue-reformers protested against that act and could not rest until it had been repealed?"

When people who are discussing the silver question say that "the law is impotent to affect values," they mean that the law cannot impart *value*—that is, purchasing power—to a metal, either silver or gold. If the law cannot affect values, says General Walker, why did the protectionists want the McKinley tariff? Evidently because they believed that it would raise the *prices* of those goods on which an increased duty was laid. The two things are not analogous. A true analogy would be between a tariff on foreign goods and a tax on silver mines sufficient to curtail the production and cause an artificial scarcity and a higher price. If it is Gen. Walker's meaning that the law can create a demand for silver, and thus increase its purchasing power, that is the very thing that we take leave to deny. Such a law can cheat creditors and produce a brief speculative demand for silver, but, after business has adjusted itself to the change, the law will be as impotent to create values as the fiat of King Canute was to hold back the tides. If such a

law can create values, is there any limit to them, and why should there be any?

THE RIGHT TO LABOR.

We have obtained briefs and the judge's opinion in the case of Tilt vs. Illinois, which declared unconstitutional the eight-hour law of June 17, 1893. Section 5 contained the gist of this statute, and was worded as follows: "No female shall be employed in any factory or workshop more than eight hours in any one day, or forty-eight hours in any one week." The context of the other sections seemed to indicate that the restrictions of the statute were limited to factories or workshops, or to dwelling-houses or other places where the inmates were engaged in the manufacture of wearing apparel, artificial flowers, or cigars. The decision of the Supreme Court of Illinois, by Judge Magruder, intimated its opinion that if section 5 was to be construed as applying to such occupations only, it would be unconstitutional also for the reason that it effected class legislation. But the court's opinion does not proceed mainly on this narrow view, but expressly decides that a woman is a citizen, and that the right of a citizen to make his or her own contract for labor or services is part of the protection of liberty and property guaranteed by the fourteenth amendment of the federal Constitution, by section 1977 of the revised statutes of the United States, and by the Constitution of Illinois, article 2, section 1. The court also decides that the statute is not within the police powers of the Legislature, for the reason that it is not shown that it was passed with any sanitary purpose, and that, the occupations engaged in being expressly lawful for women, the hours of each day which they should devote to such work could not be limited by statute. The court intimates that had the inhibition of the statute extended to minors only, it might, under the police powers, have been sustained.

In all of the individual cases the employers were fined under the penal section of the statute for employing women, of whom all but one were over age, for more than the time allowed. The statute is a substantial copy of that existing in all the New England States, New York, and many other States. It does not in terms prohibit a contract by a woman and her employer to labor more than eight hours a day, but imposes a penalty upon any person or corporation failing to comply with any provision of the act, which would, of course, include the employee as well as the employer.

The appellant's counsel contended, in the main, that the act places unwarranted restrictions upon the individual's right to contract, citing the above-mentioned provisions of the State and federal constitutions, the dissenting opinions of Justices Bradley and Swayne in the famous slaughter-house cases, and the various decisions in State supreme courts which have declared unconstitutional laws forbidding payment by employers in goods or commodities other than lawful money; laws prohibiting the manufacture of cigars in tenement-houses; laws prohibiting the sale or disposal of articles with a gift or reward; laws prohibiting employers from imposing a wage penalty for imperfect weaving; laws prohibiting the screening of coal before the miners are paid; laws providing for a weekly payment of wages by corporations; laws requiring contractors with a city to adopt the eight-hour day for their labor, and laws forbidding or regulating special occupations.

The counsel then went on to a consideration of the police argument, claiming that, however broad and extensive, it is not above the Constitution, and citing a line of decisions to the effect that while the Legislature might determine what laws and regulations are needed to protect the public health and secure the public comfort and safety, and their discretion in this particular is not subject to review by the courts, yet such laws must have some relation to these ends, and that, particularly, one sex could not be disqualified from any occupation, however objectionable. The sole case to the contrary—the Massachusetts case of Commonwealth vs. Hamilton Manufacturing Company, 120 Mass., 383—was disapproved of by both the counsel and the court, unless it can be justified by the peculiar provision of the Massachusetts Constitution, article 4, chapter 1, section 1, which provides that "the Legislature may make . . . all manner of wholesome and reasonable orders, laws, statutes, and ordinances, . . . either with penalties or without, so as the same be not repugnant or contrary to this Constitution, as they shall judge to be for the good and welfare of this commonwealth, and for the government and order thereof, and of the subjects of the same."

Judge Magruder, in his opinion, cited many of the cases in the brief for plaintiffs in error, and concluded that the act was unconstitutional both as being applied to certain occupations and not to others, and upon the general ground. He said:

"Aside from its partial and discriminating character, this enactment is a purely arbitrary restriction upon the fundamental right of the citizen to control his or her own time and faculties. It substitutes the judgment of the Legislature for the judgment of the employer and employee in a matter about which they are competent to agree with each other. It assumes to dictate to what extent the capacity to labor may be exercised by the employee, and takes away the right of private judgment as to the amount and duration of the labor to be put forth in a specific period. Where the Legislature thus undertakes to impose an unreasonable and unnecessary burden upon any one citizen or class of citizens, it transcends the authority intrusted to it of the Constitution, even though it imposes the same burden upon all other citizens or classes of citizens. General laws may be as tyrannical as partial laws. A distinguished writer on constitutional limitations has said that general rules may sometimes be as obnoxious as special, if they operate to deprive individual citizens of vested rights, and that, while every man has a right to require that his own controversies shall be judged by the same rules which are applied in the controversies of his neighbors, the whole community is also entitled, at all times, to demand the protection of the ancient principles which shield private rights against arbitrary interference, even though such interference may be under a rule impartial in its operation.

"Liberty, as has already been stated, includes the right to make contracts, as well with reference to the amount and duration of labor to be performed as concerning any other local matter. Hence the right to make contracts is an inherent and inalienable one, and any attempt to unreasonably abridge it is opposed to the Constitution."

The court also cited the recent case of the Supreme Court of Nebraska in which an opinion filed June 6, 1894, held the general eight-hour law of that State unconstitutional, although this law was in general operation throughout the State as to both sexes, and all classes of laborers except agricultural and domestic. This decision in Nebraska is even more noteworthy than the one we are considering, inasmuch as it was a general law limiting the hours of labor, and, so far as we are informed, the first that has been passed in the United States which applied to men as well as women or minors, and undertook expressly to deny the right of contract for a longer day than the law prescribed.

The court gave much attention to the "police power" argument, but affirmed the principle that the sanitary intent of the statute must be manifest and direct to bring it within this exemption, and that in this act "it is not the nature of the things done, but the sex of the persons doing them," which is made the basis of the claim that the act is a measure for the promotion of the public health.

Judge Magruder expressly disapproves of the doctrine of the Massachusetts case of Commonwealth vs. Hamilton Manufacturing Company, and it is noteworthy that the great questions involved in this decision should first arise in Western States, like Nebraska and Illinois, and not in Massachusetts, and that these Western courts should be the first in our country to re-pronounce boldly and clearly that old English principle which sets the freedom of the citizen above State tutelage, even when the latter presents itself under the new mask of the labor vote, with the old excuse that it is all for his own good.

THE SOLDIER CASTE.

In the United States District Court in Boston on March 26, John McDonough was sentenced by Judge Nelson to five years in the state's prison. He had been assistant superintendent of the delivery department in the post-office, and had pleaded guilty to the embezzlement of a letter. Before the sentence was passed, the counsel for the prisoner asked for leniency from the court, on the ground that he had been a gallant soldier in the late war, where he had attained the rank of major, and that he had borne a good character in the post-office up to the date of his crime. In case the sentence of five years was adhered to, it was asked that he be sent to

the house of correction instead of the state's prison. The argument of the district attorney, in which the court appeared fully to concur, is worth noting:

"He said he thought, like Col. Walker, that one who had honorably served his country on the battlefield should be held in the highest esteem by all citizens. But here was a man who had charge of all the carriers in the Boston post-office, who had assisted the authorities to detect the stealings of those under him and send them to state prison. He therefore thought that the defendant deserved only little pity at the hands of the court."

This case raises squarely an issue which has really, though not avowedly, been before the people of this country for some time. The District Court decided it in the only way which the safety of the citizens will allow. That issue is: Shall the war record of a distinguished soldier, which, of course, ended at least thirty years ago, exempt him in any and all cases, even that of detected crime of the most serious character, from treatment to which any other citizen, however respected in the community, and however well conducted except for this crime, would be subjected? Within the last ten years in Massachusetts, citizens of what is called high social position, and supposed to be beyond suspicion, have received long sentences to the state's prison for forgery or embezzlement. The good standing in which they had been up to the hour of detection, was not allowed for a moment to weigh in their favor, it being held of paramount necessity that those in less favored walks of life should see that there was not one law for the rich and another for the poor; and that, too, although the same sentence would cause treble suffering to the man of culture and delicacy. In the case of McDonough the court readily admitted the statement of his counsel that he had maintained a good character up to the embezzlement, in which he had been detected by identically the same means which he had assisted in using to detect and sentence subordinates in his department; but that could not influence the judgment, nor did his counsel expect it to. He rested his whole plea on the "war record."

It is, of course, well known that, from the moment the war ended till this day, its veterans have had a great advantage in obtaining posts of trust, public or private, over all civilians of their own generation and the next. Lucrative places have been vacated for them; others have been made for them; they have been retained in service when other men would undoubtedly have been retired. They have been exempted from the workings of the civil-service commissions, and every Government office at this moment has veterans in it who are past work yet defy any power to remove them. This has been maintained more than once on the floor of Congress to be all right; it is maintained that there is no limit to the rewards to which "the boys in blue" are entitled. One of their great champions in the last session raised the suggestion that there must be "light work" in various departments for which old soldiers might be retained when obviously useless in average work. But there can be no question that, as far as the country owes the veterans a reward in the way of official position, whether by appointing or retaining, she has paid it over and over again.

But in return for all this it is fair to expect at least a full standard of honor and honesty from the old soldier, and to hold him to the strictest fidelity—requiring much, since much was given; yet any such suggestion is loudly resented by his champions. It is usual for them to deny indignantly that there are such things as frauds in the pension roll, because that charge "belittles the character of the old soldier." In other words, an old soldier belongs to a superior caste—he is a *Kshatriya*, except that whereas the Brahminical system puts the soldier caste only second, below the priests, our system makes him distinctly first. He is to have applied to him a different rating. He must be assumed to possess all the virtues. In Plato's way of stating it in the 'Republic,' he is composed of purer metal. He is better than the rest of us because he fought. And now it is sought to push the principle one step further, and declare that when actually detected in crime, a crime tending to produce a sense of insecurity in the entire machinery of government, which comes far nearer to the people in the post-office than in any other of its operations, he must be excused from the judgment which the law has fixed for all, on the ground of what happened a generation ago.

We have no wish to carry out this idea into tedious and obvious detail. It is enough to state it as it is, and let the country see where the war spirit, which is threatening to turn the whole land upside down, will run to if unchecked. To the just punishment which the court awarded to Major McDonough we would not add one iota by a sneer or a reproach. So far from that, we would urge that in any such case there has been a terrible temptation thrust in the way of any veteran by the senseless temper, so common in the community, which encourages an old soldier to conceive that he is not to be judged as other men are, and that whereas the old moralists believed that service in war almost certainly strained the sense of right and wrong, we are, in this end of the nineteenth century, to hold that our veterans must be regarded as so stainless that they may expect leniency if they break their trust which no civilian, whatever his past life, could hope for an instant to receive. But let us be thankful that the United States Court has shown its ancient firmness and wisdom.

GOVERNMENT BY INJUNCTION.

THE Debs case has at last come before the Supreme Court. The chief question raised in it is, whether a man can be punished for a contempt by an equity judge for disobeying an injunction which restrains him from committing common-law crimes. We commented a year ago on the extraordinary use which many of the United States judges were making of their equity powers in treating the obstruction of traffic, attacks on railroad employees, and destruction of property as simply disobedience to the orders of the court. Men were, therefore, punished not for assault and battery, or riot, but for contempt of court, and, of course, necessarily deprived of the benefit of trial by jury. During the Chicago riots this assumption of criminal jurisdiction by the Court of Chancery reached its extreme limits. Mr. F. J. Stimson of Boston, the well-known legal writer, has prepared a monograph on the subject, which sets out in a striking manner the anomalies of the new system of criminal administration. He says:

"We have seen courts of equity invoked in a private law suit between individuals or corporations, to restrain not alone the other party to the suit, but all the world, with or without actual notice of a court order or injunction, not only from interference with property which is the subject of the suit, but from committing, or conspiring to commit, or aiding or advising others to commit, acts which are criminal acts, criminal at common law, or made so by recent acts of Congress, known as the anti-Trust law, or the inter-state commerce law. We have seen more. We have seen persons committing, or about to commit, such acts, arrested by the civil courts, deprived of their liberty, and punished by imprisonment, and this, as in the Debs case and others, after the emergency which made the excuse for this protective jurisdiction has long gone by. And we have seen them so punished without the usual safeguards of liberty afforded by the criminal law, without indictment, without the right to counsel, without being confronted with witnesses, without trial by jury, and sentenced at the discretion of the judge. We have seen more. We have seen courts, not content with ordering all the world what not to do, order at a word the ten or twenty thousand employees of a railroad system to carry out, each and every, the definite or indefinite duties of their employment, as directed by their superior officers, or by the receiver of the court itself; so that for any failure or omission or merely negative act on their part, they may be summarily brought into court and punished then and there, as the court may find leisure to sentence or its attorneys to file complaints."

This extraordinary exercise of equity power was justified by Judge Ross, on the ground that it is "the proud boast of equity, *ubi jus, ibi remedium.*" Last summer things went still further. The attorney-general of the United States sued out injunctions in nearly every large city west of the Alleghanies; injunction writs covered the sides of cars; deputy marshals and federal soldiers patrolled railway yards; chancery process was executed by bullets and bayonets. Equity jurisdiction has passed from the theory of "public rights" to political prerogatives. All these things have grown out of the anti-Trust law and the inter-state commerce law. The question whether under these powers thus claimed, a man can be sentenced to a long term of imprisonment by a single judge, sitting without a jury and without indictment, is the question now before the Supreme Court in the Debs case.

There is no doubt that the injunction

served a very useful purpose at the time. It became, in fact, a kind of substitute for martial law. Local government at the West had utterly broken down. The Governor and sheriffs were afraid or unwilling to protect property and arrest rioters. What was to be done in such cases nobody knew until the President intervened. So that the judges really did the community a good turn in converting contempt of court into a special constable. But it would discredit us all greatly if such practices were allowed to continue. Mr. Stimson points out that they are, after all, only a revival of the old chancery jurisdiction of the middle ages, when the chancellor represented the king in person, and was constantly called in to prevent bold barons and other wrongdoers from "going for" their neighbors, and great men from oppressing the poor. We ought at this time of the day to be able to make the criminal law equal to all emergencies. For all that the Debs rioters did or tried to do, they were liable to indictment, trial, and sentence in the United States courts. And they are just the class of men on whom the effect of departure from the regular course of law is bad. They ought not to feel that they can drive society into unusual and abnormal courses for its protection against violence. The courts which try them should be courts organized for this very purpose. The processes by which they are tried and brought to justice should be the processes by which all crime is punished, and not crimes against railroads simply. There should be no interest surrounded in their eyes by special safeguards. They should always feel when they begin rioting in railroad stations that they are attacking not a particular corporation or trade, but society itself.

THE SPEAKERSHIP OF THE COMMONS.

LONDON, March 21, 1895.

IN the House of Commons the most engrossing topic is the approaching resignation of the Speaker. It was not intended to make the announcement till just before Easter. But the news came into the hands of the *Times*, and it was published prematurely. The chair is so admirably filled by Mr. Peel that it will be hard indeed to find a worthy successor. Mr. Peel was chosen by the House in 1884, after he had been for nearly twenty years a member of Parliament, respected but wholly undistinguished, though he had filled for a short time one or two subordinate posts in the Government. A candidate is always proposed by the Government of the day, of course with very special regard to his acceptability to their own supporters and to the House generally. Mr. Gladstone's Government offered the nomination to at least two other members—the present Lord Chancellor and Mr. Goschen; and when he became at length the choice of the party, and was elected without opposition, Mr. Peel, who is the second son of Sir Robert Peel, probably owed something to the great parliamentary name which he had inherited. His lot fell on troubled times. Never before have there been so many organized groups or parties in the House. Never in living memory has party heat risen so high. It has been a period of transition during which a change in the rules of procedure, especially in the matter of the closure, has invested the Chair with new authority and delicate discretionary powers. Throughout this difficult time the Speaker, owing to remarkable gifts of character rather than to commanding intellectual power, has gradually gained an ascendancy over the House which is probably unprecedented, and is even exceeded by the esteem in which he is held in every quarter and by every member of the House.

The number of possible candidates whose names have been suggested by the press is extraordinarily large. They would make a numerous field for the Derby. Of course, most of them are rank outsiders, but the suggestion of their names has diffused a great deal of innocent happiness in many respectable families. At first there was a prevailing rumor that the Postmaster General, Mr. Arnold Morley, would be the Government candidate. He has many qualifications for a good speaker; but not the least of them, his comparative youth (for the duties of the Chair put a severe strain on the strongest man), perhaps diminished his chances. The situation changes from day to day. A few days ago the three favorites were Mr. Campbell-Bannerman, Mr. Courtney, and Sir Matthew White Ridley. Mr. Campbell-Bannerman could probably have had the post, if he desired it, with general assent and without opposition. As Secretary for War he is one of the best administrators in either house of Parliament. He is a member of long experience and genuine popularity, full of tact in the management of Parliamentary business, effective and conciliatory in debate. It is supposed, contrary to expectation, that if the duty were laid upon him, he would accept it, though he would exchange congenial duties, a high political position, and good prospects for the arduous and monotonous, though honorable and difficult, work of the Chair. But neither the Government nor the party can easily make up their minds to press this sacrifice upon him. It would mean the loss of one of the most useful front-bench men, not to speak of the loss of two seats on a division. It is understood to be now decided that he will not be a candidate.

Mr. Courtney, a Liberal-Unionist, has the advantage of several years' experience as chairman of committees and deputy speaker. He filled these offices with firmness and impartiality and marked ability. He is respected on all sides, and liked by those who know him. But, joined to the strength of his character, which could not be questioned, he has qualities which are not popular, and make many members hesitate to invite him to rule over them. Notwithstanding that, his chances would have been good, though the Liberal press has done him great disservice by trying to force him on the party. He was believed to be the choice favored by the Cabinet. But strong opposition was threatened, not only from the Conservative benches and a portion of the Liberals, but from his own Liberal-Unionist friends; and it is understood that Mr. Courtney would stand only if his nomination were likely to be met with general assent.

So far as politics is concerned, if the Liberals went outside their own party, their bias would be towards a Conservative. The Conservative candidate is Sir Matthew Ridley. In bearing, temper, and ability he is fully qualified. He has long experience of Parliament, and his reputation for capacity stands so high that it has often been matter of surprise to outsiders that he has not occupied a more prominent place when his party was in power. One reason certainly is that he takes no pains to assert himself or put himself in evidence. In fact, he is so little seen in the daily struggles of Parliamentary life that, while well known to be a capable man generally for the Speakership, he would, to a certain extent, be a dark horse. As a member said to-day, "Courtney would try to make business go, but I doubt whether Ridley would ever give the closure. But I may be wrong." The rank and file of the Liberal party are, however, not inclined to seek for a Speaker outside their own body. This reluctance has been increased by the taunt of weakness freely and imprudently made by the Tory press when Sir Matthew Ridley's competitors seemed one by one to be retiring. The Government will probably be pressed to nominate a Liberal candidate. The names just now most current are those of three eminent lawyers, the Attorney-General, the Solicitor-General, and Mr. Gully, Q. C.

Another public event of considerable importance has been the London County Council election. The Local Government act of 1888 established county councils for the first time in every part of England. The London Council has been from the first a very influential body. It represents a population, in a compact area, of four millions and a quarter—that is to say, a number not far short of the population of Ireland, and rather exceeding that of Scotland. The elections are triennial. There are 118 elected members and twenty aldermen, who are coöpted for six years, half retiring at each election. The powers of the Council are in many directions considerable, and in London its proceedings at times attract quite as much attention as those of Parliament. Lord Rosebery has twice been the chairman, and not a few other public men of note are members. There have always naturally been within the Council a more conservative and a more forward party, known as Moderates and Progressives. At the last election in 1892, the Progressives had an overwhelming victory, which gave them a majority of more than two to one. The dividing line does not correspond with that which separates the political parties. A Moderate is likely to be a Conservative, a Progressive is likely to be a Liberal. But in politics the metropolis has long been a Conservative stronghold, and only a few months after the great Progressive victory in 1892, the general election proved that London had not become Liberal, though the Liberal position was substantially improved.

During the past three years the Progressive majority has been unceasingly active. It has, among other things, acquired a large number of open spaces for the public, it has built the town bridge, it has bought up the tramways, it has become a large direct employer of labor, and it has set on foot a number of schemes of reform, such as the acquisition of the rights of the water companies, and street-improvement schemes involving the principle of betterment, for all which Parliamentary sanction was required. In these schemes, speaking generally, the Council has been supported by the Liberal majority in the House of Commons, and opposed, often successfully, by the Conservatives and the House of Lords. At the recent election the pendulum has swung back again. Progressives and Moderates are returned in nearly equal numbers, the former retaining a very small majority through that portion of the Aldermen who remain in office for another three years. The contest excited great interest, and the result, so different from that of 1892, is prob-

ably due to several causes. On this occasion the battle was fought more upon political lines than before. Therefore the tendency has been for the representation to approximate to the Parliamentary representation. Another potent cause has been the question of rates. The great improvements effected by the late Council have cost money; the rates have been slightly raised. This is a question on which the small householder is extremely sensitive, and it lends itself to catchpenny misrepresentation. Placards were to be seen of this tenor: "Workingmen, are you aware that the expiring Council has spent £1,000 a day of your hard-earned money more than their predecessor?" Another cause of some unpopularity has doubtless been the increased stringency in the supervision of music-halls and similar places of amusement. And last, but not least, some of the most active members of the predominant party were accustomed to found themselves on principles with respect to taxation and similar subjects which were sometimes stated with a breadth and crudeness that went beyond the necessity of the administrative objects which they had in view, and awakened the widespread distrust which exists, even among the masses, of revolutionary or socialistic proposals.

The work of Parliament proceeds somewhat slowly. The Government are fighting against time. The dissolution can hardly be deferred beyond the close of the present session, including, probably enough, if there is no accident, an autumn session; and as the fruit of their labors in that time it is important for them to show substantial results. It is the object of the Opposition to disappoint this hope. Their policy is the Oriental policy of delay. The Government are pledged to do all they can to pass three measures more or less difficult and portentous—viz., disestablishment of the Church in Wales, the Irish Land bill, and a liquor bill called the Local Veto bill. To all these measures the Tories are on principle opposed. But in each case there is a possibility of some defection. Most of the Liberal-Unionists are deeply pledged to disestablishment in Wales. Mr. Chamberlain wrote quite recently that, in his opinion, it must come. But he has explained that the letter written to the editor of a newspaper was private, and those scruples may be got over. An Ulster cave, led by Mr. Russell, threatens to support the Irish bill, which, in the matter of the evicted tenants, is much less drastic than the bill of last year. The temperance party has also many zealous adherents on the Opposition benches, but they have always fallen into line with their political friends.

According to the theory of the work of Parliament now favored by the Opposition, even one of these bills might be sufficient for the task of a session. Accordingly, contrary to precedent, the first reading in the case of the two bills already introduced was made the occasion of a long debate, and the second reading will be protracted as long as is found possible. But these bills are not the only occupation of the Government, and their passing is not the only result which the Opposition is desirous to prevent. There are several bills, two especially, with regard to which the spoken pledges of the Government are not so emphatic, but which are intended to meet a want in the country quite as urgent as those already mentioned. I refer to the Home Secretary's Factories and Workshops bill, and the Trades Disputes Conciliation bill, introduced by the President of the Board of Trade. The latter subject is in this country a most urgent one, and, as I dare say you know in America, an extremely difficult one. Mr. Bryce's bill proposes to give the Board of Trade a certain power of intervention with a view to bring about conciliation. It is a modest and experimental proposal. Neither of these bills could be opposed on principle, however much they might be susceptible of amendment. But the Opposition, I may say avowedly, are not willing to allow the Government to have the credit of passing non-contentious bills, except on the condition of their dropping the contentious bills. Hence the necessary business of supply has been unduly prolonged. In the discussions of it, the most interesting topic has been the large increase of the navy, involving a heavy expense, which is recognized by the nation, in spite of the earnest protests of some sincere men, as indispensable for the defence of the country. Probably the Opposition will be successful in preventing the Government from getting a second reading of any of their bills before Easter, except the Welsh Disestablishment bill.

C. D.

A GRAND OLD MAN.

MANTUA, March 16, 1895.

ON the 11th inst., at the age of ninety-one, Cesare Cantù expired painlessly and peacefully, "in the full and certain hope of a joyful resurrection." This greatest of Italian historians, whose works far exceed in number those of Tiraboschi and Muratori, was, from his boyhood to his death, a firm, devout believer, unassailed by doubt, supported throughout a life of tribulation by a profound sense of duty "here below," an unalterable faith in immortality, the continuation of existence in the "world beyond the grave." This rare, we may say unique, consistency of his religious sentiments never clashed with, nay, intensified, his patriotism, his aspirations for an Italy great, good, and true; but as his ideal differed from that of the majority (he being a federal republican, and a champion, as long as there seemed a possibility, of an Italian federation, with the Pope for supreme chief), the fickle, envious turncoats of several generations embittered his life with calumnies, defrauding him at every step of his rightful place in the new Italy, to whose independence and intellectual progress he had so largely contributed. Plagiarists and paste-and-scissors compilers pilfered his works, never naming the author; Carducci the great, Saffi the good, alone placing him on his rightful pedestal, and frankly acknowledging their debt and the debt of three generations to the modest, earnest, indefatigable Lombard. Side by side with the telegrams of the Pope, the King, the exiles of Trieste, is the following:

"The deputation of the Historical Society of the Romagna receives with grief the tidings of the death of the great worker whose intellect and sentiment comprehended universal history and the history of the Italian people.

"(Signed) GIOSUÈ CARDUCCI, President."

Cesare Cantù came of an old family of Brivio, on the Adda, impoverished at the time (1807) of the birth of this, the eldest of ten children. Cesare was destined for the priesthood, and thus obtained gratuitous education at Milan. At the age of eighteen, not feeling inclined to the sacred calling, he doffed the garb of the seminary and obtained the post of professor of grammar in the Lyceum of Sondrio, being transferred later to Como and thence to Milan. His father dying in 1827, he became the sole supporter of his mother, brothers, and sisters, maintaining and educating them with the proceeds of his teachings and pen. "Algiso and the Lombard League," dedicated to the youth of Lombardy, lovers of their birthplace, his first attempt in verse, was reviewed by the *Biblioteca Italiana* as "a work of no ordinary writer." Then of his 'History of Como,' Tommaseo, in the *Antologia*, wrote: "It would be difficult among municipal chronicles to find a history as interesting or as sapient. The precision of the facts, the rapidity and lucidity of the narrative, the simple morality, confer on the author and his country a title of honor."

Cantù, an ardent admirer of Manzoni, was, with Carlo Cattaneo and Giuseppe Ferrari, a disciple of Romagnosi, forbidden by Austria to teach even in private. The political ideal of these studious and patriotic youths was an Italian federation of states, free to follow and develop the special tendencies of each region, united as an independent nation. Cantù was the beloved disciple of the great philosopher, who intrusted him with the preparation of the statistics to be submitted to the new federation. Cantù's first public peccadillo was the epitaph on Ciro Menotti, beguiled, betrayed, arrested by the Duke of Modena, deserted by the French Liberals, faintly supported by the Revolutionists, who trusted to the proclaimed doctrine of non-intervention rather than to the watchword, "Who would be free, himself must strike the blow." I have seen the original of which I give a literal translation, with Cantù's note, "For this I was prosecuted."

"When Austrian bayonets, the betrayal of ill-redeemed Frenchmen, extinguished the spark of liberty, Ciro Menotti of Modena, martyr to Italian aspirations, fell a victim to the revenge of the Phalaris of Este in May, 1831. May his blood fructify glory and vengeance. Let us treasure his last words on the scaffold: '*Italians, put not your faith in foreigners!*'"

Towards the end of 1832, after the execution by Charles Albert of the members of the Young Italy Association, and the failure of the Savoy expedition, the unitarian doctrines of Mazzini spread rapidly in Lombardy, where it became evident to the youths impatient of Austrian rule that *partial*, *regional* attempts were fruitless; and the Government, permeating the province with spies, made numerous arrests. The trials were conducted by Zaiotti, a renegade of Trento, a brilliant writer who was especially jealous of Cantù's increasing literary fame, and who, on the publication of the brilliant work on Parini, exclaimed, "Cantù advances two steps to glory, three to the gallows." The success of his essays on "Lord Byron," "Victor Hugo and Romanticism," on "German Literature," intensified Zaiotti's envy. Cantù was never a member of Young Italy, but he was the confidant of Albera and of Balzetti, who, on the eve of his flight, consigned to him the residue of the funds for propaganda—45 lire. On November 11, 1833, he was arrested during his lecture at the Liceo, and immured in the prison in the Convent of Santa Margherita described by Silvio Pellico—"this," wrote Mazzini, "owing to the offended vanity of the Tyrolese spy Zaiotti, jealous of the popularity of Cantù, the historian, with the youth of Lombardy." Interrogated, menaced, deprived of books and pen, he maintained an absolute silence, imitated alone, in this, by Gabriele Rosa—so that, though the secrets of Romagnosi and the federalists, as well as of the unitarians, were in his keeping, no one was compromised.

To beguile the time and still the moral torture of the thought of his "children," as he called the nine brothers and sisters dependent

upon him, he wrote with a toothpick and candle-smoke on the back of a map and scraps of paper his 'Margherita Pusterla.' In this romance, considering the times and circumstances, the following prayer which he had taught to his own little sisters, is touching in its simple faith and patriotism:

"Kind Jesus, who didst love thy country even though ungrateful, and didst weep, foreseeing the dangers that menaced her, watch compassionately over mine, alleviate its sufferings, convert those who by fraud and violence oppress it, strengthen our faith in well-doing, and help me to become an honest, honorable, industrious citizen."

Liberated at the end of a year because there was no *proof* of his high treason, Cantù was deprived of his professorship, and he and his family would have been reduced to extremities had he not encountered a Turin publisher who was in search of a writer of general history. A curious contract was made, to be rescinded if the work should not take the public taste; but of the first volume 60,000 copies were sold. The publisher made a small fortune; Cantù realized sufficient to maintain his family with decency, give a dowry to his sisters, and a thorough education to all his brothers. This 'Storia Universale' has gone through 40 editions, and been translated into French and German. The 'History of a Hundred Years' and the 'Story of the Struggles for Italian Independence (*Cronistoria*)' form the vade-mecum of all students of these eventful years.

When, in 1847, the advent of Pio Nono, the reforming Pope, revived the hopes of independence, Cantù was foremost among the enthusiasts. At the Scientific Congress of Milan, at the Congress of Marseilles, and above all at Venice, his word, in the language of Ficquelmont, "was the match that lighted the revolutionary torch." For these speeches he was admonished by the police, and on the 21st of January the Archduke Raynier ordered Spaur, the Governor of Lombardy, to send on the same day four "politically dangerous citizens under strong escort to Laybach." Cantù, warned by a friend, escaped into Piedmont, returning to Milan just as the unarmed populace had driven out the Austrians and Venice had effected her bloodless revolution. He, with all the Liberals, disapproved the fusion willed by the Moderates; but when, the royal army defeated, the King, Charles Albert, entered Milan and the provisional Government resigned, Cantù, Pompeo Litta, and Anelli, all celebrated writers, formed a committee of defence, and protected the King's retreat; then, with 100,000 Milanese, emigrated to Piedmont, there to prepare the second war.

When, in 1849, Austria granted an amnesty, Cantù was excluded; later, his presence was tolerated under strict surveillance, and he continued his literary pursuits, though many of his books were prohibited by the Censor. And now we come to the epoch in his life most bitterly censured by his enemies. The Archduke Maximilian arrived in Milan in 1847, with the mission, it was rumored, of converting Venetian Lombardy into an independent kingdom, and one of his first proposed reforms was to render public instruction independent of the Austrian authorities and place it under the tutorship of the Lombard Institute. Of this Cantù was secretary. The Archduke sent for him, and he consented to compile the programme. This was his crime; it was said that he had been paid by Maximilian, pensioned, and decorated with the insignia of the iron crown by Austria. Baseless falsehoods. His only decoration was given by Charles Albert. But "mud sticks," and the calumny was repeated in 1860 by Finzi, the Mantuan, when Cantù was elected Deputy for San Salvatore and later for Caprino. The fact that he entered Parliament and took the oath to the King and Constitution is a proof that, though ever a devout Catholic and an opponent of all the laws which limited the Pope's spiritual power or sequestrated ecclesiastical property, he yet accepted Monarchy and Unity, retaining his predilections for federal institutions. His patriotism and literary merits, his whole life spent in the service of his country, entitled him to a seat in the Senate; but neither the Moderates nor the Liberals offered him this (I believe) desired honor. Some objected to his admission (the sole layman) to the Œcumenical Council, his devotion to Pio Nono, his admiration of Leo XIII.; "and yet," he answered, "I have never sought for or received aught from any pontiff, and from the present one I have never asked for anything but his blessing, and I trust that he will send me from my deathbed to the other world comforted by his benediction." Even the pension which, as a one-time professor under Austria dismissed for political motives, was his due in virtue of a law passed by Victor Emanuel, and the medal of 1862 for civic valor, were grudgingly granted. He was deprived of the secretaryship of the Lombard Institute, and only from the sheer impossibility of denying some recognition of his merit was he appointed head of the State Archives of Lombardy.

This was fortunate, for when the Austrians quitted and the Piedmontese entered, this precious deposit of Lombard history was pilfered and despoiled; whole series of documents between the years 1844 and 1848 are missing. Some of them were recovered from bookstalls and even grocers' shops, where they were used as waste paper, by Cantù himself, who set to work on a public and private catalogue. In 1886, when at work on the life of Mazzini, I was introduced to the illustrious old man, and was privileged for a month to work in his own study and to use his private catalogue. To this kindness I owe the numerous documents published in that biography and in later works. Seeing the amount of evidence there collected that shows, in the *procès-verbal* of the prisoners' answers to their judges and in their confrontations one with another, the weakness of this, the retractation of that accused, during the trials of '21, '33, and '53, it says much for the generosity and magnanimity of Cantù that in none of his answers to calumny or to his detractors (many of whom were the weak-kneed culprits who afterwards traded on their patriotism) did he ever make use of the knowledge thus acquired. Traitors to Italy, spies, provocative agents he denounced freely, but spared all whose spirit was willing but whose flesh was weak; and in allowing me to peruse the documents, he made it a question of honor that I would submit to him all notes or extracts.

There he worked from ten to three, never doing a line of his own literary work, being, as he said, "paid for his time by the State." Sometimes a date or a document would awaken "a reminiscence," of the arrests of 1821, of the contempt of the Milanese for the Austrians, of the delirium of the Moderates for the fusion; and then one listened with bated breath to his rapid, pithy sketches of this scene, of that episode. Among my treasures I reckon his 'Cronistoria,' his gift with his autograph, and a rare pamphlet on the great trial of Mantua. Outside his "workshop," and in his modest but comfortable home in Via Morigi, where he died, he was a different man; bright, genial, courteous, delighting in the society of children and ladies. His receptions were attended by the élite of Milan and by distinguished foreigners; every guest was called on to recite from memory some verse or extract from foreign or Italian authors: Mazzini or Gioberti, Manzoni or Carducci—the choice was free; vocal or instrumental music varying the entertainment. Children adored him and were his tyrants; on all his birthdays, flowers and gifts from loving needles filled his rooms, the children recited their poems or performed childish plays, and the older he grew, the more he clung to their presence.

Some real satisfactions were his. In 1883 he was presented with a gold medal by his world-wide admirers. On one side is his portrait, on the other the inscription:

Historicorum Italorum
sui temporis
clarissimo
Anno MDCCCLXXXIII.

At the presentation were assembled the authorities of the State, the province, the commune; representatives of Italian, French, German, and English scientific institutes; workmen's societies, and crowds of admirers and lovers—of Cantù, not of his all too lately recognized greatness. Then a marble medallion was sculptured for the balcony leading to the Archives:

To Cesare Cantù, in his lifetime,
Anno 1883;

while his fellow-citizens of Brivio affixed another medallion to the house where he was born. He was then nearly eighty years of age, yet had the courage to thoroughly revise and augment his Universal History. Rising at dawn and working uninterruptedly for eight hours every day save Sundays; of simple, temperate habits, a tenacious memory, and an extraordinary power of concentration, one can understand the amount of manuscript produced, yet still the mere list of his books is amazing. His last published work is the correspondence of the diplomats of the Italian Republic and the Kingdom of Italy (Napoleonic period); and the Annals of Manin. Only lately, suffering from rheumatism, did he use an amanuensis. His last unfinished work is a romance, which is in reality an autobiography; and just before his last illness he said to a friend, "Some one else will finish it."

His end came gently; worn-out nature sank to rest. Cantù to the last retained clear consciousness, was comforted with the Pope's benediction, as he had hoped to be; appreciated the message from the King and the numerous Italian and foreign scientific and literary societies of which he was a member. But the inquiries that pleased him best were those of his native Brivio, which he had chosen as his last resting-place. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

A CRITERION OF THE DIRECT TAX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with much interest your very able editorial upon "Income Taxes in 1787," in your issue of March 21, in which you show what meaning was attached to the term "direct taxes" by the framers of the Constitution. Will you permit me to add a word by way of supplement, which I have not seen suggested, by either court or counsel, in any case

heretofore, or now, before the United States Supreme Court?

It is illogically claimed by one of the justices delivering the opinion in Hylton vs. United States, 3 Dallas, that the term under discussion could not embrace such a thing as "carriages," because an apportionment of such a tax would impose very hard and onerous taxation upon those States in which few carriages were owned. Hence, the learned justice concludes, the term "direct taxes" could not have been intended to embrace personal property.

Does this follow? It will be conceded that the great leading idea of the Constitutional Convention, running through the whole legislation on this subject, was *equality* of taxation—uniformity, as the Constitution expresses it when dealing with "imposts, duties, and excises." It will be further admitted, I apprehend, that it was the equality of the burden to be imposed which the Convention was aiming at when it required that direct taxes should be apportioned among the States according to census and representation, however much it may have fallen short of its purpose. Now, keeping this central idea in view, does it not rather follow, where such an apportionment would produce inequality, not that such a tax is an indirect one, but that it is a direct tax which Congress has no power to levy—in one word, that the power conferred upon Congress to levy a direct tax is necessarily qualified by the implied proviso that it is such a direct tax as can be equitably apportioned? Whether it is such a tax or not, Congress must in the first instance decide, leaving the ultimate determination of the question to the courts.

It needs no argument to show that indirect taxes cannot be apportioned among the States; hence the substitution of the word uniform for apportionment—both expressions, however, being used to carry out the one central idea which was dominating the mind of the Convention.

A word more upon the subject of uniformity: It is a curious instance of want of uniformity in the act that it compels those who *rent* their family dwellings to return as part of their income the rent they pay out of that income, for which they are allowed no deduction other than the $4,000 exemption, while those who own their residences escape the burden so imposed upon renters. The latter are not required to make any return of the yearly value of their dwellings as part of their income.

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AUGUSTA, GA., March 26, 1895.

THE LATE PROFESSOR BLACKIE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The death of Professor Blackie of Edinburgh must have made many a heart sad, for, though the number grows less and less year by year, still students of his are scattered over the English-speaking world, and every recollection of the dear old man is a loving memory.

He had been transferred from Aberdeen to Edinburgh in the fifties. It was currently supposed among us youngsters that his hereditary theological opinions had been shattered while a student in Germany, and that when he accepted a chair in Aberdeen he signed the Confession of Faith with a pen, but repudiated it with his tongue. However that may be, he was a regular attendant at Dr. Guthrie's church, and a devoted admirer of that great preacher and (better still) human embodiment of gentleness and goodness. Who of us can forget Blackie of a Monday morning, rushing, as was his wont, out of his retiring room on to the platform, shaking his long, straggling locks out of his eyes, and trying to insinuate his awkward, wiry arms into his gown, greeting us with the question, "Gentlemen, did you hear Dr. Guthrie yesterday? He used exactly the same simile as Homer did, and I know he did not copy him."

My introduction to Blackie was away back in those mid-century days. I came from Germany after the session had opened, and applied for admission to his class, but asked for a short respite for the payment of my fee. This he readily granted, filled up my ticket and stuck it into the looking-glass in his retiring-room. Some weeks after, I followed him into his room to pay my debt. He looked over his list and assured me I had paid. I assured him to the contrary, and he protested, till I pointed out my ticket on his mantelpiece. Then, in the exuberance of his pleasure, he literally danced about the room, his gown streaming behind him, and explained that as he had settled his accounts for the year with Mrs. Blackie, here was a clear ten guineas of pocket money to spend as he might think best.

Our weekly treat was the hour he devoted to reading us selections from his translation of Homer—a treat only excelled by Aytoun's recitations of Scottish Ballads, in his lectures on that subject.

Every one knows that Blackie's hobby was admiration for the modern Greek and modern Greek language. He advised us to buy and read modern Greek works. I still have a collection of Greek tracts published by the Religious Tract Society, the only modern Greek literature I could find. Fired by Blackie's enthusiasm, we boys did try to speak Greek to one another out of class hours.

But while inspiring us with his likes and dislikes, no professor had his class under more perfect control. A look or a gesture sufficed to arrest the slightest approach to unruliness, which was only too prevalent in other classes Poor old Pillings still pretended to teach Latin out of his 'Eclogæ,' and fretted and fumed over the insubordination of his class. The more he lectured and rated his class, the more the class enjoyed it. At length a mischievous fellow applauded the close of one of the poor old Professor's tirades by exploding a firecracker. It was impossible to locate the exact point of the explosion, so the old gentleman was foolish enough to tell us that as we issued he would stand at the door and demand of each student on his honor if he were the man. When the critical moment came, there was a rush. The students rushed, old Pillings rushed; but half the class, and of course the culprit, got out before he barred the door.

Academical life was not dignified in old Edinburgh. I wonder whether it is more so now. Not only was it not dignified, it was more or less brutal. Lads were not humane then. The professor of all others in the academical department whose name added lustre to the faculty was the renowned philosopher Sir William Hamilton. His face was as full of dignity and intelligence as ever, when at rest; but the old gentleman was paralyzed. Poverty compelled him to retain his professorship. He was carried into his chair, and his lecture read. Sometimes, however, he could not restrain himself from trying to utter or expand the thoughts which had made him famous. Then the contorted features and broken sentences, which should have moved his audience to tears, only excited to jeers and risibility the young barbarians who filled the benches. It was a pitiable sight and a deplorable exhibition. *Eheu!* how vividly the old quadrangle is photographed on one's memory, and the men, now nearly all shades, students as well as professors, who thronged it!

J. DOUGLAS,
A PRIZE-MAN of 1855–'56.

NEW YORK, March 29, 1895.

THE NEED OF A NEW REVIEW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Kindly permit the passing mention here of my second letter under this caption, held by you several weeks in the hope that others might evince interest, but finally published in the *Citizen* of Philadelphia, the new organ of university extension. The editor of the latter will gladly send the (March) number to any one interested. Numerous concrete illustrations were there offered. But a more sweeping assertion may be ventured.

Let any specialist in literature, history, etc., write a paper of, say, twenty thousand words, upon some larger aspect of his work, in such language and form as he would employ towards his associates in the college faculty, or at a union meeting of learned societies. He will seek in vain for an American editor who will even *read* the essay with a view to publication! (No one knows how many such studies already exist; but from the pigeonholes of a single famous desk, not a hundred leagues from Miss Scott's door, a dozen notable but unpublished Humanistic essays could undoubtedly be extracted.) Such were not the conditions when Longfellow was a professor at Bowdoin. It ought not so to be to-day.

But if founded merely by or for one university, a new review would probably hasten that multiplication of local and special publications which is the plague of German scholarship. Indeed, rivalry would soon repeat the story of the dragon's teeth!

Now it was precisely the earnest study of history and literature that taught our fathers how to create a large and lasting political union. Will professed devotees of those disciplines be slower to learn the same lesson than are our business corporations and creative industries? Must scholars be the last to realize the benefits of combination, correlation, community of interest? It is quite possible for twenty universities and colleges to unite in supporting an institution controlled by none and therefore doubly helpful to all. That, and much more, the American School at Athens has taught us.

But the interest is wider than the universities. There are many thousands of earnest intelligent men and women in America, many of them educated by other experiences than academic life. Has our higher scholarship no large and effective message to them? Are there no results from special research which can be applied to the national and social life of the whole people? If from such an appeal the lover of learning for its own sweet sake would fain turn away with a supercilious smile, let him at least not turn back to the classics, where Cicero will exclaim to him: "Ceteros pudeat, si qui ita se litteris abdiderunt ut nihil possint ex iis ad communem afferre fructum"! Nor will the first sentence of the 'Politics' bring him any comfort from the most learned of ancient scholars.

WILLIAM CRANSTON LAWTON.

3737 LOCUST STREET, PHILADELPHIA.

THE BOOKMAN AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of March 28, I notice a criticism of the new monthly, the *Bookman*, regarding the character of its English. Among the quotations cited to show the bad English is the following: "This novel . . . is laid among the scenes and characters of old Virginia."

The novel referred to is 'Henry Esmond.' The *Bookman* must have been thinking of 'The Virginians.' What would Lowell say to this error? M. L. Langley.

Newport, March 29, 1895.

SACHER-MASOCH'S FIRST NOVELS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Noting the statement in your issue of this week that Sacher-Masoch began to write fiction about twenty years ago, and that 'Kaunitz' (1873) was his first novel, permit me to say that Bornmüller's 'Schriftsteller-Lexicon,' which I have generally found accurate, gives the following titles and dates: 'Eine Galizische Geschichte' (1866), 'Die Geschiedene Frau' (1870), 'Das Vermächtniss Kains,' erster Theil (1870), 'Die Republik der Weiberfeinde' (1872), and 'Maria Theresia und die Freimaurer' (1872). The same authority gives for his first novel published by the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, the date 1871. It is a small matter, but perhaps worth correcting.

William Morton Payne.

Chicago, March 19, 1895.

A GRAMMAR-DICTIONARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Librarians and others frequently have occasion to consult dictionaries of foreign languages of which the grammar is unknown or unfamiliar. In these cases it would be a great convenience if a brief grammar could be prefixed. This grammar should contain tables of declensions and conjugations, lists of irregular verbs, with their principal parts, and the general rules of the language, and might easily be condensed into four to eight pages. Whitney's 'German Dictionary' contains a list of irregular verbs in English and German, and Harrison and Baskerville's 'Anglo-Saxon Dictionary' includes an extended grammar; but with these exceptions I know of none of the commoner dictionaries which have such a help.—Yours truly,

Gardner M. Jones, Librarian.

Salem Public Library,
Salem, Mass., March 30, 1895.

Notes.

Subscriptions may now be sent to the Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, for Dr. Stephen B. Weeks's 'Southern Quakers and Slavery,' a work embracing some 300 pages octavo. Dr. Weeks has just published among the Bibliographical Contributions of Harvard University a very meritorious Bibliography of the Historical Literature of North Carolina—a State in which the Quaker settlements best endured the anti-slavery exodus that helped to people Ohio and Indiana.

Ginn & Co., Boston, promise in the course of the summer 'Money and Banking,' illustrated by American history from the settlement at Jamestown to the present day, by Horace White.

Dr. Horace Howard Furness's Variorum edition of the "Midsummer Night's Dream" is now passing through the press of J. B. Lippincott Co.

Roberts Bros.' announcements for the present month include a 'Life of Prince Bismarck,' by Charles Lowe; Echegaray's 'Mariana,' translated by James Graham; 'Tales of Mean Streets,' by Arthur Morrison; and a 'Handbook on Tuberculosis among Cattle,' by Henry L. Shumway.

Macmillan & Co. give notice that Prof. McCurdy's 'History, Prophecy, and the Monuments,' of which vol. i. has been for some time published, will be completed in two additional volumes instead of one, as contemplated. The same house is about to issue 'Elements of Palæontology,' from the German of Prof. Karl A. von Zittel, by Charles R. Eastman, with 2,000 figures.

The 'Reminiscences' of Bishop Clark of Rhode Island; 'Historic Doubts as to the Execution of Marshal Ney,' by James A. Weston; and 'Civic Christianity,' or the relation of the Church and the individual to the work of social reform, by the Rev. Wm. Prall, D.D., are among the spring publications of Thomas Whittaker.

Henry Holt & Co. have nearly ready 'The Ways of Yale in the Consulship of Plancus,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers.

'Landscape Gardening as applied to Home Decoration,' by Samuel T. Maynard of the Massachusetts State Board of Agriculture, will be brought out by John Wiley & Sons, together with a 'History of Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute,' by Prof. Palmer C. Ricketts, with illustrations.

Frederick A. Stokes Company publish this year 'Under Summer Skies' (Egypt, Palestine, and the Far East) and 'On Sunny Shores' (Greece and Italy), two books of travel by Clinton Scollard, with illustrations by Mrs. Margaret L. Randolph; and 'Thoughts of William Ewart Gladstone,' compiled by G. Barnett Smith.

'The Major's Favorite,' by John Strange Winter, will be issued by J. Selwin Tait & Sons in a few days. The same house will shortly publish the first of its "Zenda" series of graphic copyright fiction.

Estes & Lauriat, Boston, issue directly Charles Nodier's story of 'Trilby, the Fairy of Argyle' (1822), translated by Nathan Haskell Dole.

Another political novel, 'Senator Intrigue and Inspector Noseby: A Tale of Spoils,' by Frances Campbell Sparhawk, will bear the imprint of the Red-Letter Publishing Co., Boston.

We are informed that all of Prof. Arber's publications, with the exception of the 'Transcript of the Stationers' Registers,' have been taken over by Archibald Constable & Co., London, who in future will be sole publishers of them.

A second edition of Lady Jeune's 'Lesser Questions,' which we reviewed at length some months ago, has just been put on the American market by Dodd, Mead & Co. It affords much food for wholesome reflection.

'The Military Career of Napoleon the Great,' by Montgomery B. Gibbs (Chicago: Werner Co.), is one of the hero-worshipping volumes, happily less numerous than they once were. Apocryphal anecdotes are collected with care, and authentic ones are distorted and colored to brighten the glories of the idol. His unscrupulous personal ambition is represented as patriotic devotion to France, and his crimes, like his *coup d'état* of Brumaire and his seizure of the Spanish royal family, are described as innocent acts. Gross blunders are made in history, and absurdities occur in battle-descriptions, so that the general result may fairly be called a sensational romance.

Of a very different sort is another Chicago publication (A. C. McClurg & Co.), 'Napoleon Bonaparte's First Campaign,' by Lieut. Sargent, Second United States Cavalry. This is a history of the famous campaign of Italy in 1796, analyzed for the use of military students. The work is so clearly done, and the sketch-maps so well illustrate the successive stages of the campaign, that the general reader can follow the story with satisfaction, and understand wherein Bonaparte was really great. A fuller system of foot-note references to authorities would add much to the value of the little volume for students' use.

The first volume of the Transactions of the Jewish Historical Society of England contains several scholarly essays, the most notable of which are C. Trice Martin's "Domus Conversorum," Joseph Jacobs's "Little St. Hugh of Lincoln," and Lucien Wolf's "Cryto-Jews under the Commonwealth." The volume is well printed and has some excellent illustrations, including many facsimiles of old documents. In his inaugural address, delivered on November 11, 1893, the president says: "We were told that Anglo-Jewish history was a very small affair, that it was not likely to add much to the general history of our race, and that it would throw no light on the annals of our country." Such statements betray ignorance of the contents of the Jewish records in the Public Record Office. The existence of the Jewish Plea Rolls of the thirteenth century would in itself justify the foundation of this Society, and their publication would throw much light on the general constitutional and social history of England. The volume before us should dispel all doubts regarding the *raison d'être* of the Society.

'Lovell's Gazetteer of British North America' (Montreal: John Lovell & Son) is a revision and extension of the original issue of 1881, and the territorial development in the meantime has fully warranted the labor of overhauling. The work consists of two chief parts, the gazetteer proper, and a so-called "Table of Routes," or one line directory of places, showing the country or district and province in which each is situated, and the most convenient points from which it is accessible by railroad or steamer; a key to the appropriate route being furnished elsewhere. This is a very convenient feature. The key further exhibits the stations on the line of each road, with distances in miles. The publisher tries to take a cheerful view of the material prospects of the Dominion, yet is forced to regret its slow increase in population—only 600,000 from 1881 to 1891, and the total in the latter year falling short of 5,000,000. One must accordingly do some serious reading between the lines when he encounters a list two and a half pages long of "railways subsidized by the Parliament of Canada," ranging from 2,000 miles down to three! Half-a-dozen maps of the principal divisions of the Dominion would much have heightened the value of this Gazetteer, especially for sportsmen, to whom the compiler has purposely catered.

Ginn & Co. publish a thin volume, by William Ordway Partridge, entitled 'The Technique of Sculpture.' The first half of it is devoted to "History," and we can conceive of no one to whom it would be of use. The second half is devoted to "Practice," and this part contains some practical directions which might prove useful to any one so ill-advised or unfor-

tunate as to attempt the study of modelling without a master. Directions for setting up a skeleton or for making a piece-mould do not, however, constitute a treatise on the "technique of sculpture," even when accompanied by vague remarks about the ideal or recommendations to study phrenology.

'Physiology for Beginners' (Macmillan) is stated in the preface to have been supervised by Professor Michael Foster, but actually written by his senior demonstrator, Dr. L. E. Shore. A commendable feature is the prominence given to demonstrations and to the examination of the viscera of some animal by the student himself. But there are many and considerable defects in the text and illustrations in view of the announcement that the work is "intended for those who have no previous knowledge of the subject." For example, on p. 78 the pupil is told to place a sheep's heart for study so that the apex is away from him; but on the opposite page the organ is represented with the apex toward him. One of the two most important and obvious differences between the human and sheep's hearts is the presence in the latter of a moderator band; yet this is neither mentioned nor shown in the figures. Why, too, should the text be continually burdened by the word *called* before the commonly accepted names of the several organs? It is refreshing to note the omission of the perfunctory, inadequate, and misleading chapters on stimulants and narcotics that characterize most of the recent American text-books; but the ideal 'Physiology for Beginners' has yet to be written.

The subject of perfumes in the vegetable kingdom is treated of pleasantly, though not in a very learned way, in Donald McDonald's 'Sweet-Scented Flowers and Fragrant Leaves' (Scribners). The book contains a rambling "historical sketch" of the general subject, redolent of jonquils, wallflowers, and roses, followed by an alphabetical list, 136 pages long, of sweet-smelling plants. Many of the names are coupled with more or less interesting remarks, sometimes about the nature or the cultivation of the plant, sometimes as to the character of the odor. Under the word "Rosa" is a long and fairly well digested account of roses, in which some of the most highly scented varieties are specially mentioned. Sixteen colored lithographs adorn the book, mostly well selected, as the Maréchal Niel for a rose; but to give a figure of a commonly cultivated Asiatic magnolia, and call it in the list of illustrations *Magnolia grandiflora*, is surely an injustice to one of the very noblest blossoms of the American forest.

On April 1, when Bismarck completed his four-score years, a volume entitled 'Neue Tischgespräche des Fürsten Bismarck,' by Heinrich von Poschinger, was to be published by the Deutsche Verlagsanstalt in Stuttgart and Berlin. If the extracts from this work which form the leading paper in the February number of the *Deutsche Revue* may be taken as a fair specimen of its contents, the book promises to be an amusing, though from an historical point of view not particularly valuable, contribution to contemporary Bismarckiana.

Tourists who can read German, and who have an ocean journey to make, may well possess themselves of Justus Perthes's pocket 'Sea-Atlas' (New York: Westermann), which aims to answer exactly, yet in a manner clear to the ordinary mind, questions likely to be asked as to sea terms, observations, rate of speed, signals, rules of the sea, lighthouses, tides, winds, storms, etc., etc. Besides explanations and tables on these heads, there are numerous maps of winds and currents and temperature, and a great many harbor-charts. Two scales have, almost without exception, been used, and make comparisons easy. The little book should be a relief to the tedium of the voyage.

Mr. Edward W. James, whose valuable contributions to the *William and Mary Quarterly* we have from time to time noticed, has begun publication of an elegantly printed *Lower Norfolk County (Va.) Antiquary*. The only definite announcement about it is, that it "is intended for the purpose of making known and perpetuating the history of this section; and as the editor and proprietor is doing this exclusively for his own pleasure, there will be no notes and no queries—no questions asked and none answered." Still, as librarians who may desire a file of the *Antiquary* will have to put a question as to terms and conditions to Mr. James, we will mention his address, which is 824 Park Avenue, Richmond. He prints the censuses of slave-owners and slave-holdings or hirings in Princess Anne County for 1771–1774 and 1860, the defects of the latest record being occasionally supplied by personal testimony that a certain person "at the emancipation proclamation" owned 19 slaves, and another "lost 17 by the *war*." He also copies the will of Elizabeth Kelsick, in which bequests of negroes and of plate run side by side. Much space is given to the inception of the Norfolk Academy in 1761, and to troubles with its master in 1796. There are many genealogical and historical foot-notes showing wide research. The whole number is very readable and instructive.

The March *Portfolio* (Macmillan) is devoted to 'Claude Lorrain.' Mr. George Grahame takes a somewhat insular view of his subject, and discusses Ruskin and Turner a little more than seems necessary to a non-British reader, while he fails to note Claude's influence on the greatest of modern landscape-painters, Corot; but he succeeds in giving a not unfair account of Claude's place in art, and a notion of the quality of his very artificial charm. The illustrations are, as usual in this publication, excellent.

There is a very timely account of the Island of Formosa in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for February. The interior is apparently still but little known, the Chinese authority being limited to the western coast-country, the extreme northern part, and a narrow strip of the east coast. The Chinese are gradually working their way inland, cutting down the forests and replacing them with indigo and tea plantations. Much of the soil is extraordinarily fertile. In some places there are three rice-harvests in the year, and tea-leaves are picked three times—"in many places, indeed, seven times"—a year. Anthracite coal of good quality is found in large quantities and close to the sea, a thing of great importance to a maritime power like Japan. Alluvial gold has also been discovered in the beds of some of the northern streams. The Chinese have built a railroad from the port of Kelung a distance of about 100 miles, to a town near the west coast. An excellent map accompanies the article. There is also a reproduction of the Government map showing the extent of malaria in Italy, and constructed from the death returns for the three years 1890–'92. During this time the deaths from malaria numbered 49,407, or 54 in 100,000. The disease is confined almost entirely to the part south of the latitude of Rome, though only six of the sixty-nine provinces are wholly free from it. Sardinia and Sicily suffer the most, the death-rate from malaria being 8 in every 1,000. Rome is rapidly improving, the number of deaths having fallen from 650 in 1881 to 189 in 1893, notwithstanding the great increase in population.

Léon G. Pélissier's article, "La Matière et les Matériaux de l'Histoire du Premier Empire," in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for February, is a succinct exposition of the principal divisions of the subject-matter claiming the attention of the historian of the epoch, followed by a discriminating survey of the material at his disposal. The distinctive character of this "drame de dix ans" and its actors, the novel and exceptional phenomenon presented by the imperial court and family, the diverse elements and changing ideals of the armies, are drawn in clear outlines. In his estimation of the historical literature of the epoch the writer points out the influences and motives determining the character of the publications previous to 1880, about which time, in consequence of causes partly indicated in the essay, a new phase, "purely and strictly scientific," of Napoleonic literature begins. The same number of the *Revue* contains that part of a report by M. Georges Blondel to the minister of education which treats of the work in the social sciences done in the German universities.

Two documents, both reprints, lately issued by the Bureau of Education (Nos. 214, 215), sum up the present condition of the interesting experiment of domesticating reindeer in Alaska, of which we have heretofore taken notice. One is the report on education in that Territory (1891-'92), by Dr. Sheldon Jackson, the General Agent; the other is his report (1894) on the introduction of the deer. Many of the numerous illustrations are common to both. The matter is good reading, and the prospect, if only whiskey can be banished, is very cheering.

We have received from F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, his panel photographic portrait of the late Richard Vaux of that city, a man of exceptionally varied experience in law, diplomacy, legislation, and executive authority. The likeness displays the well-known eccentricity of the ex-mayor's personal appearance, and gives a remarkable impression of virility.

At two meetings of the "Congregation of the University of Oxford" held after the one reported upon in the *Nation* of February 28, the statute establishing the new (post-graduate) degrees of *B.Litt.* and *B.Sc.* has taken what will be its final shape. Technically the new degrees are not yet established, for the statute as amended has still to be voted upon by the "Convocation of the University of Oxford." "Convocation" includes not only the 436 Masters of Arts in residence who constitute "Congregation," but practically all others who hold that degree. As a matter of fact, Convocation is sure to pass a statute like the one now in question, since there is the greatest possible unanimity in favor of it. The most important of the new amendments lately passed to the statute is the one cutting down the period of residence required from three to two years. It was held that at least two years' residence must be demanded for the new Oxford degrees, no matter what work may have been done or what degree may have been taken elsewhere, because no satisfactory scheme of advanced work could be framed for a year. Throughout the discussions at the three meetings of Congregation, there was a constant preoccupation with possible candidates who might be tempted by the new de-

grees to resort to Oxford from the American universities.

—In lieu of the frequent meritorious and needful article that prods the reluctant patriot, the *Atlantic* presents this month a triplet of papers admirably adapted to stir patriotic sentiment at its springs and sources. A war episode is what is, perhaps, least of all suggested by the title of a short poem, "While the Robins Sang." Nevertheless, the reader finds one in it, told in Tennysonian vein and measure, with some of the softening and mellowing associations with nature that lift it towards the rank of poetic legend that wears. Mrs. Earle's "Flower Lore of New England Children" shows, if one chooses so to look at it, when and where the finer instincts of nationality may be bred in the bone; while a tale, "Dumb Foxglove," by Annie Trumbull Slosson, of the plain folk of New England, falls not far short of dissolving the eye into ecstasy of pity touched with admiration. Dr. Birkbeck Hill again proves one of the pleasant uses of leisure that has been earned by scholarly labor, by lingering with the reader, in "A Talk over Autographs," among those in his own large collection, as well as among his equally ample reminiscences of some of their writers. An interesting study of *Macbeth*, by John Foster Kirk, is built not upon the scaffolding of Shaksperian glossaries and grammars, but upon the basis of an understanding of the natural ways of flesh and blood. Therefore, although its writer's reading is wide enough to bring to bear on it powers of comprehension that are freely used, this is a piece of literary criticism through which the *Macbeths*—for the study is of the pair—lose nothing in human reality, while their motives of action and shades of character gain skilful interpretation. But the article *par excellence* of the month will undoubtedly seem to many readers C. T. Copeland's "Robert Louis Stevenson." An enthusiasm at once so discreet and so ardent needed only the finished form of expression it has found here to render it complete. Elizabeth Stuart Phelps and Gilbert Parker continue to fill the space allotted to serials.

—In the *Century* the altitude of two bright particular stars in the artistic heavens—the one Mme. Réjane, the other Bernhard Stavenhagen—is briefly but excellently taken by Justin Huntly McCarthy and by Henry T. Finck. Mr. Finck gives an interesting outline of past conditions of piano-playing, and makes his criticism comprehensive enough to be of some measure of service to the reader who wishes to increase his pleasure in beautiful music by an intelligent appreciation of the principles on which its beauties rest. Excellent likenesses also accompany each of these papers. A somewhat sensational interest attaches to the seriously scientific article by Thomas Commerford Martin on the recent electrical work of Nikola Tesla, inasmuch as on March 13 Tesla's laboratory was destroyed by fire, leaving the illustrations to this article the only record of some of his experiments. Among these, photography by phosphorescence lends itself best to popular illustration and description. Readers with a taste for articles of adventure founded on facts will find no stint of either in the lengthy account of our former privateering compatriot, Paul Jones. A liberal number of pictures support the interest of this narrative, which is signed Molly Elliot Seawell. Other readers, who object to taking their fiction with interruptions, will, after next month, be able to follow Mrs. Burton Harrison's 'Errant Wooing' from beginning to end without pause. Mr. Crawford's 'Casa Braccio' and the Life of Napoleon will, on the contrary, still continue their monthly course.

—Notwithstanding the fair promise held out by names on its title-page, a search through *Scribner's* for pictures or papers above mediocrity proves somewhat delusive. Mr. Abbey contributes to the numerous Easter illustrations, and Mr. Lang writes of Prince Charles Stuart. The latter, however, fills a generous number of pages with an accretion of details, in a fashion that better represents the painstaking methods of an historical "Seminar" than his own particular powers of literary fusion or luminous presentment of individuals. Mr. Abbey's subject, representing an old English custom of the queen and her ladies creeping "with dyvers giftes of egges and apples" to the foot of the cross on Good Friday, is admirably chosen; his picture, unfortunately, is void of the spirited qualities of life and action usually to be found in his work. It is not surprising that the part of the month's instalment of Robert Grant's 'Art of Living' which turns upon the effects of a college education for daughters, should, though liberal in view, be lacking in novelty. A subject that has been so done to death in print probably needs a timely rest to recruit its exhausted vitality. But the duty of men of means and social position to practise the doctrine of democratic equality in the schooling of their sons is a comparatively dormant question of education, which Mr. Grant vigorously rouses. The withholding of the sons of such men from the public schools is discussed in relation to the welfare of the sons themselves, of the community, and of the public. Boarding-schools, their Anglicizing tendencies, and their advantages and disadvantages for prospective American citizens, also come in for a share of sensible comment.

—An allied topic is wisely treated in the Editor's Study of *Harper's*, under the heading "Social Position of Teachers." It is instructive to notice that while Mr. Grant finds in the anxious but selfish mothers of the well-to-do classes the potent enemies of the public schools, Mr. Warner likewise arraigns women of the same class as the force inimical to the social claims of teachers of their own sex. This is evidence of the encouraging type that tends to make a strong case against the parties accused. Of this number's two articles of practical import, one is on "Recent Progress in the Public Schools," by the Commissioner of Education; the other deals with the portion of population that is not affected by schools or their methods. Unpretending as is this second article, "Club Life among Outcasts," by Josiah Flynt, it deserves a widespread circulation. Especially is its place in the hands of members of settlements and workers in the slums of all shades and varieties. Philanthropic effort and brotherly influences are in no wise met by discouragement, but levels of humanity whither, the writer claims, these must be preceded by law and government, punishment and sequestration, are described from the standpoint of an acquaintance gained by drastic means, and sufficiently intimate to give weight to the author's views. Arthur Symons has handled his paper, "Venice in Easter," with capital literary skill. The reader accustomed, however, to accept the City of the Doges in the serious mood of a Ruskinite will have to stretch his catholicity of taste to its limits to include a liking for these decadent "impressions and sensations." The leading article, "Our National Capital," is composed in the style that the magazine might safely leave in undisputed possession to the newspaper.

—In the February number of *Nord und Süd* (of which Paul Lindau is still the editor), J. B. Horn has an interesting article on Wagner's "Meistersinger," apropos of the Hans Sachs celebration. Thirty years ago, he points out, the prolific cobbler-poet was known to Germans only through histories of literature. To-day his name and personality are as familiar as those of any historic personage. Wagner's humorous opera has done for him what the historians and philologists could never have accomplished. Herr Horn gives the history of this opera, and shows how Wagner altered and improved it in successive versions before it was wedded finally to the music. His basis of comparison is chiefly the facsimile of the first version of the poem which B. Schott of Mainz issued to celebrate the twenty-fifth anniversary of the opera's first performance at Munich. The publishers also placed at Herr Horn's disposal a number of letters written to them by Wagner in 1861 and 1862. In one of these he says, in regard to his "Meistersinger" plan: "The subject involves a good deal of sentiment and drollery (*viel gemüthlich-Drolliges*), and I pride myself on having hit upon something entirely unexpected and unique in this entirely original conception of mine. Its style, in the poem as in the music, is to be thoroughly easy and popular, and its prompt success on the stage will be further insured by the circumstance that this time I need neither a so-called first tenor nor a great tragic soprano." It is well known that Wagner conceived and sketched the plot of his only comic opera as early as 1845; and in 1861 he wrote that he had postponed this merry work in the belief that he would be more disposed to carry it out in the serene atmosphere of old age. His method of composition is illustrated by the remark made in January, 1862, "The music is already complete in my head," where it remained in part till the completion of the score in October, 1867.

—Prof. Reuter of the Christianeum of Altona, whose valuable contributions to the study of Rückert we mentioned a year ago, now gives us in the "Yearly Programme" of that institution another batch of information on the poet's private life, largely from hitherto unpublished letters of Rückert himself. These letters, covering the last years of Rückert's stay at Erlangen and the first years of his connection with the University of Berlin, are interesting chiefly from the pathological point of view. They show a man who, hemmed in by narrow surroundings, oppressed by bodily sufferings, soured by the discrepancy between his inner riches and his outer limitations, has lost his native elasticity, so that he fails at the very moment when he is called to a larger and more suitable sphere of action. It is hard to recognize here the poet of the "Geharnischte Sonnette"; and it is truly pitiful to read such a reflection as the following, written in the first year of his stay at Berlin: "My position here is perfectly untenable and inane, and I must try to get out of it and back to my former solitude. Schelling has monopolized the interest of the public, and the King is entirely bewitched by Tieck. If the curious crowd which thronged into my first lecture had only received me with some token of recognition, I might have gone into it with some zest. As it is, I strike my sails." No wonder that the last twenty-five years of Rückert's life ripened so little poetic fruit. His work was done when he finished 'Die Weisheit des Brahmanen.'

—The third volume of the collected writings of Ludwig Bamberger is entitled 'Politische Schriften von 1848 bis 1868' (Berlin: Rosenbaum & Hart), and consists of newspaper and magazine articles setting forth the aspirations for German freedom and unity cherished by the uncompromising Liberal party that inaugurated the Revolution of 1848. The achievement of German unity by far different methods and with far different aims has tended to discredit those early strivings, and to give a grotesque air to much of the ardent writings in which they found expression. Bamberger's articles, however, are so impressive by reason of their evident sincerity, and so attractive by virtue of their literary finish, that their republication cannot fail in some measure to rehabilitate, in the eyes of the present generation, the generous if misguided aspirations of the handful of ardent patriots who threw themselves into the hopeless struggles of those distant years. Some of the causes of their rapid failure are clearly sketched in Bamberger's graphic account of the rising in the Palatinate in May and June, 1849. The incompetence of the leaders and their lack of material resources were so great that the revolt could have been crushed in a week if the Governments had not been frightened out of their wits and had not immensely overestimated the strength of their assailants. The volume concludes with the original French version of the articles on Bismarck which appeared in the *Revue Moderne* in February, 1867, and at once gave Bamberger a European reputation.

—At Stationers' Hall, London, the International Society of Wood-Engravers—as the English Society calls itself—has just been holding an exhibition of its members' work. The show came at an opportune moment, for in England much has recently been heard, from certain quarters, of the depressed condition of the art and the chance of its complete disappearance in the immediate future. Altogether, to one who has only read the articles that have been written, the wood-engraver might already seem as doomed as the dodo. But the exhibition explained that wherever the evil lies, it is not with the wood-engravers themselves. A correspondent writes to us:

"From the large engraving departments of houses like Cassell's and the *Graphic*, strong and exquisite work on the wood is still turned out. There are independent engravers like Mr. Donner, whose block after Titian's 'Bacchus and Ariadne' approaches even Mr. Cole's Old Masters; like Mr. Whymper, whose engravings for his 'Scrambles among the Alps' will always make that volume a prize to the collector of this century's good illustrated books; like Mr. Biscombe Gardner, who is following the example of Kruell in publishing his engravings separately, without text: like Mr. Babbage. and still others, whose names, however, are but names unfortunately to the multitude. All these men exhibited in Stationers' Hall. There was also one block by Cole; there were also specimens of the really excellent color-printing done by Bong, the German, for *Moderne Kunst*, now published in London in an English edition. If the designs for this magazine are commonplace and, at times, somewhat vulgar, the fault is not the engravers', and, certainly, engraving and printing have both reached a very high degree of technical perfection. The absence of cheap work from the collection seemed to explain the influence 'process' has had upon the trade, though not upon the art. The cheap wood engraver cannot compete with process, but his eventual disappearance is scarce to be regretted. On the other hand, as yet half-tone process cannot touch, in measure of accomplishment, the really fine wood-engraving—a fact which is fast being realized now that the first transports over process have been modified by time. Even in France, where the Guillaume process had for a while such a vogue, there is seen on every side a return to wood-engraving. In England the signs of return are not so marked as in the United States, though, singularly enough, a sixpenny publication like the *Idler* has begun to use wood blocks. Some houses, that have their own staff of engravers, are apt to put their best work into the hands of foreigners. And the great majority of publishers prize cheapness so much above excellence that a bad process block has far more charm for them than a good engraving. There are exceptions, of course."

GRIFFIS'S RELIGIONS OF JAPAN.

The Religions of Japan. By W. E. Griffis, D.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

THIS work enjoys the advantage of meeting a want not only long felt, but expressed. The religions concerned are three: Shinto, the ethnic cult, with Confucianism and Buddhism, both imported though fully naturalized faiths. The first of these religions an authority like C. P. Tiele declined to treat in 1877, for want of reliable data ('History of Ancient Religions,' x.). Ten years later C. Saussaye ventured a page on the basis of the same rejected data, and necessarily with indifferent success. The better authorities tabulated two years later in his second volume of the 'Religionsgeschichte' came too late to aid the account in the first, of course. No other writer at once accessible and reliable has since attempted an account of Shinto. With Japan's other two religions, Confucianism and Buddhism, the case has been yet worse. No accredited writer has so much as attempted them, and students have been left with the natural though false notion that the Japanese forms simply reproduced the Chinese recently become familiar to us.

Dr. Griffis, then, undertook the much-needed task of coördinating the varied special treatises now accessible, and brought to it an invaluable preparation of personal acquaintance for four years with the faiths described. The result is in general an excellent compendium of the religions of Japan, which must come into immediate and general demand, and of which every future treatment must take account. As to the contents, let no one imagine that Japan is in religion, any more than in art and politics, a mere replica of her congener on the mainland. Upon all three of her religions—native and imported alike—Japan has set the stamp of her peculiar genius, much to the mortification of her elder, China, who, like some other countries, is much averse to being improved upon.

The almost total strangeness of the Japanese religious field to the Western reader calls for a specification of the characteristic facts described in the work before us. First as to Shinto. Here most students will for the first time learn that phallicism has prevailed in far-Oriental Japan, though all previous accounts of it have given India as its eastern limit. The requirements of a book meant for general circulation excluded much no doubt known to the author on this subject, and he refers (p. 381) the reader desirous of details to a monograph by Dr. Edmund Buckley of the University of Chicago entitled 'Phallicism in Japan,' and now ready at the University of Chicago Press. Another feature of special interest is the account of the fusion of Mikadoism, or belief in the Mikado's divine descent, with sun-worship, in order to confirm by religious supremacy that military ascendancy which the invading Mikado's tribe had won over earlier settlers. The specialist in hierology will note the bearing of this fact upon the present advocacy by H. Spencer, C. P. Tiele, and others less known of animism as the sole source of religion; for here is an animistic Mikadoism attached as something inferior to a widely spread, unquestioned and *independent* sun worship which shows no sign of an earlier derivation from aught else, and therefore points to naturism as a principle of religious origins coördinate with animism, as Max Müller, Saussaye, and others contend. Next comes a specimen or two of the very peculiar Shinto rituals, and a partial account of the myths and morals of the 'Kojiki,' the chief Shinto scripture. Of these rituals, that for the "purification of offences" has an obvious value in its bearing on the problem of expiation in general. Last we note an account of the very instructive phenomenon of arrested development caused in this case by the advent of Buddhism.

The treatment of Confucianism in Japan affords a rare insight into the mainsprings of the every-day life of the Japanese; for the to us exceedingly strange mutual toleration and even reciprocity of the three Japanese religions assigned secular morality to the charge of Confucianism, while the future world was provided for by Buddhism, and the past world cosmologically explained by Shinto. It appears that Confucianism bore in Japan its well-known Chinese fruits of servile obedience from inferiors, with unhampered control by superiors, an obsolescent form of which the modern traveller sees and admires in the exquisite politeness of even the poorest Japanese, while he knows nothing of the frightful cost at which it was secured. The duties of the "five relations" of society which form the essence of this Confucianism are stated and contrasted with the ethics of Christianity. Of the admissibility of such contrast no doubt can remain after reading the specifications here made, though judgment as to its degree will naturally vary. Whether the relation examined be that of sovereign and minister, of father and son, of husband and wife, of older and younger brother, or of friend and friend, it appears plain that while the *words* are mostly the same, the ideas connoted sometimes differ so much as to prove repugnant to us. Occasionally the words used reveal the difference, as in the case where the Japanese language contains no equivalent for brother, but always adds the important element of older or younger; and again where chastity must be translated by *teiso* or *misao*, both, however, meaning *womanly* virtue. "A circumlocution is needed to express the idea of a chaste man." This imperfectly developed Chinese morality took a downward step in Japan when, in accord with the old Mikadoism, it made the first relation—extended to include retainer and lord—paramount over the other four, even that filial relation which dominates in China. This change occasioned such bloody results that "no Moloch or Shiva has won more votaries to his shrine." The Confucianism that from the seventeenth century opposed Buddhism and dominated the *samurai* (literary and military) class was the medley made by Chu Hi, "the ethics of Confucius transfused with the mystical elements of Taoism and the speculations of Buddhism."

While but 97 pages are devoted to Shinto and only 54 to Confucianism, 170 are assigned to Buddhism, and this distribution, which is fair, indicates the salient fact that Buddhism has so far dominated Japan that on the whole Japan, with both its good and its evil, must be declared a Buddhist country. Here the introduction and growth of the religion, retaining the name but so little of the teaching of its

famous Indian founder, are sketched in striking colors. Noticeable are the facts that here, as in India, Buddhism early won the allegiance of the court, whence influence and wealth accrued, and that conquest of the people was further much facilitated by that appropriation of the Shinto cult and property which modern Shinto reformers stigmatize as simple robbery. This latter course, so characteristic everywhere of Buddhism, took chief shape in the formation of a sect named Ryōbu, "two faced," in which, on pantheistic principles, hundreds of the myriad Shinto deities were catalogued, under the term Gon-gen, as temporary manifestations of some Buddha; Amaterasu, regent of the Shinto pantheon, herself becoming an incarnation of Amida.

Of the twelve Buddhist sects introduced into or developed in Japan, five of the earliest group have long since disappeared, while the sixth is unimportant, the two mediæval sects called Tendai and Shingon are still powerful, and three of the four modern—*i. e.*, twelfth- and thirteenth-century sects, called Jōdō, Shin, and Nichiren—claim special attention as Japanese transformations of the Buddhist faith. The Tendai is philosophical, pantheistic, and Jesuitical, the Shingon is mystic and esoteric, a certain Zen sect, belonging to the modern group, reacts from expression in ceremony and scripture, and declares for the principle, "Look carefully within and there you will find the Buddha."

The three Japanese sects show the common trait of "universalism and democracy," though the Nichiren approximates to Romanism and the Jōdō and Shin Shu to Protestantism. While the Jōdō rather caricatures Protestantism, the Shin Shu so nearly approaches it that surprise amounting to shock certainly awaits the learner in this field. Those who have long relished the remarkable parallels between Buddhism and Romanism will find those between Buddhism (as Shin Shu) and Protestantism equally remarkable, though to them no doubt less appetizing. But truth must shine forth all the brighter, whatever happens to Romanism or Protestantism. Justification by faith alone, instantaneous conversion and sanctification, searching the scriptures, morality as important as and indeed the proof of faith, city evangelization, home and foreign missions, combined with rejection of penance, of fasting, of food-proscriptions, of pilgrimages, of monasticism and of amulets, conspicuously distinguish the Shin Shu or "Tree Sect" from every other Buddhist sect outside or inside Japan. The Buddhist Luther, by name Shinran Shōnin, promulgated his doctrines 1203 A. D. Shin Shu is by far the most numerous sect in Japan, and, what is most important of all, seems not incapable of further reform under the new influence of Christianity.

The account of Buddhism concludes with a chapter on its vast influence as a civilizing force in Japan, and traces to its doctrine of *karma* that spirit of hopeless resignation so characteristic of the East. The characteristic traits of Christianity and Buddhism are strikingly contrasted in one passage (p. 307):

> "'As sad as a temple bell' is the coinage of popular speech; . . . whereas the general associations of the Christian spire and belfry, apart from the note of time, are those of joy, invitation, and good news, those of the tongueless and log struck bells of Buddhism are sombre and saddening. 'As merry as a marriage-bell' could never be said of the boom from a Buddhist temple, even though it pour waves of sound through sunny leagues. There is a vast difference between the peal and play of the chimes of Europe and the liquid melody which floods the landscape of Chinese Asia. The one music, high in air, seems ever to tell of faith, triumph, and aspiration; the other, in minor notes, from bells hung low on yokes, perpetually echoes the despair of pessimism, the folly of living, and the joy that anticipates its end."

The book closes with an account of the century of Roman Christianity in Japan, and resultant two centuries of exclusion of all foreigners except the Dutch to a very limited extent.

It remains to indicate some limitations and errors which might misguide those not having access to the sources. First, then, the treatment of Shinto rather suggests than supplies the need for a technical account of that cult. Of 'Kojiki' and 'Yengishiki' only stray excerpts and not complete analyses are given, while no interpretation of either is attempted (p. 66), though eclipse, rain-storm, moon, and lightning form the bases of very neat myths never yet disentangled from their context. Mr. Percival Lowell's recent valuable discovery of trance-possession in Shinto should have been embodied in the work. No account of the leading figures in the Shinto pantheon is given, nor are Shinto magic and divination alluded to. The exceeding polygamy of the ancient rulers even with paternal sisters is overlooked, the unique shrines of the Sun-goddess and Moon-god are not described, nor the remarkable communion service called *kagura* as performed at these shrines. Plant and animal worship are illustrated but not described. Many or all of these topics were no doubt excluded by the scope of the book and the Morse lectures which it records, but not the less need pointing out. A *handbook* of Shinto, therefore, remains as much a desideratum as ever.

As respects Confucianism, a fuller account of the 'Teishu' from the sources will better ground insight into this so influential factor in Japanese life. The treatment of Buddhism is untechnical, but good; and especially worthy of commendation, both from the polemic and scientific standpoint, is that fairness which enables the author to both see and state the Christian parallels for what have too often been regarded as follies peculiar to Buddhism.

The following we judge to be palpable errors: "Shamanism or Animism," p. 15, whereas shamanism is not conterminous with, but only one of the myriad forms of, animism. "And if, etc.," p. 16, whereas animism is not a "more exact," but only more general, term than shamanism. The amulet is wrongly considered a fetish, p. 24, since it belongs to magic, being a pledge of the guardianship (Jap. *marmori*) of the deity, whose name it bears (cf. Saussaye's 'Religionsgeschichte,' i, 43–4). The account of the creative pair given on p. 64 is a phallic myth garbled *without warning* for polite presentation. Dr. Murray, in his recent 'Story of Japan,' sinned yet more against science, for he garbled the same myth after premising, p. 36, that "the only way to treat history is to give its early legends in as nearly the form in which they had been handed down as possible." The dragon referred to on p. 75, note 23, should have been interpreted as the fire-fiend it really is. On page 85 the coition hut should have been cited along with the parturition hut and the hut for the dying, which last should, according to 'Kojiki,' p. 97, be hut for the *dead*. The error on p. 103, whereby Confucius is represented as a student of the 'Hsiao King,' which very book records conversations between himself and Zang-Zze ('Sacred Books of the East,' iii., 451), is plain enough. To the King mentioned should be added Li Ki and Khun Khiu. The confident assertion on p. 103 that "the pre-Confucian faith was monotheistic" is sure to mislead the inexpert. With such scholars as C. P. Tiele and A. Reville holding strenuously to the opposite view, all talk about "almost universal agreement" is unjustified (cf. Reville's 'La Religion Chinoise,' p. 127). The introduction of the Japanese form Shaka is an anachronism at p. 160, and Gautama, the Buddha, was of the Sakya clan, not, as stated in the text, of the Muni clan. Muni means 'sage,' and Sakya muni 'sage of the Sakyas.' The erroneous substitution of Fudo for Kwannon on p. 279, was probably a pure mishap, since the idol is well known to all in Japan. The calyx of the lotus specified on p. 303 should be torus, or receptacle. We can recall no case in which Shaka's image occupies the centre of a Japanese temple, as stated on p. 303. Indeed, even small images of the founder of Buddhism, as of Maitreya (Jap. Miroku), the original Bodhisatva (Jap. Bosatsu), are uncommon.

That an early second edition will allow opportunity for the correction or vindication of these citations, we cannot doubt. It is, moreover, much to be hoped that this book will prove an incentive to other scholars in and out of Japan, applying rigider methods and more technical data, to devote an entire treatise to each of the religions here sketched in one.

SIR ROBERT DUDLEY.

Life of Sir Robert Dudley, Earl of Warwick and Duke of Northumberland. By John Temple Leader, M.P. for Bridgewater from 1835 to 1837, and for Westminster from 1837 to 1847, Knight Commander of the Order of the Crown of Italy. Illustrated with Letters and Documents from original sources, collected by the author and hitherto inedited. Florence : G. Barbèra.

The union of heroic action with intellectual culture and aspiration characteristic of the Elizabethan era, which is so conspicuous in Raleigh and Sir Philip Sydney, shows itself not less remarkably in the subject of this biography, Sir Robert Dudley, who styled himself Earl of Warwick and Duke of Northumberland. Dudley set out as a soldier, but, his biographer tells us, "had from his youth a natural sympathy for the sea"—perhaps, we may add, for the cargoes of vessels navigating the sea, since in him, as in most of his compeers, there was manifestly a strain of the buccaneer. In 1594, when only twenty-one, he made a voyage of discovery in which, though he failed to find his way to an empire the people of which powdered themselves with gold-dust, he discovered Guiana, took Trinidad, and captured prizes. In a subsequent voyage of discovery and plunder he, in a small vessel with a crew reduced by sickness, fought a great Spanish ship for two days, and left her in a sinking condition. Other daring actions followed. In 1596 Dudley, in the absence of his uncle, the Earl of Nottingham, who was High Admiral, took the command of the English fleet; and in the year following he commanded the vanguard in the battle of Cadiz. At the same time he was profoundly studying the art and theory of navigation. He was one of the first to adopt sailing by great circles, and he constructed an elaborate instrument for finding the tides. He was a scientific ship-builder and the master of the art of fortification. He was a mathematician, and wrote on perspective. Medicine did not escape him, and he naturally produced a universal remedy. He was at the same time an

economist and a politician, though in the latter character he showed little sagacity by compromising himself in Essex's Rebellion. Such a range of pursuits was, of course, possible only in an age in which the field of knowledge was narrow and capable of being embraced by a single mind. But the result was an approach to all-round excellence and harmonious development such as the world is not likely to see again. We have far greater men in different lines than the sixteenth century had, but we have no Walter Raleigh, Philip Sydney, or Robert Dudley.

Robert Dudley's family history, however, is one of many proofs that the moral virtue of the age (so far, at least, as the upper classes were concerned) was not on a par with its energy in action, or its intellectual splendor. There was an interregnum between the fall of the Catholic and the rise of the Protestant morality. The court of the virgin Queen was more remarkable for brilliancy than purity. Robert Dudley was the son of the Earl of Leicester, the unworthy, or perhaps too worthy, favorite of Elizabeth. After the death of Amy Robsart, Leicester married Lady Douglass Sheffield, but he concealed his marriage, fearing, as was conjectured, the Queen's wrath, and being unwilling to dissipate the flattering belief that he had been married to her in secret. Growing tired of Lady Douglass Sheffield, he drove her away, after, as she swore, practising on her life with poison, and married the widow of Lord Essex, with whom he had for some time been intriguing, and the death of whose first husband was ascribed by a tattling world to the skill of an Italian physician in the employment of his successor. It is difficult to see why the biographer who recounts these facts should scout as manifestly unfair the belief that Amy Robsart was murdered. A jury, he says, found a verdict of "mischaunce." But under whose influence was the jury empanelled, and what amount of evidence does Mr. Leader suppose would have sufficed in those days to make a jury find the lover of the Queen guilty of the murder of his wife? The verdict of mischaunce serves only to crush by anticipation the desperate hypothesis of suicide to which defenders of Leicester now resort.

Leicester in his will bequeathed to Robert Dudley a large estate in reversion, but, to please the last Lady Leicester and her friends, designated him as his base-born son. This piece of meanness led to litigation about the succession to the earldom, in which Robert Dudley's claim was overborne by the interest of the Dowager Lady Leicester and her party. He, however, afterwards assumed the titles of Earl of Warwick and Duke of Northumberland under a patent of the Emperor Ferdinand, who thus exercised for about the last time in relation to England his shadowy power as the universal Cæsar.

Disgusted by the injustice with which he had been treated, Dudley cast off his nationality, left England, and settled in Tuscany. He at the same time cast off the national religion and became a Roman Catholic; a change perhaps not very repugnant to the English nobleman and courtier of that day. But he went further and changed his wife. As a mere boy he had been contracted to Frances Vavasour, but the marriage had been forbidden by the Queen. He then married Alice Leigh, by whom he had children. He now left Alice behind him, though she was willing to follow him and turn Catholic, took with him Elizabeth Southwell, who pretended a wish to become a nun, and married her under a papal dispensation from the law of consanguinity, Alice and her children notwithstanding. His plea for repudiating Alice was that his marriage with her had been against the law of the Church because Frances Vavasour, to whom he had been precontracted, was still living at the time. Indiana divorce is not original after all.

Dudley joined the court of the Duke of Tuscany, built himself a palace at Florence, and became the Duke's master of marine, naval architect, and adviser on commercial affairs. To his inspiration Leghorn owed her position as a port and her prosperity. At Florence he ultimately harvested the observations and experiences of his life in his *opus magnum*, the 'Arcano del Mare,' a work in four bulky and sumptuous volumes treating of longitude and the means of determining it; discipline, military and maritime, naval architecture, and scientific navigation, with a great number of maps, charts, and diagrams. The work, though its science has, of course, been superseded, has still a high value in the eyes of book-collectors, and the first edition fetches a large price. It could scarcely have been brought out in England at that day.

Though he had renounced his nationality, Dudley had not lost interest in English politics or even his connection with the English Government. He was employed in a negotiation for a marriage between Prince Henry, the son of James I., and a Princess of Tuscany, which, if it had come to light, would probably have set Protestant England on fire, as did afterwards the negotiation for a marriage between Prince Charles and the Infanta of Spain. His inventive genius also struck out a plan for bridling the "exorbitances" and "impertinences" of Parliament, which he embodied in a tract addressed to James I. He proposes simply to build a fort in each of the chief towns, and garrison it with a soldiery, which is either to be foreign or at least to be drawn from a different part of the country. There can be no doubt that this remedy for Parliamentary impertinence, could it only have been applied, would have been at least as efficacious as the powder composed of antimony, scammony, and cream of tartar with which Dudley proposed to cure all bodily disease. The tract came to light at the time of Strafford's execution, immediately after which it was published by his enemies and coupled with his name. Dudley, when he wrote it, must have completely lost touch of England. With the air of Tuscany he had imbibed the political principles of De Medici. It is remarkable, however, that, like Bacon and Strafford, he means his monarchy to be still Parliamentary, though Parliament is practically to do the will of the Crown.

The work is a welcome little addition to our knowledge of the Elizabethan group, and credit is due to the house of Barbèra for the accuracy with which it has printed an English book.

Chapters from Some Unwritten Memoirs. By Anne Thackeray Ritchie. Harper & Bros.

In a book of reminiscences written by one born in a great literary set we instinctively look first for something new about those who provoke eternal curiosity. Mrs. Ritchie's memoirs contain nothing very new, but much that is perhaps more satisfactory in the shape of casual personal impressions of people very well known to the world through their books and pictures. Whether by accident or design, she refrains from mentioning those who seemed to her disagreeable, and permits us contentedly to dwell in the belief that her father's friends were as nice as they were clever. One or two anecdotes illustrative of Carlyle's acerbity are narrated, but there is no doubt that Mrs. Ritchie's memory of him is affectionate as well as reverential. Of Dickens she says the pleasantest things imaginable. The Dickens parties were the delight of the Thackeray children, and the sketch of one of those wonderful entertainments presents rather a pretty vision of the two rivals in popular esteem. The children, having supped, were romping in the hall when suddenly

"their noise became a cheer, and then another, and we looked up and saw that our own father had come to fetch us, and that his white head was there above the others; then came a third final, ringing cheer, and some one went up to him—it was Mr. Dickens himself — who laughed and said quickly, 'That is for you!' and my father looked up surprised, pleased, touched; settled his spectacles and nodded gravely to the little boys."

To those whom Mrs. Ritchie calls "his inconvenient little girls" the father was the centre of the universe—not a remote, awful abstraction, but a big, companionable, spectacled household god, especially adorable for his jokes and his activity in devising treats. On his books no opinions are offered, excepting that in 'Pendennis' his daughter seems to hear him talk. There is not a word of direct eulogy, but, by the narration of incidents that for no particular reason impressed themselves on a child's mind, the reader comes to share the writer's conviction that Thackeray was one of the wisest, bravest, and kindest of men, with the added suspicion that he was at heart one of the saddest. That he did not propose to aggravate the sorrow of existence by a too strict devotion to propriety is shown by his bad behavior at a party which he was giving in honor of the long-repressed volcano of Yorkshire, lately erupted in 'Jane Eyre' and reluctantly submitting to limited exhibition in London. The little girls were much in evidence at the party, and late in the evening, on a predatory excursion from drawing-room to dining-room, saw their father slipping out the front door. They told the guests, with indiscreet politeness, that he had gone out, but would surely come back very soon. However, he did not come back, and, long after, it was explained that the lioness wouldn't show off, that the party was intolerably dull, and so he had just gone off to the club. It is interesting to speculate on the probable reflections of the sombre, intense Miss Brontë, thrust into such a cheerful, friendly family life as the Thackerays'. Some one told Mrs. Ritchie that, after a dinner with them, she "remarked upon my father's wonderful forbearance and gentleness with our uncalled-for incursions into the conversation." Viewed through her own experience of the paternal relation and her submissive attitude to all men (except curates, the kind she knew best), the frank fondness of a great man for his children, girls at that, must have been too bewildering for comprehension, too trivial for approbation.

The Thackeray children spent a good deal of time with their grandmother in Paris, where they saw sights and people remarkable and otherwise, now evoked from the past and presented with graphic and graceful touch. Here and there we feel the father's manner, a ray of his humor, a shaft of his intuition; but the whole is in Mrs. Ritchie's own way—a very delicate and fine one, and never a tinkling echo of the voice of 'Vanity Fair.'

The Aims of Literary Study. By Hiram Corson. Macmillan.

PROF. CORSON'S work contains, in a small compass, much that deserves the attention of those in particular who are teaching literature, and of the general reader hardly less. At the outset the writer cumbers himself unduly with some of Browning's psychology as it appears in "A Death in the Desert," and there is danger that the reader will be discouraged in the porch with the iteration of such disagreeable circumlocutions as the "What Does" and the "What Knows" and the "What Is"; but after the first few pages there is less of this, though in general a simpler terminology would be to the advantage of the doctrine which Prof. Corson has to preach. There is another drawback in his style, which, for one so thoroughly acquainted with the world's best literature, is singularly devoid of charm, and this suggests a doubt whether converse with good literature is the best way of learning how to write—or would, if Prof. Corson were not such an ardent devotee of Browning, like whom he dearly loves a parenthetic clause. He brings a railing accusation against the professional teachers of literature: they make its study a matter of intellectual knowledge and not of spiritual apprehension; they deal first and almost exclusively with the details that should come last and be subordinate. He would not have the historical connections of literature much insisted on. What is called the Philosophy of Literature he would call the Physiology of Literature. The method of M. Taine, accounting for all the phenomena of genius by circumstances of time and place, has for him no attraction. "A sympathetic, and, therefore, a synthetic response, must, in some measure, be given to a creation of genius, before the analytical faculty has or can have anything to do." And yet Prof. Corson has the liveliest sense of the vital and organic relations of the forms of literature to its spiritual essence. It is because of the inseparable unity of the form and spirit that he deprecates and denounces the custom of setting students at work to paraphrase in prose the language of the poets.

The last third of his book is devoted to the thesis that the best response to the essential life of a poem is to be secured by the fullest interpretative vocal rendering of it. He finds an admirable account of what reading should be in the Book of Nehemiah: "So they read in the book of the law of God *distinctly*, and *gave the sense*, and *caused them to understand the reading*." The first point is clear enunciation, the second relative emphasis, the third is spiritual appreciation, and this, Prof. Corson contends, cannot be effected by the eye so perfectly as by the voice when it is properly trained. He begs us to consider what the result would be if the reading voice were cultivated as widely and conscientiously as the singing voice is now. The voice is for him what the Greek chorus was—the interpreter of the poem. His gospel on this head is that according to Dr. James Rush, whose 'Philosophy of the Human Voice,' published in 1827, seems not to stale with age. Some of Prof. Corson's suggestions may be hard to realize, but not a few are entirely practical, and a wide reading of his book by those engaged in literary teaching would be productive of much good.

Graded Schools in the United States of America. By Mary H. Page. Pp. 71.

Methods of Education in the United States. By Alice Zimmern. Pp. 178.

The Education of Girls in the United States. By Sara A. Burstall. Pp. 204.

The Training of Teachers in the United States of America. By A. Blanche Bramwell and H. Millicent Hughes. Pp. 198. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co.

THESE volumes embody the separately written reports of the five women teachers, English or Welsh, who in 1893 were awarded by the trustees of the Gilchrist Educational Trust travelling fellowships "for the purpose of studying and reporting upon Secondary Schools for Girls and Training Colleges for Women in different parts of the States." Although none of the reports can pretend to the rank of an educational classic, and each in a measure goes over ground covered by the others, they are as a group worthy of the attention of all whom the making of our national characteristics, mental, moral, and physical, may concern.

Where coeducation is so widely practised in public schools and in colleges, it is impossible to write exclusively of the education of women or girls. But Miss Burstall in particular gives space in her report to the colleges for women, reaching the general conclusion that at such colleges the customary exaction of fifteen hours' per week attendance on lectures takes away "one of the greatest privileges of English college life among women—time to think." Of course she and her colleagues are told much about the place education holds as a national institution. Nevertheless, "the enormous inequality of American schools, greater than any that can be found in England," soon becomes evident. Reasons for this are found in the disproportion of salaries—sometimes a starvation wage—and in the licensing of teachers to a single grade, whereas in England "even the smallest children of the school are allowed to reap some advantage from the presence of university-trained teachers." In nothing, however, are grosser discrepancies shown than in the teaching of citizenship. From a text-book in use in New York schools, Miss Zimmern culls, among others, the following choice extract: "We have no King John who can imprison us at his will, or smother innocent little boys. We have no Queen Elizabeth to dictate how we shall worship the ever-living and true God. None such are found in this glorious Republic, in which the supreme power is vested in the people." Add to this that from the primary department upwards children are taught to believe that "America licks creation," and we have the corner-stone for the self-satisfied blatancy which stands to the average American for patriotism.

An interesting distinction made by the same writer is that, broadly speaking, American teaching aims at oral, English at written, work. The result of the former method is that pupils become self-reliant, quick and ready of expression, but not neat, methodical, or accurate. "English teachers would be greatly shocked at the style of much of the American written work. American teachers would be even more shocked at the untidy, scrappy answers given by many of our pupils," and "at their inability to think quickly." (Zimmern, p. 48.) The measure of truth in these observations will be borne out by the experience of any one with a large correspondence among women college graduates, of whose handwriting and spelling, unreformed from the grammar and high-school periods, an upper-class English tradeswoman, or one with a secondary education only, would too often be ashamed.

The ingenuity of American teaching is, on the other hand, never shown to better advantage than where lessons in civics combine, as in a Massachusetts high school, enthusiasm and interest for the subjects with absolute impartiality. (Burstall, p. 92.) There is united testimony to the American pupil's power of self-discipline, sense of responsibility for the large measure of personal liberty allowed in schools, and capacity, unknown under the different conditions of the older country, for the independent use of books and libraries. Unfortunately, no provision could be discovered for enabling pupils to develop along their own lines at varying rates, and the wise remark is made that a country robs itself in depriving the boy or girl who possesses special talents of the opportunity of cultivating them. Repeated comments on the high temperature of schoolrooms—to which is partly attributed the delicacy and excitability of American girls—must be accepted as true, with the admission that we thus at once sap youthful vigor and lay the foundation for the abnormal liking for over-heated rooms and the insensibility to foul air which are among our worst national peculiarities.

That teaching is a profession which, like every other, requires technical training, is the belief that underlies the investigations of Misses Bramwell and Hughes, themselves trainers of teachers. Of what has already been done in this country in providing pedagogical instruction—in more or less competent State or city normal schools, in training-colleges, and in university departments of pedagogy—and what left undone—noticeably in the omission of practising schools like the one at the German University of Jena, in connection with such departments—their volume gives a very fair epitome. It is to be remarked that although the women's colleges turn out teachers in such large numbers, not one of them figures in the list of institutions having departments of pedagogy worthy of the name of such. The idea that college graduation alone equips for successful teaching is, however, losing ground among thoughtful persons, especially those whose acquaintance with graduates of both sexes is most intimate. A knowledge of what is newly called, with a distinction unpleasantly suggestive of educational cant, child-nature, is not handed out with the degree. Neither will the best training-college be able to impart it to those who have not understanding. But until correlation is established between the minds of teacher and pupils, the correlating of subjects and systems will be labor largely spent in vain.

A History of Amherst College, from 1821 to 1891. By William S. Tyler, D.D., LL.D. New York: Frederick H. Hitchcock.

THIS book, as it originally appeared soon after the fiftieth anniversary of the college in 1871, was an account of its first half-century. Prof. Tyler has now greatly abridged it, omitting the bulky and less relevant portions, completing his story of President Stearns's administration, and adding that of President Seelye. The newly written part cannot fail to strike many of the alumni and friends of the college as lacking that entire fairness desirable in such a record; as conspicuous in its omissions; as partial if not partisan; as in some sense an opportunity used for eulogizing personal friends, occasionally with lavishness, while other names which will occur as quickly and favorably are dismissed with barest mention. Those who best know the story of the institution

from 1821 to the beginning of President Gates's administration in 1890 will be forced to read largely between the lines, and it is a pity that the unwritten portion cannot be perused by all its readers. As the recognized official historian of the college, Prof. Tyler has, of course, bestowed much painstaking care upon the work, and a good general idea is given of the early years when friends were few and funds small. The book cannot be neglected in the history of higher education in New England, and to the average reader will probably tell enough.

Certainly Amherst had a varied experience; its mere founding, against bitter opposition, foreshadowing in some degree the trials which followed its establishment. Dr. Moore, called from Dartmouth to the Presidency of Williams College in 1815, was invited to become the first leader of an embryonic Amherst six years later. He accepted the trust, and many Williams students accompanied him to the new institution, thus stirring in the Berkshire college a strife of strong feeling by no means extinct. The first President of Amherst came to no bed of roses, and he passed away before "his beloved college had even been recognized as a college by the Legislature, dying, like Moses on Pisgah, in sight only of the promised land." But the number of students increased, and prosperity seemed approaching, when, under President Humphrey, a disastrous reaction set in, reducing the college to the verge of dissolution. President Hitchcock then took the reins in his stalwart hands, bringing brighter days, valuable friends and patrons, and an enduring reputation in science. Under the fourth President, Dr. Stearns, a period of scholarships and prizes set in, and a remarkable system of gymnastic and hygienic exercise was instituted; the old Barrett gymnasium, erected in 1859–60, being the first college gymnasium in the country. Funds now rapidly increased, for President Stearns was emphatically a man of affairs, and during his administration of nearly a quarter of a century, from 1854 onward, six new buildings were added to the group on College Hill, and many additional chairs established. Followed by President Seelye's wise and scholarly incumbency, the years from 1876 to 1890 saw many advancements, among them the inception of the plan of student self-government, so called, and a greatly enlarged system of electives. President Seelye, at the time of his appointment, had been for eighteen years Professor of Philosophy in the college, was then a member of Congress as well, and the first and only Amherst alumnus ever elected to the office of President. His administration was as successful financially as intellectually, the long list of gifts and bequests bearing evidence of his practical abilities, and at his resignation, in 1890, the college was left in a condition of heretofore unequalled prosperity and hopefulness. Dr. Gates began his duties as President in the autumn of 1890, although not formally inaugurated until the following Commencement, and the distinctive years of his administration are not touched upon.

In the matter of absolute impartiality in the telling of an interesting story, Prof. Tyler's history certainly leaves something to be desired; indeed, abundant room is left for a future historian to go over the same ground, writing from a broader and more generous survey of the facts and the men, and with ampler justice to all concerned.

An Æthiopian History. Written in Greek by Heliodorus. Englished by Thomas Underdowne anno 1587. London: D. Nutt. 1895.

So many resurrections of buried authors are taking place in these latter days that one might suspect there was some kind of a literary doomsday toward. Of these long-entombed worthies, the latest to burst his cerements is Thomas Underdowne, whose version of the 'Æthiopics' of Heliodorus has just been added to the "Tudor Translations."

Heliodorus is himself a rather piquant personality, whether regarded as a Christian bishop who resigned his mitre rather than abandon his romance, or as a Phœnician pagan who traced his pedigree back to the Sun. But his most innocent and virginal tale is interesting as the parent of a long line of romances of love and adventure, including the 'Arcadia' of Sidney, the tomes of Calprenède and Scudéri, and thus the grandparent of the modern novel. And Underdowne's version is still more interesting as a remarkable example of a translation that surpasses the original. Heliodorus's language is rather colorless and jejune, while Underdowne's version is a masterpiece of Tudor English. The man was a born stylist, and had the secret of that incomparable prose which is familiar to all in the Authorized Version. Open where you will, you come upon such sentences as, "Surely this deede was not without much glorie, for he who was their maister waited upon them, and he who tooke them prysoners was content to serve them." His slightest descriptive touches are full of life: "Calasiris carried Cariclias quiver wrapped in a torne and naughty peece of leather, the wrong ende downeward, on his shoulders, as if it had bene some other thing." He has the secret of the long, harmonious, and perfectly organic period of Hooker. Here is the half of one:

"When he came in and sawe her sittinge in her chaire of estate, clothed in purple and clothe of golde, glorious with jolly jewels, and her costly bonet, finely attyred and decked, with her garde about her and the chiefe magistrates of the Persians by her, he was not abashed a whit, but rather the more incouraged against the Persian braverie, as though he had quite forgotten that whereof he talked with Cariclia as touchinge reverence and worshipping, so that he neither bowed knee nor fell downe to her, but holding up his heade alofte, said, Arsace of royall bloude, God save thee."

The editor, Mr. Whibley, has prefixed an excellent introduction, and the publishers have dressed the book in paper and type that make it a delight to the eye.

The History of Florence, Mass. Edited by Charles A. Sheffield. Florence: The Editor. 1895.

THE handsomely illustrated small folio, 'Northampton: The Meadow City,' has been closely followed up by the above supplementary work on a manufacturing, yet still rural, suburb of Northampton. It, too, is illustrated with exceptional discrimination. Mr. Sheffield has displayed great diligence in exploring the early local history of the place, but he approaches a wider public only in the seventh chapter, which deals with the mulberry fever and silk enterprise of which Samuel Whitmarsh was the originator. The failure of this speculation paved the way for the formation of the Northampton Association of Education and Industry, with whose entrance upon the scene in chapter viii. Mr. Sheffield displays if not the main motive of his researches, at least by far the most interesting feature of his narrative. Hitherto the chief source of information has been a truthful but rather abstract account of the "Northampton Community" in Noyes's 'History of American Socialisms.' Mr. Sheffield now supplies from the records and letter-books the most useful details, the text of circulars and constitutions, the names and portraits of leaders and members, and sets forth clearly the causes of failure, as well as the permanent legacy of the experiment. One stage, however, in the transformation of Whitmarsh's Northampton Silk Company to the Community is apparently overlooked by Mr. Sheffield. The purchase of that company's plant and property he implies on p. 68 to have been made for the socialistic purpose from the beginning, but the truth is that it was a purely commercial transaction, and that "the community fever," supervening directly upon "the mulberry fever," gave a new direction to the thoughts of Messrs. Hill, Conant, Benson, and Adam. This is confirmed by the document on p. 73, in which Conant and Adam, representing "the owners of the property known as the Northampton Silk Factory Estate," approve of the principles laid down in the Community's circular, and offer to sell out to "the *projected* Northampton Association of Education and Industry."

The omission is important, for Mr. Conant, on whom the greatest reliance was placed for business success, with two others, withdrew in the following year (1842), and Prof. Adam accounted for it by the fact that "their object in joining us appears to have been, from the first, *pecuniary* advantage, not *moral* improvement or *social* usefulness." They had been, in other words, momentarily carried away by the sentiment of the hour. "Ils ne mouraient pas tous," Lafontaine says of the beasts and the pest, "mais tous étaient frappés." The pure industrial ability of the community felt itself hampered by the moral and social attachments, and accordingly got out before the crash. The educational side was equally hampered by the industrial condition, and was seriously crippled by the withdrawal of Prof. Adam (who had held the Oriental chair at Harvard). In the end, Florence's best endowment was from the industrial sequelæ of the community; yet the philanthropic spirit of Samuel Hill and his coadjutors has its monument in excellent schools and a finely housed lyceum and library—to say nothing of Alfred Lilly's outside benefactions to the neighboring Smith College.

The Northampton Community has shared the fate of Brook Farm in being without a chronicle of its every-day life, as well as of its progress from beginning to end, by one who lived through it all. It has had much less notoriety than Brook Farm, and had no literary man of genius like Hawthorne for an inmate, or like Emerson for a sympathetic if wary visitor. Still, among its visitors and occasional inmates many famous names are to be met with, especially in the abolition world; and David Lee Child was trying to raise beet-sugar in the neighborhood while his wife, Lydia Maria Child, edited the *National Anti-slavery Standard* in New York. That remarkable woman, Mrs. Stowe's "African Sibyl," Sojourner Truth, was one of the most picturesque figures of the Community, and Frederick Douglass, who gives here his reminiscences of it, has a for him unusually harsh word for his countrywoman as one who "seemed to feel it her duty to trip me up in my speeches, and to ridicule my efforts to speak and act like a person of cultivation and refinement." The greater of the two colored orators perhaps never forgave Sojourner for her once punctuating his gloomy

discourse on the prospect of emancipation with the sharp recall to a higher power—"Frederick, is God dead?" There was another colored American at Florence, David Ruggles, who, though blind, carried on a successful water-cure on the fatal Mill River, to which Southerners came later when it had been acquired by the German Dr. Charles Munde—though some quit it as soon as he cast his vote for Abraham Lincoln. Dr. Munde, by the way, is said by Mr. Sheffield to have wished to call the river the Arno, and the place Florence, and to have really been the author of the latter appellation. We, for our part, had supposed the story true which made the selection a shrewd device of the silk-manufacturers, who could thus use "truthfully" an Italian label for their sewing-silk, and so compete with the imported article.

A Student's Manual of English Constitutional History. By D. J. Medley. Oxford: Blackwell. 1894.

THIS book has two striking features: it entirely ignores political history, and its arrangement is purely topical. In his preface Mr. Medley states that the few existing text books on constitutional history are unsatisfactory, because they subordinate the development of an institution to the details of general or political history—to details concerning changes of dynasty and deeds of particular men. We do not believe that this statement is correct; it does not apply, for example, to the well-known text-book of Bishop Stubbs. Moreover, it is impossible completely to separate the growth of English institutions from the political details. The constitutional history of England was profoundly influenced by the nature of such events as the Anglo-Saxon invasions and the Norman conquest, and by the personality of certain kings, and it is impossible to comprehend the constitutional changes of some reigns without a careful study of the political movements of the time.

The other characteristic feature of the book is its topical arrangement. Its eleven chapters deal with distinct subjects; there is a consecutive history of each institution from the earliest to the present time. Most text-books err in having too many divisions into periods; the student's attention is distracted from the growth of a particular institution when he is hurried from one topic to another in a narrowly limited period. The remedy for this evil is to make each period cover several centuries. But Mr. Medley goes too far in this direction; his work is not divided into periods. Chronological subdivisions of some sort are necessary because the institutions of an age (for example, the Anglo-Saxon period) are correlated; an understanding of one institution postulates some knowledge of certain others, and their interrelation differs in different periods. Moreover, in some chapters of this book it is assumed that the student knows something concerning institutions which are examined in detail in a later chapter. For example, on page 15 the Witan is referred to, but it is defined and explained on page 102, in chapter iii. Thus the work will be more useful to persons who have already studied the whole subject than to beginners.

The chief excellence of this text-book is that it brings together many of the results of recent research—the conclusions of such writers as Seebohm, Vinogradoff, Maitland, and Round. It contains much fresh material in a compact form. But we fear that the desire to compress many facts into a small space often leads to obscurity. Mr. Medley's brief exposition of some subjects (for example, uses and strict settlements, in chapter i.) is unintelligible to the average educated reader and quite incomprehensible to the average college youth; and his references to collateral reading are too meagre to enable students to supplement his statements.

Nicolai Ivanovich Lobachevsky. By A. Vasiliev. Translated from the Russian by George Bruce Halsted. Austin, Tex.: The Neomon, 2407 Guadalupe Street. 1894.

A GOOD many interesting particulars about the non-Euclidean geometry and its author can by searching be picked out of this ill-arranged pamphlet. Lobatchevsky was born in 1793 in the town of Makarieff, some forty miles above Nizhni-Novgorod, on the Volga. His father was a peasant (Ch. Rumelin says an architect, forgetting, apparently, that a *Bauer* is not usually a *Baumeister*). He was entered at the newly founded University of Kazan in 1807. He must have impressed his parents with his genius. Prof. Vasilieff tells us he was a passionate boy. His behavior was always reputed bad. Later there was some terrible storm of passion which left him for the rest of his life taciturn and stern. He took the degree of master in 1811. After graduation he entered the Observatory and studied practical astronomy under J. J. Littrow (whose name Dr. Halsted spells Lettrov). In 1814 he was made adjunct professor of mathematics, and in 1816 full professor. But the University of Kazan was hardly a regular university, and he had to teach astronomy also; and for some time physics and chemistry besides. "One of these lectures," the only one on chemistry, Prof. Vasilieff tells us, "was accompanied by experiments." In 1825 Lobatchevsky added to his duties those of librarian to the University, and so continued for ten years. It was about this time that one Magnetsky was rector of the University, and the dire administration of this religious fanatic and barbarous foe of science is evidently a familiar tradition of horror in Kazan to this day. In 1827 Lobatchevsky himself was elected to the rectorship, which he held for nineteen years. In 1846 he retired from the University, and went to live in a village which belonged to him, Belovoliskaya Slobodka, on the Volga, near the mouth of the Kama River. He was now appointed curator, or assistant curator, of the district of Kazan. He interested himself vastly in agriculture, becoming the president of his branch of the Imperial Economical Society, and taking the medal of the Imperial Agricultural Society for his improvements in the treatment of wools. Finally, he became blind, and in 1856 died.

Kazan was not the *milieu* for a man of genius, especially not for so profound a genius as that of Lobatchevsky, and he did little mathematical work beyond writing text-books. What little he did publish was received with derision and contempt. Who in Russia in 1834 could possibly see any sense in the contention of Lobatchevsky that it was one thing for a curved line to be continuous, and quite another for it to have definite tangents? The mathematicians of Western Europe did not become aware of the distinction until nearly 1880, when Weierstrass suggested that a line might be wavy, and these waves carry smaller waves, and those still smaller waves, and so on *ad infinitum*. Down to this day there is but one text-book on the differential calculus (that of Camille Jordan, in its second edition) which introduces the distinction. All of Lobatchevsky's writings are marked by the same high strung logic, and there is nothing a semi-civilized people respects less than extremely accurate thought.

Lobatchevsky made some experimental researches in terrestrial physics. He was also one of the first carefully to observe and call attention to the solar corona. It is a marvellous instance of man's stupendous power of shutting his eyes to plain facts that this phenomenon, one of the most startling, not to say thrilling, in nature, was not enough noticed to receive a name until 1851. But it was observed by Lobatchevsky at the eclipse of 1842, July 8,* and described with care. He also gave a theory of it which, as reported by Vasilieff and translated by Dr. Halsted, seems pretty puerile.

According to the evidence adduced by Prof. Vasilieff, it appears that both the reputed authors of the non-Euclidean geometry, Lobatchevsky and Bolyai, probably derived their first knowledge of it indirectly from Gauss. A letter is extant, written in 1799 by Gauss to Bolyai's father, which contains a very plain hint of the thing. And Vasilieff now informs us that Lobatchevsky's teacher of mathematics was J. M. C. Bartels, who had been the teacher and devoted friend of Gauss, from 1785 to 1807, when Bartels went to Kazan. It is next to impossible that, coming then into very intimate relations with Lobatchevsky, he should not have mentioned Gauss's studies in the non-Euclidean geometry. However, Gauss was not the first discoverer. Lambert in 1785, in a printed book, spoke plainly of a space where the angles of a triangle should sum up to less than 180 degrees, and mentions one of its most remarkable properties. Gauss most likely knew of this. Nor was Lambert first in the field, for the Jesuit Saccheri had discovered the thing before 1734.

Letters and Sketches from the New Hebrides. By Maggie W. Paton (Mrs. Dr. John G. Paton of Aniwa). Edited by Rev. Jas. Paton. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1895. Illustrated. Pp. xiii, 382, 8vo.

IT would be hard to find a more truthful or graphic picture of missionary life than is contained in these letters. Writing only for her family circle, Mrs. Paton was not hampered, as the missionary generally is, by the necessity of interesting and stimulating the contributors to her support. Nothing is out of proportion, therefore, in her picture. She describes the failures as carefully as the successes, the comforts no less than the hardships of her life. And, what is perhaps rare in missionary literature, the somewhat sombre narrative is not infrequently enlivened by humorous touches. In an account of the manner in which the natives dressed for church, for instance, she says: "One man, I remember, came prancing in, looking so delighted with himself in a snow-white vest—absolutely nothing else! Another came stalking majestically, with a woman's skirt pinned round his throat and the tips of his fingers appearing at the bottom of it." All this she bore with praiseworthy self-control until her husband's whispered words, "Shouldn't we be grateful to God to see them all coming out to church *so nicely dressed*," sent her into

*This is the local civil date, N. S. The O. S. date was June 26. Prof. Halsted gives it as July 26, bringing the month to N. S., but not the day. Poggendorff (Wörterbuch) makes it June 8, bringing the day to N. S., but not the month. A "Boston Almanac" for that year, referred to for the date, gives it as July 7, which can be defended as being the *Boston time* of the beginning of the eclipse. Herschell's 'Outlines' also gives it as July 7, being the Greenwich *astronomical* date of the greater part of the eclipse. Such is the treatment minor dates receive. No other books were referred to. Not one was right.

"prolonged convulsions." During one of her frequent illnesses he acted as cook, and she gives his recipe for making water gruel: "Equal parts of meal, sugar, and water (a cupful of each for one dose); boil all together till there is a smell of singeing, whereby you know it is sufficiently cooked!" The most interesting and valuable passages are the sketches of the life of the natives, in which she characteristically brings out the weakness as well as the strength of their religious impressions. Very vivid, too, are her descriptions of the hurricanes and earthquakes—in one day there were ten shocks—to which the New Hebrides Islands are subject. We have grave doubts, however, of the wisdom of printing letters intended only for the narrow circle of the writer's family. The privacy of life is almost certain to be rudely invaded, the most sacred feelings to be needlessly exposed to the public gaze—as is in a measure true of this book. There are some merely trivial passages in which no one but those immediately concerned can have any interest; and there are others (most pathetic and powerfully written, no doubt) descriptive of scenes from which all but the nearest should be shut out.

The book is very attractive in its appearance, and contains several interesting pictures of natives and landscape in the islands, including some reproductions of sketches by the author.

Selections from the Correspondence of Thomas Barclay, formerly British Consul General at New York. Edited by George Lockhart Rives. Harper & Bros.

THE correspondence printed in this volume has a high historical value. Thomas Barclay was a native of New York, of Scotch descent. The Robert Barclay who wrote the 'Apology' for the Quakers was of his family, and had induced a brother, the immediate ancestor of Thomas, to emigrate to America. A son of the emigrant took orders and labored in Albany and among the Indians. He was succeeded by his son, the father of the writer of these letters. Thomas was born in 1753, entered King's College in 1768, married a De Lancey, and remained loyal during the Revolution, serving in the Loyal American Regiment for seven years. At the peace he went to Nova Scotia with a large number of loyalists, where he resided until appointed by the King a commissioner to determine the true River St. Croix on the northeastern boundary. His services in that negotiation led to his becoming H. B. M. Consul-General at New York, an office he held until the war of 1812 interrupted all relations between Great Britain and the United States. In that war he was the agent for the British prisoners in the hands of the Americans, and at the return of peace was the English commissioner to determine the Northeast boundary. He died in 1830.

The bare mention of these various commissions is sufficient to indicate the estimation in which Barclay's ability and services were held by the British ministry, and in no case was their confidence abused. This in itself is high praise of his judgment and diplomatic qualities, for it was a period of great and increasing friction between the United States and England. The Revolution left many questions undetermined: the treatment of loyalists, the payment of debts due to the British, the surrender of the posts, compensation for slaves, and boundaries. These, and the claims of England as to impressing seamen, were sufficient to maintain a strained relation between the two countries, out of which war eventually came. It is difficult to appreciate the intensity of feeling shown on these questions, and for the first time the British side is temperately and intelligently stated in Barclay's letters. Although the consul-general, he experienced difficulty in securing a fishing-boat at $300 a week to carry his despatches to the commander of the British ships in the harbor, the men asserting they "could never again return to New York." For a time the city was practically blockaded; and when a shot from an English vessel killed a man on board an American sloop, a mob collected, burned the British colors, and even proposed to ransack the consul's house, and detain him as a hostage till the English captain had been delivered up to be tried for murder. For a week Barclay was unable to leave his house. This was years before actual hostilities.

This outburst of popular feeling was the result of accumulated insults through impressments; yet the claims of the English merited attention. Whenever one of their war ships reached America, desertions would occur. To make good the losses, men were forcibly taken from American vessels, under the plea that they were subjects of the King. To guard against this abuse, certificates of citizenship, or protections, were issued, and even to some who had not been in the States a month. "Let the Scotch accent or Irish brogue be ever so strong, it is to have no weight where opposed to a certificate of citizenship." It was difficult to remain judicial when pressed by the unjustifiable acts of the British captains on the one hand, and the equally strong and indefensible acts on the part of the Americans. Barclay in this never overstepped the proper bounds, and the tone of his correspondence is admirable. He chided captains and even the British minister for extreme measures, and recognized the justice of the American claims in cases where the naval authorities were against him.

It would be too long a story to point out the many interesting and valuable points of the long official career covered in this correspondence. The personal and historical incidents are numerous. Hamilton is employed to defend a loyalist, and Barclay deemed him "the ablest counsel" in New York. When Hamilton fell in the duel, Barclay wrote: "I consider him even as a loss to his Majesty and our Government, from the prudence of his measures, his conciliatory disposition, his abhorrence of the French Revolution and all republican principles and doctrine, and his very great attachment to the British Government." The visit of Jerome Bonaparte to America is touched upon; Barclay strove to have him intercepted on his return voyage to France. Glimpses of Newport and New York life give a pleasant social background to the severer official duties, and the sharp contrast between life in Nova Scarcity (as Scotia was called) and the new States is developed in so uncomplaining a manner as to make us sympathize with the exiled loyalists, rather than with the now independent patriots.

The editing of these letters has been a labor of love on the part of Mr. Rives, but it demands more than a passing notice. The difficulties were great, as the references are often obscure and call for an intimate knowledge of state affairs and family connections. It is rarely that we have seen such a task so judiciously performed, and the balance of Barclay's mind is reflected in the notes of his editor. Mr. Rives's temperate treatment of disputed matters is a model for those who write political pamphlets in the guise of history.

A Philological Essay concerning the Pygmies of the Ancients. By Edward Tyson, M.D. 1699. Now edited, with an introduction treating of Pigmy races and fairy tales, by Bertram C. A. Windle. [Bibliothèque de Carabas. Vol. IX.] 8vo, pp. civ., 103. London: David Nutt. 1894.

LOVERS of quaint lore are under especial obligations to Prof. Windle for his reprint of Dr. Tyson's essay, and to the publishers for the very attractive form in which it appears. The original work, of which this was a part, was entitled '*Orang-Outang, sive Homo sylvestris:* or, the Anatomie of a Pygmie,' and is interesting as "the first attempt which had been made to deal with the anatomy of any of the anthropoid apes." After the scientific part of his subject has been treated, the author endeavors to prove the truth of the belief of the ancients in the existence of a race of pigmies, which was nearly universally doubted in his days. Only he held that the "little people" who, in Homer, fought with the cranes, and, in Ctesias, "do attend the King of India," were apes. This view he presents in the charming style characteristic of the best authors of his time, and with a scholarship shown in a wealth of quotations from classical and mediæval writers.

The introduction by the editor is a worthy accompaniment of the essay, both from the manner in which it is written and the knowledge of the general subject displayed. He treats first of the geographical distribution of the pigmy races according to our present information, dwelling particularly on the dwarfs of Central Africa. He seems to have overlooked the best description of this race, that given by Dr. F. Stuhlmann in his monumental work on the last expedition of Emin Pasha. An identification of these races with those described by the old writers is followed by an attempt to give some idea of the localities and dwellings of the little folk of story and legend, as the mounds, barrows, caves, rocks, trees, and water. The origin of this fairy mythology, Mr. Windle holds, at the close of his interesting review, is not to be explained wholly by a single fact, as, for instance, a dim memory of the mound-dwellers, as some have maintained. The idea, so widely diffused, of the existence of "little people" is of a most complex nature, though "the souls of the departed and the underground world which they inhabit are largely responsible for it."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adye, Gen. Sir John. Recollections of a Military Life. Macmillan. $3.50.
Alden, Mrs. G. R. Only Ten Cents. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Barr, Robert. The Face and the Mask. F. A. Stokes Co. 75 cents.
Behrends, Rev. A. J. F. The Old Testament under Fire. Butler Bible Work Co.
Burke, Ulick R. A History of Spain, from the Earliest Times to the Death of Ferdinand the Catholic. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.50.
Couch, A. J. Q. The Golden Pomp: A Procession of English Lyrics from Surrey to Shirley. London: Methuen & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.00.
Ditchfield, P. H. Books Fatal to their Authors. [Book-Lover's Library.] Armstrong. $1.25.
Eberhard, Prof. V. Die Grundgebilde der Ebenen Geometrie. Erster Band. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Forbes, Archibald. Colin Campbell, Lord Clyde. [English Men of Action.] Macmillan. 75 cents.
Fraser, Marie. In Stevenson's Samoa. Macmillan. 80 cents.
Gould, E. R. L. Popular Control of the Liquor Traffic. Baltimore: Friedenwald Co.
Green, J. R. A Short History of the English People. Illustrated. Vol. IV. Harpers. $5.
Gundelfinger, Sigmund. Vorlesungen aus der Analytischen Geometrie der Kegelschnitte. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Hepworth, G. H. Brown Studies; or, Campfires and Morals. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Herbert, W. V. The Defence of Plevna, 1877. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.

Holzmüller, Gustav. Methodisches Lehrbuch der Elementar-Mathematik. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Hope, Anthony. A Change of Air. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Hope, Anthony. Sport Royal, and Other Stories. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Jackson, Joseph. Through Glade and Mead: A Contribution to Local Natural History. Worcester, Mass.: Putnam, Davis & Co.
Jacobs, Joseph. An Inquiry into the Sources of the History of the Jews in Spain. Macmillan. $1.75.
Jacobi, Hermann. Gaina Sûtras. [Sacred Books of the East.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Kipling, Rudyard. Prose Tales. New uniform edition. 6 vols. Macmillan. $7.50.
Koch, Prof. On the Bacteriological Diagnosis of Cholera, etc. W. R. Jenkins. $1.50.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XLII. O'Dunn—Owen. Macmillan. $3.75.
Leland, C. G. Songs of the Sea and Lays of the Land. London: A. & C. Black: New York: Macmillan. $2.
Lucy, A. W. The Rt. Hon. W. E. Gladstone: A Study from Life. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Moreto, Augustin. El Desdén con el Desdén. W. R. Jenkins 35 cents
Moss, Fletcher. Chronicles of Cheadle, Cheshire. Didsbury, Eng.: The Author.
Moss, Fletcher. Didsbury: Sketches, Reminiscences and Legends. Manchester, Eng.: George Falkner & Sons.
Nodier, Charles. Trilby, the Fairy of Argyle. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Norman, Henry. The Peoples and Politics of the Far East. Scribners. $4.
Parkin, G. R. The Great Dominion: Studies of Canada. Macmillan. $1.75.
Pole, William. The Evolution of Whist. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Prestwich, Joseph. Some Controverted Questions of Geology. Macmillan. $3.75.
Prince, Helen C. The Story of Christine Rochefort. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Public Library Hand-book. Denver: The Carson-Harper Co.
Rae, John. Life of Adam Smith. Macmillan. $4.
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Reed, Rev. J. S. The Crozier and the Keys. James Pott & Co. $1.50.
Rhoscomyl, Owen. The Jewel of Ynys Galon. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Riehl, Prof. A. Introduction to the Theory of Science and Metaphysics. London: Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.
Rival, Mme. Jeanne. Annexés: Scènes de la Vie Alsacienne. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Roberts, J. W. Looking Within. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Rowbotham, J. F. The Troubadours and Courts of Love. London: Sonnenschein: New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Russell, W. C. The Emigrant Ship. Cassell. 50 cents.
Schwarz, A. The Horse: its External and Internal Organization. Whittaker. $1.25.
Scott, Sir W. Poetical Works. 2 vols. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Shelton, W. H. A Man without a Memory, and Other Stories. Scribners. $1.
Shutter, Rev. M. D. A Child of Nature. Boston: J. H. West. $1.
Southworth, Mrs. E. D. E. N. The Missing Bride. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Starkey, Alfred. Religio Clerici, and Other Poems. London: Elliot Stock.
Thayer, Prof. J. B. Cases on Constitutional Law, with Notes. Part IV. Cambridge, Mass.: C. W. Sever.
The Bibles and Beliefs of Mankind. Gay Bros. & Co.
The Psalter, with a Concordance and Other Auxiliary Matter. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
The Snow-Church Company's Legal and Banking Year-Book. 1895. Snow-Church Surety Co.
Tracy, Frederick. The Psychology of Childhood. 2d ed. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 90 cents.
Traill, H. D. Social England. Vol. III. From the Accession of Henry VIII. to the Death of Elizabeth. London: Cassell; New York: Putnams. $3.50.
Tucker, Elizabeth S. Dame Prism: A Story for Girls. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Varigny, C. de. The Women of the United States. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Wallace, William. The Divine Surrender: A Mystery Play. London: Elliot Stock.
Walker, Francis. Letters of a Baritone. Scribners. $1.25.
Watts, H. E. Don Quixote. New ed. Vol. I. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 11, 1895.

The Week.

SENATOR HILL'S opposition to the income tax was long ago set down, by all not too bright and good for human nature's daily food, to the credit of his contract to beat the tariff bill at all hazards; and the Supreme Court's decision scarcely wins for him that great rank among jurists and pure-minded patriots which he is modestly claiming. He has nothing to say about the one salient fact relating to his connection with the decision, namely, that but for his intriguing opposition to the nominations of Messrs. Hornblower and Peckham to the Supreme bench, Monday's decision would almost certainly have been against the law *in toto*. When even Justice Gray, who wrote the last legal-tender decision practically ascribing unlimited powers to Congress, was found against the income tax, it is safe to say that no New York judge would have been for it. Hill's scheming fight against honest New York Democrats who had denounced him and his political crimes in proper terms thus leaves him responsible, more than any other man, for the failure of the court to overthrow the income tax root and branch.

Many of the sages of the Republican party have now indicated the course they will pursue on the tariff and currency questions in the next Congress and the next Presidential campaign. The net result of their wisdom seems to be that they will do nothing and say nothing to give offence to a single voter. Ex-Speaker Reed gave out an interview on March 16. All he would say was, that the next House was going to be a body of remarkable ability. Would it do anything with the tariff? Not a thing. Would it touch the currency? Dead silence. The interviewer should have been more discreet than to ask this question of a man who was not yet over his terrible experience in the House between the fires of the jeering Populists, the nagging Democrats, and the amazed sound-money Republicans. Col. Henderson admitted, the same day, that the silver question gave him some uneasiness, but defied those prophets who said his party would split on that issue. His idea was that keeping still hard enough would make irreconcilables get on together peacefully. Congressman Grosvenor spoke up for McKinley vs. Reed on March 19. He was for going in headlong for protection. Having won the election on that issue, why drop it when victorious? As to silver, let the country rest assured. Currency difficulties would be settled (way not mentioned) by the only party that had wisdom and patriotism enough to settle anything. McKinley startled the country for a day or two by a report that he was flatly out against free silver; but, as was generally expected, he denied later that he had said anything of the kind. Chairman Manley of the national committee went abroad on March 22, leaving behind him the exhortation to forget all about the silver question and turn in and elect a Republican President. All this reduces the Republican policy to bald opportunism, or, in vulgar phrase, waiting to see how the cat will jump.

Ex-Speaker and to-be-Speaker Reed is not so much disposed as he once was to sneer at economy in Government expenditures. He says, "It is sincerely to be hoped that any effort made by the next Congress to keep down the appropriations may have the support of public sentiment and popular forbearance." But how does he propose to keep them down? By asking the grabbers to please not to grab, the jobbers not to job, and the log-rollers not to log-roll. He remarks: "If each portion of this country should be reasonable in its demands, the total also would be reasonable." That's as clear as a sum in simple arithmetic, but who is to determine what is reasonable? who is to hit the unreasonable snouts a rap and make them back away from the trough? Mr. Reed does not say. Yet nothing can be more certain than that the hungry mob in the next Congress will trample on their nominal leaders, just as they did in the last Congress, unless some clear and resolute plan to hold them in check can be devised. With his great prestige and power as a Speaker, Mr. Reed will have a fine opportunity to make the next House an economical House—either by changes in the rules or in the organization, or by his personal control, or by extending party discipline to the appropriations. In this respect, and in directing currency legislation, he has his political marring or making in his own hands, and it will be interesting to see if he has in him the stuff of a true leader.

An amusing commentary upon the loud-sounding talk of New England filibusters about "American interests in Samoa" is found in the report just rendered by Mr. W. L. Chambers, United States land commissioner to Samoa. Mr. Chambers was one of three commissioners appointed by this country, Great Britain, and Germany, under the provisions of the Berlin Treaty, to adjust and settle claims by aliens to land in Samoa. The total number of claims filed before the commissioner was 3,942, of which 307 were American, and they aggregated 1,691,893 acres, while the islands contain but 950,000 acres. Only 8 per cent. of all the claims were confirmed, and the vast bulk of the acreage claimed by Americans was rejected "because of the manifestly inadequate consideration given for it, and because the titles were defective under several of the provisions of the treaty." About 21,000 acres were confirmed to Americans, and most of this land belongs to a corporation composed of San Francisco stockholders. Mr. Chambers heard of only nineteen bona-fide American subjects in the country, exclusive of officials, and he does not believe there are thirty Americans there all told, including those who claim citizenship through naturalization. As for Pago Pago Bay, the claims of the United States Government were examined and confirmed, but Mr. Chambers reports that they are of little value, since the bay is so small that not more than three or four ships can be anchored there in case the wind is blowing either into the mouth of the harbor or off shore. Altogether the revelations made by our land commissioner are sufficient to shut up the political highwaymen who are for our seizing territory in every part of the world—so far as Samoa is concerned; except that nothing makes any impression on people in such an intoxicated mental condition as Senator Frye's.

The *Tribune's* rebuke of this Senator for his filibuster's swagger about Cuba, and the *Independent's* denunciation of him as a buccaneer, have roused him to fresh fury. He will not take an "insult" from any nation on earth. If France or Great Britain takes him for a man who will meekly submit to an "aggression," or who would not pour out his dear blood for the Monroe Doctrine, they are very much mistaken. In fact, he is ready to seize, fortify, and hold "against the world" all the islands on the map, and "would reach out to take whatever, in our opinion, was, or might be, necessary to our future commercial supremacy." All this sounds like the wild mutterings of a man in a condition which is supposed to be unknown in prohibition Maine. Men who have stayed themselves too fondly with flagons defy "the world" in this fashion, see horrid things about to commit aggressions on them, and do as much "reaching out" as Senator Frye himself. The police, however, or the hospital, or an early grave usually gives their friends surcease of sorrow on their account. But no little thing like that will stop Frye—nothing less than the Senate chairmanship of the committee on foreign affairs, we are convinced, will soothe his pain.

The antics of the nineteen men who now constitute the republic of Hawaii are actually amusing in their audacity. When they declared martial law, they expressly stated that "the courts will remain in session and conduct ordinary business as usual," except as to the issue

of writs of habeas corpus. Yet hundreds of citizens were seized without warrant, imprisoned without arraignment, and tried for suspected treason before a military commission, being denied the right of trial by jury guaranteed by the Hawaiian Constitution. The situation is closely analogous to the famous Milligan case passed upon by the Supreme Court. Milligan was convicted of treasonable conspiracies by a military commission and sentenced to be hanged. But the Supreme Court intervened, and decided that in a place where actual war did not exist, and where the civil courts were open, no man could be deprived of life or liberty by a military commission. That was not "due process of law." The Hawaiian nineteen seem to have heard of this decision, and so have gone to work and passed acts validating all that they have done. As executive they override the laws and Constitution, and then as Legislature the same precious nineteen pass acts declaring all they had done to have been "within the constitutional authority of the President," and that no suit for damages or prosecution for malfeasance in office can be brought against the Government or any officer thereof. This is a little the boldest trick that the usurpers have played yet. They admit that they have imprisoned and fined citizens without due process of law, but scornfully remind their victims that they are the legislative branch, as well as the executive and judicial, and that no redress can be had. But, of course, no one but a *Kahuna*, or a man whose chastity or liberty-loving principles are under grave suspicion, will see in such conduct anything but pure devotion to free institutions and religion.

The Platt faction in the Legislature have been taken aback by the discovery that Mayor Strong can absolutely veto any bill relating to this city which is not passed fifteen days before the adjournment. The Lexow police-reorganization bill is the one most exposed to this danger, for although the Legislature can pass such a measure over the mayor's veto, it would be very difficult to get the votes to pass it, and still more difficult to hold the Legislature together for that purpose if the usual time for adjournment had arrived. Various projects are mooted for getting around this provision of the Constitution, but fortunately we have courts to interpret and enforce that instrument. An opportunity for the exercise of their powers may perhaps be offered in the case of a bill relating to the city of Brooklyn which was returned "*Not* accepted" by the mayor of that city, but was stamped "Accepted" by a clerk at Albany and sent to the Governor, who thereupon signed it. Inasmuch as this bill lacks one of the constitutional requirements for the validity of a law, it must be considered waste paper, since otherwise all bills relating to cities might be treated in the same way, and thus this provision of the Constitution rendered nugatory.

Lieut.-Gov. Saxton confirms Mr. Depew's view that Platt's hold upon the Senate is so strong that there is little chance of any of the reform measures for this city becoming laws. Thus high Republican authorities admit that, so far as legislation is concerned, Tom Platt is the Republican party of the State of New York. The *Tribune*, another high authority, says that the secret of Platt's power is corruption, that he owns the Republican Senators body and soul because he has bought them with the money which he receives from corporations as the price of legislative immunity. This is the Republican situation as described by Republicans. There is no Mugwump malignity in the picture. Tom Platt tells the people of the State, and especially the people of this city, that they shall have no legislation except what he wishes to give them, and that he will give them only such as he is paid his price for. He will keep Tammany thugs upon our police-justice bench, will refuse to allow us to reform our police and school departments, and will even refuse to take away from the control of Tammany's boss the legal real-estate sales of the city. There is no subterfuge about him. He takes his position openly, and defies anybody and everybody to make him budge from it.

We are glad to see educators and clergymen moving against the bill to make military drill in the public schools compulsory. The Brooklyn Board of Education passed a resolution against it last week, requesting the Brooklyn members of the Assembly to oppose its passage. In defence of the bill it is urged that the physical benefits to be derived from regular military drill would be valuable. But physical training of various kinds is now voluntarily provided in most of the schools, and there is no more reason for prescribing the particular form than there is for compelling arithmetic to be taught in a certain way. Moreover, the bill is mandatory and would entail a great expense—much greater, certainly, if it were to be carried out thoroughly and generally, than the $100,000 named in it. But the gravest objection is that the bill springs from the same senseless and brutal war-spirit that is making wreck of so many public reputations, and continually threatening to embroil us with other nations. What its promoters really have in mind is, not physical exercise, not parades and displays, but the spreading in childish minds of the idea that fighting is the noblest occupation of man, that we are all the while exposed to insults and aggressions, and must be ready to whip all creation on call. Now, the boys have too much of this idea already. It is in their minds that the furibund patriotism of Lodge and Frye finds most admiration—in fact, so far as we have observed, its only admiration. What they need, together with their fellow-juveniles in the United States Senate, is, not military drill, but instruction in good manners, in the arts and love of peace, and in ambition to make the country decent and habitable instead of feared. We are confident that the humane and educated sentiment of the State needs only to be appealed to in order to show that it is solidly and strongly against compulsory military drill in the schools.

The report of the legislative committee which investigated the Brooklyn strike is of more value than such a report is apt to be. It presents a clear summary of the causes that led up to the strike, fixes the responsibility for the practical paralysis of government that followed, and expresses sound views on the question of arbitration. Mayor Schieren is rightly held blamable for "weakness and want of energy" during the early days of the strike, and is declared to have "shown a most marked lack of fitness and capacity for the office." The committee say that the situation became serious only "when the disorderly elements realized the nervelessness and want of energy of the municipal government," and they express the opinion that with an able, firm, and thoroughly energetic municipal administration there would never have been any necessity of calling upon the militia. This is the conclusion that was reached upon the newspaper reports by all competent judges at the time, and the comprehensive review of proceedings here given leaves no doubt upon the point. We do not recall an instance in this country where a city government so shamefully and inexcusably failed in the discharge of its first duty to keep the peace. The radical error in all the dealings of local authorities with strikes lies in the habit of waiting for the mob to get bold before acting.

In discussing remedies to prevent the recurrence of such strikes, the committee makes short work of the compulsory arbitration plan, "because it can conceive of no really effective way in which the employees can be subjected to the decrees of the board of arbitration in the same manner in which the company can, without a wholly unjustifiable assault upon the principle of individual liberty to contract." It is recommended that the existing board of arbitration be required, whether invited or not by either party, to investigate all strikes and report its conclusions as to which party is at fault; the theory being that this course will enlighten public opinion and thus do some good. As for the ten-hour law, doubt is expressed whether it is constitutional, or whether any such law can be passed that will obviate the necessity for an agreement on the subject between employers and employed. The most important feature of the report is a recommendation that the employees of corporations exercising public franchises should be made "quasi-public servants,"

and as such be guaranteed the right of notice and hearing before discharge, while on the other hand required to give proper notice before abandoning such service. To carry out this idea, the committee has drafted an act providing that all employees on railways must be licensed, that such licensed employees must give fifteen days' notice of an intention to leave, and that any employee violating this or other conditions shall forfeit his license, which would prevent a motorman who thus lost his license in Brooklyn from again getting a place in that capacity anywhere in the State. As to this and all other plans, however, the committee sensibly say in conclusion that they "do not believe that there is any radical legislative remedy," and that "the only ultimate cure must come naturally from better relations and a greater feeling of sympathy between employers and employed."

The Voorhees investigating committee is besought from all parts of New Jersey to come and show up local rottenness. All the big cities are morally sure that they have been robbed, several of the counties are certain that their officials have not got suddenly rich on air, while State contracts for printing, the summer encampments of the militia, the doings of the World's Fair commissioners, and the deposit of State money in favored banks are all alleged to be over-ripe for investigation. This cry of the misgoverned is not peculiar to New Jersey. Legislative investigation is coming to be looked upon more and more as the great defence of taxpayers against municipal robbery. The slight beginnings of such an inquiry in Philadelphia showed what might have been laid bare in that city if the bosses had not taken fright and broken the whole thing off short. In some Ohio counties taxpayers' leagues have been formed to guard against oppression and fraud at the hands of county officers. Some large investors holding Western real estate have decided to contest all municipal and county taxes levied on their property, on the ground that fraud attaches to most of them, and that it is a saving of money to fight them in the courts. The part that legislative inquests have come to play in the affairs of this city and State indicates the part they might play in many cities and States. In fact, if the framework of government were now to be framed *de novo*, to fit actual needs and demands, a permanent investigating committee, with full powers, ready to go on call to any part of the State, would be a most popular institution.

Gov. Holcomb of Nebraska, in an excellent message, week before last, vetoed the bill providing for the payment of a bounty from the State treasury on sugar manufactured from beets. He withheld his approval on the ground that the act was "in the nature of class legislation and of doubtful constitutionality," and pointed out that through it the rights of property of the many who do not raise beets were invaded, and their means taken to advance the welfare of those who are engaged in this business. The Governor went to the executive office from the Supreme bench, and he showed clearly that the great weight of judicial authority was against the constitutionality of the measure. On grounds of the public welfare he opposed the proposition as inaugurating a policy which would inevitably cause other industries to "knock at the door of each recurring Legislature, praying for the stimulus of a bounty to be taken from the pockets of the people," and he declared that such bounties could as reasonably be asked for irrigated land, alfalfa fields, manufacturing plants, and numerous other enterprises as for the raising of a single agricultural product. Unfortunately, the Governor's message was addressed to legislators who were not open to conviction, and the bill was passed again over his objections by more than the requisite three-fifths vote.

Civil-service reform makes progress not merely by such a great victory in an election as was won in Chicago on Tuesday week, but also by the steady acceptance of its principles as they apply to a host of important offices under the federal Government all over the country. For example, a new postmaster has just been appointed in Cincinnati. Under the spoils system as it prevailed fifteen years ago, such a change would have involved a "clean sweep" among the scores of employees, and the substitution of a Democrat for every Republican. But under the civil-service law the new incumbent finds that he can make appointments to only four places, all the rest being subject to competitive examination; and he says that he is "glad of it." So is the whole business community. As for the spoilsmen, they are fast losing their interest in changes among heads of offices, when almost every subordinate position comes under the merit system. In this way public sentiment in one city after another is coming to accept civil-service reform as the natural and proper thing.

English politics is at that stage of the game when the finest points of play count the most, and it looks as if the Conservatives were doing their full share of the blundering. Their relations to the Liberal-Unionists are strained almost to the breaking-point over the speakership question, and particularly over candidates for two vacant seats in the House. Mr. Courtney might have been chosen Speaker if his own party colleagues would have supported him. The Government offered him the nomination, but Mr. Chamberlain, who is now about as stiff a Tory as he is a socialist, would not have it, and forced the separate nomination of a Tory, Sir Matthew Ridley. Then there is the bye-election for Warwick and Leamington, a Liberal-Union seat, notwithstanding which the Tories persist in running a candidate, in violation, so it is asserted, of the compact of 1886. Mr. Balfour has tried to stop this, but the hot-headed young Tories will not listen to him, and say they are going to win every seat they can, Liberal-Unionist or not. If this spirit of triangular fighting should be carried into the next general election, the Conservatives would be dished. So they will be, even more surely, if Balfour succeeds in committing his party to bimetallism. His Mansion House speech on Wednesday week will have to be repudiated by the Tories, or else he will have to be repudiated. Sir William Harcourt is entirely ready to see the Philistines delivered into his hands on that question, and a campaign for the gold standard, a Radical budget, Welsh disestablishment, and Irish home rule could have only one result in Great Britain.

There has undoubtedly been a little more amity in the relations of France and Germany of late. Kaiser William's telegram of sympathy at the time of Carnot's assassination was well received in France, as was his pardon of the French officers caught suspiciously beyond the frontier. Artistic intercourse has been resumed to a certain extent: the French painters exhibited at Munich last year and will exhibit at Berlin this year, and Wagner and Sudermann win triumphs at Paris. These mollifying influences have had the effect of leading many people to ask what real reason there is why Germany and France might not be good neighbors, and "symposia" on the subject have been printed almost simultaneously in the two countries—in the *Rundschau* and in the *Mercure de France*. Like most affairs of the kind, these gathered views of professors and publicists abound in general expressions of benevolence, but show their entire futility and radical divergence as soon as details are touched upon. Thus, Prof. Dahn of Breslau says there is no reason in the world why Germany should not be on good terms with France, only the French must get over their foolish notions of "revanche." That has been the trouble all along. After Waterloo it was "*revanche* for Waterloo," and after Sadowa it was revenge for Sadowa, and after Sedan it was revenge for Sedan. If the French would only learn to pardon the Germans for having beaten them, all would be well. Not at all, says M. Spronck; the French have no ill feeling against the Germans. This talk of an inextinguishable race hatred is all nonsense; only, we cannot stand, no self-respecting people can stand, the violent annexation of a portion of our territory. There you are! Each country is willing and anxious to be neighborly, but there is really no living with the other.

THE INCOME-TAX DECISION.

THERE are several curious things about the income-tax decision. One is that, in the general opinion of the bar and the public, several decisions of the court had already settled that an income tax was not a direct tax but an excise, and by implication that Congress could, under the Constitution, call a tax anything it pleased, and that, therefore, the apportionment and uniformity restrictions of the Constitution had no particular value. So strongly was this opinion held that Mr. Carter did not think it necessary to say much about the law in his argument, but relied mainly on the sociological value of the tax, and the danger of interfering with the taxing prerogatives of Congress. Moreover, the public mind was deeply impressed with the idea that the court would on general grounds of policy never disapprove of any tax that Congress thought fit to enact, and that it rested with Congress to observe the constitutional limitations on its own powers. It now appears, however, that, in the opinion of six out of eight judges, the taxation of rents or income from land has, as a direct tax, not apportioned according to population, always been unconstitutional, and, more than this, that "in no previous decision of this court has this question been adjudicated to the contrary of this decision." So that the "stare decisis" bugbear goes at one fell swoop.

But now comes another anomaly. Of these six judges, two, Justices Shiras and Brown, held that a tax on rent or income of land was a direct tax, and therefore unconstitutional, but that a tax on income derived from any other source—labor, gains in trade, or interest on money invested in personalty—was not a direct tax, and as to these refused to find the law unconstitutional. As the court was equally divided on this matter, no opinion was written about it. But this is really a great misfortune, for there is nothing the public needs more than an account and explanation of this very distinction. If these gentlemen had said that Congress could make its own nomenclature for administrative purposes, and make a tax direct or indirect under the Constitution by merely giving it a name, our mouths would be closed. But they do not take this position. They say, as regards the rent of land, that it is the duty of the court to examine the nature of the income, and to see whether Congress has rightly named it or not, for purposes of taxation, and they found that Congress has here erred in its nomenclature. It would, therefore, be most interesting to hear from them why a tax on a salary, or on the interest on railroad bonds, or on money lent, is not a direct tax; what it is which enables Congress to follow up the man with a five-thousand-dollar salary and levy on him, while letting the ten-thousand-dollar land-income man go free. The silence of the court on this point may be technically proper, but it is, from a political point of view, damaging to the judges. Judges Brown and Shiras ought, for their own sakes, to seek some extra-judicial mode of letting light in on this mystery. It is causing much comment and much dissatisfaction and calling forth many uncomplimentary observations. The man who undertakes to show that a tax on income from any source is not a direct tax, has a very serious task before him, and cannot begin too soon.

The history of this tax, from its first appearance in Congress down to this moment, is one more very striking illustration of the folly of thinking or talking of taxation as a "science." The history of taxation from the earliest ages has been the history of the attempts of one class to make other classes pay the expenses, or an undue share of the expenses, of the Government. Aristocrats have always been trying to shift the taxes on to the people, and the people on to the aristocrats; the landed interest on to the commercial and the commercial on to the landed. There has not been a single instance of the coming together of a community to contrive a scheme of perfect fairness and equality for everybody. Every fiscal system the world has ever seen has been always in a state of convulsion through the efforts of some class of persons to prevent these taxes from being oppressive, or to make them unduly light. And no government has ever yet formally surrendered the claim of right to use taxation as a means of promoting or discouraging certain occupations, habits, tastes, and tendencies.

These notorious facts make our discussions of "scientific taxation" not exactly ludicrous, but extremely academic. Mankind is not ready, or half ready, for scientific taxation. Taxation in any particular case has to be judged by reference to the nature of the Government, the political habits of the people, and the relation of the different classes of which the community is composed to each other. No one can say whether any particular tax is good or bad till he knows who is to pay it and how it is to be collected. It may be said, *a priori*, that there is no civilized community less fit to-day for a direct income tax than the United States. It is a beautiful, scientific, Smithian tax, *in vacuo*. What it is in the very gross and palpable milieu in which we live, may be seen in the history of the tax which the Supreme Court passed on on Monday. It was concocted without notice by the highest legislature in the country, not so much to raise money as to punish certain people for being saving and successful and for holding odious views on currency. In the eagerness of its promoters to get it ready for purposes of persecution it was so loosely and hastily drawn as to be unworkable. When its constitutionality came to be examined by the Supreme Court, seven judges said one part of it was unconstitutional; six judges said another was unconstitutional; and they all divided evenly about the rest of it. So that if we said it had ended in national disgrace, we should not be far wrong.

CORPORATE METHODS.

THE references in the London *Economist* to the depreciation in the prices of securities owned in Great Britain, in which American bonds and shares are put in the same table with South American issues, leads naturally to a phase of the general subject that has had more than its due share of attention in England. We refer to the lack of confidence in our railway securities which the leading foreign financial periodicals are fond of attributing to fraud and mismanagement in the conduct of our railway companies.

It would be proper to challenge this oft-repeated statement of these London weeklies and ask how many railway bonds have been returned to us from this cause only. Foreign financial papers are often led astray in matters American. We know, for illustration, that all of them advised against the purchase of the recent issue of United States "coin" bonds. Scarcely a London paper spoke a favorable word; and yet the English investors, with an instinct more true than the fine-spun reasoning of their would-be advisers, subscribed for the amount of these coin bonds many times over, while the same bonds have since continued to advance in price in London. It seems difficult at times for the English financial writer to judge of financial and commercial matters in the United States.

We are far from wishing to say that fraud or dishonesty has not in some instances disgraced American corporate management, nor have we condoned such instances when made public. Yet two things may in fairness be said: first, that the majority of our corporations are well and honestly managed, according to the best judgment of the officers and directors, whose fault may be too great optimism as to business results; and, second, that what has been called mismanagement may in many cases be traced to the influence of our present critics, the Englishmen themselves. We need not go far to find illustrations. The present controversy in London over the affairs of the Grand Trunk Railway furnishes an example. That company has never been under American influence; its directors live in London and its officers have been wholly English; and yet the accountant reports that the Grand Trunk has systematically concealed its losses and overstated its income by carrying the deficits of its auxiliary roads as "loans" in its balance sheets—a trick supposed to be peculiarly American. It is also now shown that the Canadian Pacific, too, has in the past not stated its earnings correctly.

Even where no direct charge of unfairness need be made, it has in our history often happened that a particular transaction under condemnation arose as a result of a policy formed abroad. The affairs of the Louisville and Nashville road have for years provided examples. At times this company has found itself obliged to sell its bonds at very low prices in order to meet a pressing need for money—crises which were forced upon the company by the demands of English holders of the shares that the accounting should be construed so as to take from operating expenses or from branch-line losses every dollar which could by any stretch of interpretation be called a charge to capital. In this way dividends were alleged to have been earned and the money borrowed, until the lack of ready cash and the declining credit forced such sacrifices as we have just mentioned. The Louisville and Nashville is now, under American advice, charging all small improvements to current expenses, and is deducting some long-standing fictitious branch-line assets from surplus revenue; a policy begun not a moment too soon. If this company had gone on as before, and if, as a consequence, the shares had in time become worthless, whose would the fault have been? Very likely we should have heard a great deal of talk about "the lack of confidence in American methods" which such a disaster would have called from the London financial editors. The Atchison disclosures are fresh in the public mind, and public indignation is still directed against those who were immediately guilty. But, going back of these, who might claim to have inherited a policy from their predecessors, shall we say that the blame should lie altogether on American shoulders?

The wishes of those who have furnished a good part of the capital to build American railways have always had an influence, sometimes a preponderating influence, upon American management. The general demand of these foreign investors has always been for the payment of all possible returns, no matter what the future consequences might be. An income or preference bond, whose dividends are admittedly contingent upon success, will be drawn (as in the Reading case) so as to allow no earnings to be used for any other purpose, no matter how necessary. An example of this spirit is the remarks made by a shareholder at the Canadian Pacific meeting in Montreal last week. This gentleman moved that the operating expenses be reduced to 50 per cent. of the gross earnings, that all high officials be retained without salary, and that no stipend higher than $500 or $1,000 per year be paid to anybody. This same shareholder further suggested that half the stock be changed into 4 per cent. debenture shares which should then receive a dividend. Shareholders are not often as foolish in their remarks as this one, but those who are familiar with corporation affairs know that a dividend, no matter how obtained or at what cost to the future, is too often the only object aimed at; and that this is particularly true of foreign shareholders. If, under the stress engendered by such a policy, the directors should cause statements to be put out showing a fictitious prosperity, in order that the payment of dividends should appear to have been justified, we may, without pardoning their offence, say that the facts of the case furnish the explanation of their conduct. Of course, no American railway officer or director should allow himself to be put in such a false position, but the blame for the after results of such a policy should be divided with the foreign or domestic share or bondholder who insists upon the payment of interest or dividends in the face of commercial facts.

WELSH DISESTABLISHMENT.

The bill to disestablish the Anglican Church in Wales passed its second reading last week in the House of Commons by something more than the normal Liberal majority. This was a foregone conclusion. So is it that the bill will be thrown out incontinently by the Lords. More than one Conservative, when hard-pressed in the debate, fell back triumphantly upon "those in another chamber," who would see to it that the sacred cause, etc., no matter what the Commons might irreverently undertake. This new argument *a fortiori*—this taunting cry, "Well, you can't have it anyhow"—did not, however, serve to chill debate, which was warm and able on both sides. Though it is certain that the bill cannot become a law in this Parliament, its discussion brought out many characteristics of both religious and political life in Great Britain, and was far from being a mere beating of the air.

The argument for disestablishment was set forth by Mr. Asquith in a speech which Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, who followed him, was frank enough to call "an intellectual treat of no mean order." He began by showing that establishment in the strict sense of the term had been abandoned long ago in England. When heresy was a crime, and when a dissenter was exposed to every kind of civil and political disability, then there was an established church; but the moment the nation refused longer to support that kind of establishment, that moment it became a question only of expediency how much recognition should be given the church, and in what parts of the kingdom, by the law of the land. Now, here were the Welsh, by the test of segregation and language and tradition as separate a nationality as the Irish, demanding that what had been done for the Irish in 1869 should be done for them in 1895. That a great majority of the Welsh asked for this as an act of justice, there could be no doubt: thirty-one out of their thirty-four members of the House were there to speak to that point. The question was whether the law should continue to force three-quarters of the population of Wales to support an establishment to which they were hostile. It would be better for them, it would be better for the church, Mr. Asquith maintained, to grant their request.

The precedent of Irish disestablishment is a hard one for the Conservatives to get over. For the Irish bill even Lord Salisbury voted in 1869. The gloomy predictions made by the bishops then have distinctly failed of fulfilment. Ireland has not relapsed into heathenism, nor has the Anglican Church in Ireland vanished. On the contrary, it is stronger and richer than before disestablishment. One of the most effective retorts in the whole debate was the citation of the opinion of the Protestant Archbishop of Dublin, Lord Plunket, against his own brother. The latter, in a speech of old-fashioned and moving Irish eloquence, opposed the bill, but found it hard to explain why a measure which his brother, both as Bishop of Meath and Archbishop of Dublin, said had worked admirably for both people and church in Ireland, might not be expected to do the same in Wales. Lord Plunket affirmed that it was a peculiarly fortunate thing for religion that the church was not put in the position any longer of harrying Irish tenants for tithes at the same time the landlords were harrying them for rents.

The Conservative argument against the bill is made up of sentiment, of history, and of what we must call cant. For their sentimental attachment to the Established Church no one can blame them. Their fears that the next move will be against the establishment in England itself are not without justification. But the "entering-wedge" argument ought never to overbear considerations of present justice and political expediency. In history the Conservatives are mighty. The Welsh church is a national church, antedating the Reformation, and preserving an unbroken historical continuity. But if you say that the nation can do what it will with a national church, it instantly becomes, in Conservative hands, a private corporation. As one of the Liberal speakers humorously complained, when you talked of disestablishment, you were attacking a national church, but when you talked of disendowing, you were attacking private property. The canting argument was that venerable one, brought out again by Sir Edward Clarke amid the laughter of the House, that the establishment gave every Welshman the "right" to partake in the services of the church, and the privilege of "fairly and rightly claiming the consolations of the Christian religion." When one is able to point to many parishes where service is held only once a month, and where the audience is made up of the clerk, the sexton, the gamekeeper, and the servants of the squire—at the same time that dissenting

churches in the same place are full to the doors—the attachment of the Welsh to this precious "right" can be guessed. They would surrender it without a struggle, and take their chances as to the consolations of religion.

Mr. Asquith's appeal to the independence and dignity of the church itself was finely conceived. How intolerable was it for a spiritual organization to be tied hand and foot in matters both of ritual and doctrine by the interpretations of secular courts! In this sentiment he was certainly at one with the choicer spirits in the church itself, as they have seen, during the past half-century, the subtle and delicate things of ecclesiastical teaching and practice profanely handled by lawyers. How Dean Church groaned over this state of things, his lately published correspondence shows. As for political influence, vastly more might be wielded by the church if disestablished. One of the speakers gave a Radical definition of the union of church and state. It was the system under which we kick the parsons; if the union was broken up, the parsons might kick us. But it is vain to expect disestablishment as yet. The accredited spokesmen of the church will prove again their title to the love of the people by voting against the Welsh bill, just as they voted against the abolition of slavery and the slave-trade, against the reform of the penal code, the reform of Parliament, Catholic emancipation, the civil liberty of dissenters, and almost every other measure which marks the political and moral progress of the century.

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL REVIEW.

VARIOUS calls have of late made themselves heard, in the *Nation* and elsewhere, for a literary review—a sort of *North American Review* regenerate. Less public attention has been given to an equally distinct and perhaps more pressing need—that of a review devoted to pure history. Nobody knows precisely what "pure history" is: it appears to be the history that one is most interested in, in contradistinction to the history in which some other person is interested. Nevertheless, it is clear that there is no vehicle which conveys articles on history, as distinguished from economics, sociology, and political science. The transactions of learned societies are principally confined to their own members; the two economic journals and three reviews of political science offer a bare foothold to historical articles directly bearing upon their sciences. The illustrated magazines and the existing reviews subordinate history to other interests.

To be sure, there is always the *English Historical Review*, which one would as soon think of criticising as of criticising London Bridge: solid, substantial, useful, and mortal heavy—but the only thing of the kind in the English language. It, however, has not much relation with this country, its historians or history. If it be true, as Mr. Bryce is reported to have said, that in the United States is to be found the most active historical centre in the English-speaking world, that centre needs a mouthpiece. Such an agency has now been provided. Inasmuch as the proposed historical review is intended to be national in its character, and has already the support of a large number of representative men in all parts of the Union and in Canada, it seems suitable to set forth the plans that have just been formed.

The idea of such a review has lain in many minds; and a few weeks ago the historical departments of two universities, Cornell and Harvard, conceived at the same time and independently the plan of suggesting coöperation to others interested in history. The two tentative schemes were merged in a call signed by men representing six universities to meet in New York and discuss the question. Of the fifty persons addressed only two answered discouragingly, and a conference of twenty-six persons met on Saturday, April 6, in a room which the Reform Club kindly placed at their disposal. Most of the seaboard universities were represented, from Dartmouth to Pennsylvania; though only one delegate appeared from a Western university, letters were received from many institutions as far west and south as Texas and California, explaining that distance, and not lack of interest, prevented attendance. If there be other matters on which Yale and Harvard disagree, they fraternize on things intellectual; the Cornell lion and the Princeton lamb harmonize on history. Plainly the brotherhood of the colleges is advancing. Their connection with the literary work of history also grows stronger. Bancroft, Prescott, Hildreth, Parkman, Henry Adams, and Rhodes wrote their histories without direct connection with the colleges. Tuttle, McMaster, Winsor, and Von Holst have written in the midst of college work. Both classes were, however, represented in the conference. Five eminent historical scholars not connected with colleges were present, and others gave in their adhesion by letter.

The first troublesome question which the conference faced under the energetic chairmanship of Prof. Sloane was the financing of a review. The absolutely essential expenses of printing even a quarterly are considerable. No such periodical can flourish without the supervision of an able man, well paid for whatever time he finds it necessary to spend upon the review; to attract the best writers, payment must be assured for reviews and for some at least of the articles; and the cost of business management is to be reckoned in. To meet these necessary expenses various plans were suggested; it was felt that to insure the proper conduct of the Review, whatever publisher undertook it would reasonably expect a guarantee during the early years of the enterprise, and the conference therefore voted to raise two thousand dollars a year for a term of three years as a guarantee fund. Such pledges were at once made in behalf of the historical friends of several universities as to make it reasonably certain that the necessary sum will be speedily subscribed.

The question of management was also difficult. It is of first importance to invest the Review with a national character; on the other hand, it is essential to have a compact management, and to hold one person responsible for the details. The plan adopted includes both these advantages. The conference voted to create a board of advisory editors, to be responsible to the guarantors; that board to arrange for publication and to select a managing editor. The persons chosen for the preliminary term of one year were Profs. George B. Adams of Yale, McMaster of Pennsylvania, Sloane of Princeton, Morse Stephens of Cornell, and Hart of Harvard. A Western member is to be added. The choice of the managing editor has not yet been made, but it is expected speedily to pitch upon an active young man, well versed in history and experienced in book-making.

Out of several names suggested for the new quarterly, that of the *American Historical Review* was selected. It is understood that the new review will include contributions on any interesting field of history, and that it will recognize articles on contemporaneous events and institutions as historical, if written from the historical standpoint. In addition to the leading articles, hitherto unpublished documents will appear, both American and foreign. Especial attention will be given to reviews prepared by experts, both signed and unsigned, and to notes of current news about historians and their works and the historical activities of the universities.

That the *Review* will have the aid of able contributors is certain from the promises of support already received; that the guarantee fund will speedily be established is likewise probable; but final success must depend on the character of the work done, and the interest of the public in supporting a general historical periodical.

THE STUDY OF HISTORY AT OXFORD.

UNDOUBTEDLY the study of mediæval and modern history "flourishes," in a sense, at Oxford. During the last quarter of a century there has grown up a large "Honour School" (or Department) of Modern History (including therein mediæval); there are a score or more of hard-working history tutors who direct the studies of the "history men" in the several colleges and lecture to all comers; and every year more than a hundred men take their bachelor's degree "in history," commonly after two years' study in this particular field. And the School has gained not only in numbers, but also in academic respect. It undoubtedly still attracts a good many men who believe, with some reason, that it is easier to get a fourth-class in history than the pass degree; its numbers are swollen by the crowd of men who are practically coerced by their colleges into reading for "an honor degree," when probably it would do them more good to read for a pass. But it also appeals to an increasingly large number of really able men, especially among those who look forward to a political career; and it is not uncommon for men who have already distinguished themselves in some other department to seek additional honors in this. A first-class in history still ranks hardly so high in university opinion as a first in "Literæ Humaniores"—a department which combines classics and philosophy and ancient history in a manner theoretically unsatisfactory, but practically productive of some good results. But it certainly stands as high as a first in any other "school." It is, in fact, generally understood to imply not only ability, but also the acquisition of a solid body of definite knowledge.

The credit for this result is certainly due in part to the excellent tutors who have given themselves without stint to the work of instruction and organization. But that other causes have contributed may be readily seen from a comparison with Cambridge. The Cambridge History School, it is generally allowed, is by no means in so prosperous a condition. The chief explanation must be found in the fortunate dominance in Oxford of the influence of Dr. Stubbs, working in harmony with certain tendencies already strongly de-

veloped in the University. Dr. Stubbs had, indeed, no aptitude for teaching large classes; his work was rather to provide the material upon which teachers might work. In 1870 appeared his volume of 'Select Charters and Other Illustrations of English Constitutional History'; in 1872 the School of Modern History began its independent existence, apart from Law; in 1874 appeared the first volume of Dr. Stubbs's 'Constitutional History.' Now, in the School of Literæ Humaniores, or "Greats," as it is expressively called—in which most of the history tutors had received their training—the work of students had long centred in the exact and even verbal mastery of prescribed classical texts. There was an unconscious desire for something of the same sort in the new historical teaching; and with one accord the tutors fell upon the 'Select Charters.' Ever since, while English constitutional history has constituted the most important portion of the work of the School, the backbone of the constitutional history has been the 'Select Charters'—though it comes no later than the reign of Edward I. The interleaved and underlined 'Charters' found a congenial place by the side of the interleaved and underlined 'Ethics.' The fears which had been entertained lest the brilliant "essay" should give its tone to the School could now slumber; history became as exact a study as old-fashioned classical scholarship could demand; and Oxford was content. The subsequent development of the School has continued to be marked by like characteristics. In foreign history "special subjects" are set before the more ambitious students to choose among, and in each there are prescribed texts; even in political philosophy there are prescribed authors.

Far be it from us to condemn the exact study of original documents: it is, indeed, the beginning of wisdom. Before we let a student talk at large about the significance of Magna Carta, we may very properly ask him to show that he has read it; and, as it chances, the grammatical sense of its clauses is a matter about which it is a good deal easier to be sure than about their practical effect. But it is a pity when the study of a certain set of documents, however carefully selected, is held to dispense the student from further inquiry. And this has unquestionably been the case at Oxford. Anxious to get good "classes" for their men for the sake of their college, knowing that an intelligent consideration of the prescribed texts will suffice for that purpose, and fearing that there may not be time for anything else, tutors have, as a rule, refrained from suggesting anything else. And, accordingly, every year students obtain the highest honors Oxford has to give who have never so much as seen the outsides of Domesday, or the Hundred Rolls, or the Statutes of the Realm, or Madox, or Rymer, or Dugdale, or Ducange.

But to understand the present position of historical studies in Oxford one other important factor must be noticed, and that is the tutorial system. During the last thirty or forty years the tutorial system—itself the outcome of reform and academic earnestness—has become an engine of extraordinary power and velocity. With higher requiremen s for the examinations, with acuter rivalry among the colleges for distinction in the examinations, there has been a constant tendency for the hard-driven tutor to lose the ardor of science in the practical needs of the schoolmaster. And, of course, to such a teacher a neatly rounded body of doctrine, respectable for the authorities it relied on, was a great convenience. Out of the three majestic volumes of Dr. Stubbs's 'Constitutional History'—in spite of the uncertain sound they gave on some matters of importance—was rapidly collected a comparatively simple set of facts and formulæ. To piece them out for more recent centuries, recourse was had to the material so easily accessible in Hallam and Erskine May; and the edifice was complete.

We have been insensibly led into these observations by turning over the pages of Mr. Medley's new 'Manual of English Constitutional History,' already briefly noticed in these columns. It is an excellent specimen of the present Oxford style of approaching history, both in its merits and in its weaknesses. It is stuffed full of facts well chosen and arranged; it is severely business-like—no rhetoric here! And he who, driven by the thirst for a "first," "gets it up," will have laid an excellent foundation. On the other hand, it approaches so nearly to being the Dictionary of Institutions—each taken separately and traced chronologically—which the author longs for, that the student who trusted to this alone would have no inkling of the actual working of the institutional machinery at any one period. For, while it is true that we cannot understand an institution without knowing its earlier and later history, it is equally true that we cannot understand it without knowing its relation to contemporary conditions. Still, the weaknesses of the volume are almost redeemed by the quite new interest which is shown in recent historical work outside tutorial lines. On several fundamental points Mr. Medley does what would hardly have been dreamed of a few years ago—gives a fair statement of opposing arguments, and attempts a judicial balance. It is significant that almost all the names of living scholars cited by him belong to men outside the tutorial circle. Perhaps a period is approaching of Reconstruction. Hitherto, however, the office of Oxford has been to hand on "the deposit of faith"; and we are not altogether without fear that even a reformed constitutional history may prove pliable to tutorial exigencies.

POLITICAL STAGNATION.

London, March 21, 1895.

There must be some incentive to the present extraordinary interest in the life of Napoleon, apart from the recent publication of memoirs relating to his times. Might we not suggest the longing of the human mind for something decided, for something dramatic, to consider and rest upon, in the present platitude of political and social affairs? There is no great hope now vividly before the civilized world; there is now no great personality from whom much appears to be expected; and there have been bitter disappointments and disillusionings. Few could now sing with the enthusiasm prevalent in the forties of the "good time coming." The preparations for war are greater than they ever were before. Cries for economy and retrenchment carry few with them. The great manufacturing centres of England, once the nursing-homes of Liberalism, are hotbeds of Conservatism. Affairs in Italy are a disappointment. Few now feel, as did Mr. Bradlaugh and others twenty-five years ago, that republicanism is at all imminent in these countries. Neither France nor Brazil is an encouragement to immediate change, however much we may feel assured that republicanism is the only principle upon which states can in the future safely rest.

Great economic principles, again, are questioned to a degree that they do not appear to have been a quarter of a century ago. Who could have believed, in the fervor of the free-trade agitation under Bright and Cobden, that protection fifty years thence would fetter commerce in some respects more firmly than ever—especially in the free colonies of the mother of free trade? We are compelled to the sad conclusion that it was self-interest and not principle that carried free trade—for since then in British communities no abstract economic principles appear sufficient to withstand the force of supposed self-interest. I know of scarcely anything more discouraging on this side of late years—anything more illustrative of the truth that life upon all points must be a perpetual contest, that humanity can never hope to rest on its oars and glide down the stream of time in happy unison regarding any great principle—than the establishment within the last few months of the Bimetallic League, a powerful organization, numbering among its vice-presidents and upon its executive council scores of members of Parliament, many of them most able and clear-sighted.

There is, however, no warrant for our taking a pessimistic view of human affairs. Men and women were, upon the whole, never freer and happier. But, being freer and happier, they are not generally progressing on the lines anticipated by ardent reformers. If there is more temperance than formerly, there are more intoxicants consumed, the interests concerned in their production and distribution are more powerful than ever. The publication of newspapers has vastly increased, yet a larger proportion than ever of those newspapers is devoted to sport and betting. Here, at least, judging by such newspapers, fifty are interested in a cricket-match in Australia for one really concerned regarding the atrocities perpetrated in Armenia—atrocities for which, by its support of the Power that commits them, this country is primarily responsible. There can be no more striking exemplification of the current political deadness than the calmness with which news of the events now proceeding under Turkish rule is received. The *Speaker* writes:

"When we look back to 1876, and recall the great uprising of public opinion in that year, and compare it with the lethargy which prevails to-day, we are filled with surprise. . . . The motive for it is just as great as it was in 1876. The same cruelties are going on, and they are going on now, as they went on then, because English statesmen and the English people have made it possible for the Turks to commit them."

The indefiniteness of the result of the last election here may have something to do with the present depression and apparent hopelessness. Parties have been so nearly balanced. Only such reforms have been carried as the Conservatives did not vehemently oppose. Mr. Balfour's or Mr. Chamberlain's utterances upon any subject affect more its ultimate acceptance or rejection than anything that can be said by Sir William Harcourt or Mr. Morley. The Conservatives exercise their influence principally through the Lords; but public opinion has not shown any disposition effectively to deal with the constitutional powers of the Lords. The ultimate effect of Liberal measures passed for Great Britain generally appears to be to turn the beneficiaries into Conservatives. The recent County Council elections are a remarkable illustration of this tendency.

Mr. Parnell's fall and the subsequent divisions in the Irish ranks have had a depressing effect. We miss Mr. Gladstone's strength and buoyancy and lofty breadth of view. The

Liberal leaders have set the pace rather by their more cautious than by their advanced and energetic adherents. The increase of the electorate, the congested condition of Parliamentary business, the power of the "interests," the labor question, have further tended to induce a feeling of helplessness and lassitude. Under a restricted franchise it appeared possible to reach the electors regarding any great question, concerning any great wrong. The task of rousing public opinion is now almost herculean. Formerly it was sufficient to win a few great centres. Now the electors must be followed into every hamlet and every local gathering—with the possibility that, after all is said, some local interest, some local whim, may prove more powerful in influencing votes than the finest principles best expounded. The defective constitution of Parliament for the despatch of business must before long make itself apparent to all: six hundred and seventy men, every one of them with the power of having his finger in every other's pie; three principal nations, aggregating thirty-eight millions, with different histories, different customs, different religions, different laws, generally legislated for by separate acts; the representatives of two lounging in the lobbies, smoking-rooms, libraries, and at the bars while the affairs of the third are being discussed, and then voting not according to knowledge, but in answer to party exigencies, personal friendships, or political and religious prejudices; a Parliament responsible for the life, liberty, and happiness of three hundred millions of the human race in India. "We are all members for India," complacently declares the secretary for that continent, in answer to an appeal that there should be some influential native representative on the Indian Council; yet when the affairs of India come up for discussion, these, her members, clear out and leave decisions on the most vital questions mainly to officials and ex-officials. There is an entire absence of proportion in the time and attention given to affairs. Parliament is becoming more and more paralyzed. The individual member is increasingly helpless. All this has a deadening and depressing effect on the public mind and conscience. Parliament may be in some respects ahead of other legislative assemblies in the world, but that is no reason for the neglect of reform where reform is necessary.

The "interests" are more powerful than ever—more upon the alert and better organized. We must recognize that with most men the chance of material loss or gain to them or their class or their descendants is a stronger impetus to political action than principle. Modern economic conditions have largely increased the profits derived from breweries and distilleries; the conversion of so many of them into limited-liability companies has extended the number of those sharing their profits. The prospect of disestablishment in Wales and Scotland brings the enemy very near the door of those interested in the maintenance of the vastly more important English establishment. The liquor interest and the Church are more than ever inclined to range themselves against the party of reform.

But if the selfishness of the classes tends to clog the wheels of progress and breed discouragement, no less so does the selfishness of the interests among the masses. It cannot be doubted that the withdrawal from the field of many able and once hopeful friends of progress after the next dissolution will be due to the difficulty of accepting principles now so largely in the ascendant regarding labor. Trade interests are, with too many, taking the place of considerations as to general interests. As I lately talked with one of the most enlightened and by disposition hopeful members from the north of England upon this subject, he deplored the decadence in public feeling. "Intelligent artisans of the best type, who used to be stanch supporters of Liberalism in the aggregate, are more and more shutting themselves off into the narrowness of trade and sectional affairs." This was, in truth, to have been expected. Reformers had no warrant for the belief that when the masses learned to read they would not at first prefer the sporting papers and *Police News* to the publications of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge; that when they came into their heritage of power and influence they would be less likely than their superiors in education and refinement to use their position for their own immediate gain.

These considerations must not discourage us. They are, however, arguments against littleness in politics, against delusive expectations that anything great can be accomplished except through steady work, to which no part of the mind or conscience should be sacrificed; except through the people at large really being worthy of, really desiring, those changes desired for them. If the individual becomes of less and less account in the progress of the race, the occasions become fewer and fewer upon which there are calls to dash ourselves individually against the bars of circumstance. We are each bound to do our part—there are fewer and fewer occasions for complete sacrifice.

The fate and fortunes of Ireland partake in the general apparent stagnation. There are splits and differences where once appeared an unbroken phalanx. The force of individual, trade, and class interests is apparent there as well as here. The country is improving everywhere under recent and expected land reform. I cannot recollect the trading classes in Dublin ever being more generally prosperous, there being fewer unoccupied residences in the suburbs. The opinions of those are unchanged who, through the past twenty-five years, have taken a prominent part in the struggle for home rule. Some are growing old; others are being broken down. As yet young Ireland is not showing much disposition to throw itself into the contest. It appears more interested in amusement. All depends and should depend upon the Irish people at large. If they have not the vigor to compel efficient cohesion, to fill gaps in the ranks, to keep up supplies, no amount of eagerness and devotion on the part of a few can carry the movement to success. The British Liberals have redeemed their pledges. The British people are showing much the same apathy regarding the Irish as on other questions of general importance. It remains with the Irish people at home and abroad to dispel this apathy. The modern study of sociology tranquillizes if it cools. Causes and leaders are what their supporters make them.

D. B.

Correspondence.

TRUST THE PEOPLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Until lately Chicago has been rather a doleful place for any man who believed in decent municipal government. The spoils system has flourished in a truly wonderful way from a time whereof the memory of man runneth not to the contrary, and it had become second nature to the average Chicagoan, on learning that a person had been appointed to a place in the city administration, not to inquire what his qualifications were, judged from ordinary business standpoints, but to wonder what primary the appointee had manipulated and for whom. A position like that of oil inspector, for instance, had always been determined, not by the applicant's knowledge of such sublunary matters as chemistry, etc., but by his "influence." Knowledge of political, not molecular, pull got the job. We had been brought up to believe that any man not a jabbering idiot could fill the position of sealer of weights and measures well enough; positions in the Health Department did not imply knowledge of medicine to any preëminent extent, and subordinate positions in the Law Department could be filled by any useful quasi-shyster who could be kept out of sight enough not to "hoodoo" his party. A sidewalk inspector ought, of course, to be able to see a hole in the ground, and a building inspector should, all things being equal, be able to see a difference between a brick and a handsaw; but it was no use in practical politics to put too fine a point on that sort of thing. With the help of the army and an occasional hanging jury, we managed to "grub" along.

The public had so patiently tolerated these abominations of misgovernment and incompetency that it seemed to be a fair inference that the public was satisfied. Of course, candidates of both parties made the usual profuse ante-election promises of a clean business administration, based on merit appointment alone—"catering to the better element," with the familiar post-election results. Administrations came and went, but the spoils system went on, seemingly for ever, until a few days ago, when the question was squarely submitted to the voters whether they wished municipal civil-service reform and decent government or not. The answer was overwhelmingly, "Yes." Fortunately the question was not complicated with "patriotism"; neither party undertook to twist the British lion's tail, and the American flag was not waved. To one familiar with American politics, such an omission seemed a little strange, but, so far as I am aware, it is strictly true. It was probably an oversight, however. Truly God moves in a mysterious way.

Reformers in Chicago had preached for many years to unwilling ears the advantages of civil-service reform, and some had become disheartened; but it is a satisfaction to an honest believer in democracy to feel that, after all, it is safe to trust to the good sense of the average American voter, when the issue is squarely brought before him. Ideas percolate slowly through his brain, but they do percolate. A simple but unfamiliar idea, when properly presented and reinforced by experience, requires about five years for a permanent lodgment in the popular mind; an idea like the tariff, when complicated by side issues like self-conceit (in the form of spurious patriotism) or fear (like the pauper-labor or the spurious-document dodge), requires about twice that time. Still, Lincoln was probably right in his reputed saying that it is impossible to fool all the people all the time.

E. L. M.

Chicago, April 4, 1895.

THE COLUMBUS ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial note of April 4, commenting on the spring elections in Ohio, you say: "Monday's elections indicated the reac-

tion against the A. P. A. movement which was sure to occur. Columbus has been the chief seat of the propaganda in Ohio, and the Republicans this week paid the penalty of encouraging the craze."

This is hardly correct. Along with many other cities, Columbus has felt the effects of the moral upheaval in New York, and has had this winter a Taxpayers' League and a Good Government Club—both active, and of course non-partisan. At the primary elections, neither party nominated a candidate for mayor that was acceptable to the reformers, and the natural result was an independent candidate, a tried and trusty city official, who was fully and definitely pledged to all the desirable things. He succeeded in getting enough votes to defeat the Republican candidate, and to elect, not himself, but—the Democrat. It was a hotly contested campaign, on account of the nearly absolute power which the mayor will possess, and the bitterness naturally developed by a triangular fight; but the A. P. A. movement played a very insignificant part, for this time at least. JOSIAH RENICK SMITH.

COLUMBUS, O., April 6, 1895.

IN THE GUIANA FOREST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was rather amused at reading the concluding part of your notice of my 'In the Guiana Forest' in the *Nation* of February 21. As I did not write a book of travels, it was not necessary to state "when the author's wanderings took place," or on what particular rivers and creeks he had "journeyed." The subtitle states that the book contains "Studies of Nature," and I have yet to learn that maps and dates are absolutely needed to elucidate such "Studies." Then, again, your reviewer states that "the book must be regarded as a poem rather than as a sober contribution to natural history." Possibly it may be a poem, but I hope it is something more. It is the result of twenty-five years' observation of nature in Guiana, not of a few weeks' or months' scampering over the ground. As one who has studied nature in England before coming to the tropics, I may affirm that the South American forest is a revelation. If I am too enthusiastic and a dreamer, put this down as the result of environment.

Yours truly, J. RODWAY.

GEORGETOWN, BRITISH GUIANA, March 19, 1895.

[The above letter gives place and date. Our complaint was that the book noticed lacked those very elements of definiteness which are usually found in every "sober contribution to natural history," and which especially characterize Darwin's 'Journal of a Voyage.'—ED. NATION.]

POOR PAPER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is it not time, and may it not presently be too late, to protest against the *wretched paper* which is now made for almost every use? It is not simply that our books and periodicals are printed on paper which tears at the least strain, and turns brown under a slight exposure to the sun, but you can hardly put up a bundle in ordinary wrapping-paper but it shall crack and tear under your hand. Already the librarians are warning us that the books of this generation will not survive to the middle of the next century because of the wretchedness of the paper, and only by careful handling can we get through our weeklies and monthlies without tearing them. When competition among paper-makers or among publishers issues in such results, is it not an intolerable nuisance?—Respectfully yours, H. D. C.

EASTPORT, ME.

A GRAMMAR-DICTIONARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Graglia's Italian Dictionary, universally used fifty years ago, contains all the essentials of Italian grammar, the book itself being a small quarto. My own copy was published in Paris in 1834, but there are later editions. It is possible to read all the classics helped by it alone, and it would be an admirable model if dictionaries of other languages are in contemplation.—Yours very truly,

CAROLINE H. DALL.

WASHINGTON, April 4, 1895.

Notes.

HENRY M. STANLEY'S 'My Early Travels and Adventures'; Froude's 'English Seamen of the Sixteenth Century'; 'The Revolution of 1848,' by Imbert de Saint Amand; 'Comparative Religion,' by Prof. Allan Menzies; 'How the Republic is Governed,' by Noah Brooks; and a 'Laboratory Guide for the Dissection of the Cat,' are in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

Among the spring announcements of D. Appleton & Co. are a 'Handbook of Birds of Eastern North America,' by Frank M. Chapman; 'Familiar Flowers of Field and Garden,' by F. Schuyler Mathews; 'Actual Africa,' by Frank Vincent; 'A Story of Primitive Man,' by Edward Clodd; 'The Beginnings of Writing,' by W. J. Hoffman; 'The Art of Newspaper-Making,' by Charles A. Dana; 'The Female Offender,' by Prof. Lombroso; 'General Sheridan,' by Gen. Henry E. Davies; and 'An Aide-de-Camp of Napoleon' (Memoirs of the Baron de Ségur).

From G. P. Putnam's Sons will issue 'The Ancient Egyptian Doctrine of the Immortality of the Soul,' by Prof. A. Wiedemann; 'Yale Yarns,' by John S. Wood; and 'Doctor Izard,' by Anna Katharine Green.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will bring out 'Explorations in the Mississippi Basin,' by Justin Winsor, and 'Critical Sketches of Federal and Confederate Commanders,' by John C. Ropes and others.

Miss Abby L. Alger's translation of Mme. Blanc's observations in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on this country will be published by Roberts Bros., under the title, 'The Condition of Woman in the United States.'

Macmillan & Co. have well under way a new edition of Wordsworth in sixteen volumes of the "Eversley Series," edited by Prof. Knight of St. Andrews, and to embrace the poems and the prose works, Wordsworth's letters and his sister's, and her journals.

Ginn & Co. announce for August a 'First Book in Political Economy,' for the use of schools and high schools, by Robert Ellis Thompson.

'Merrie England: A Plain Exposition of Socialism,' by Robert Blatchford of London, will be issued directly by the Commonwealth Co., New York.

Sixteen years ago Mrs. Salis Schwabe published in French her 'Reminiscences of Richard Cobden.' The work is now to appear in English, with the imprint of T. Fisher Unwin.

The third centenary of the death of Tasso will be celebrated in Italy with especial honors on the 25th of the present month. Many publications are announced for this occasion, among which are some of exceptional importance. The 'Vita,' long ago completed by Sig. Angelo Solerti, will be published by Loescher of Turin, in three octavo volumes. A critical edition of the 'Gerusalemme,' prepared under the direction of Sig. Solerti, with a wholly new commentary and a newly established text, will be brought out in a double edition, one *de luxe* and one popular, by Barbèra at Florence. And, lastly, the third volume of the *opere minori* of the poet, in the edition which has been begun by Zanichelli of Bologna, will make its appearance. This will be edited by Prof. Carducci, and will contain Tasso's plays.

Mr. Percy Pinkerton has had in mind the general reader rather than the scholar in preparing the volume entitled 'Matteo Bandello: Twelve Stories, selected and done into English with a Memoir of the Author' (London: John C. Nimmo). The heavy paper, the handsome typography, the olive-green binding are all appeals to the æsthetic rather than the learned eye. The literary workmanship also is of the same order. The pleasant, diffuse, vague, and unprecise memoir is unhappily of a piece with much modern English writing—*belletristisch*, the Germans contemptuously call it. The translation does not attempt to render the Italian closely or exactly, yet is in the main easy and readable. Where so small a number of stories must be selected from so many (twelve from two hundred and fourteen), there will necessarily be opportunity for difference of opinion on this point. We ourselves, for example, should certainly have included the gracious tale of Anselmo Salimbeni and Angelica Montanini (*Novelle*, i., 49), in preference to several given by Mr. Pinkerton. There is, however, but one indispensable story in the collection—the immortal one of Romeo and Juliet (*Novelle*, ii., 9)—and this we find here. Perhaps then, since the complete version of Bandello's tales, made by Mr. John Payne for the Villon Society, is far too rare and too expensive to be generally accessible, Mr. Pinkerton's volume may serve a useful purpose in introducing English readers to the manner of a writer who interested Shakspere, and who, despite his frequent grossness, had unusual art in so telling his stories that the plots should not be mere intrigues, nor the characters mere psychological scrap-bags.

Both parts of "King Henry IV." with "King Richard II.," in the delectable Dent-Macmillan pocket edition, have reached us; and the latter firm sends us also a new uniform edition of Rudyard Kipling's 'Prose Tales,' in six volumes, including 'The Naulahka,' in which the late Wolcott Balestier collaborated. 'The Light That Failed' makes another volume, while the remaining four consist of several tales. The typography is fair and open, and a blue-cloth cover, freely gilt, commends itself in point of taste.

We need only mention the appearance of the 'Statesman's Yearbook' for 1895 (Macmillan), whose years, numbering thirty-two, sufficiently speak for it. The list of non-official publications concerning this country has been pretty well purged, but there are still some titles that could be spared to make way for Schouler's 'History of the United States,' the only continuous history of the Republic up to the civil war (and that limit will presently be

overcome). And Mr. James F. Rhodes deserves to have his first initial supplied in the line which designates his important work on the Republic in the second half of the present century.

The forty-second volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) ends with Owen, leaving perhaps a few names under the letter O to be carried over to the next volume. It is remarkably rich in names connected with this country, and two of the most interesting articles in the whole volume are those by Leslie Stephen on Laurence Oliphant and Robert Owen, the philanthropist. The Welsh socialist is summed up by Mr. Stephen as "one of those intolerable bores who are the salt of the earth." Further: "His son says that he was so like Brougham in person that he might have been taken for him; but, with a vanity as great as Brougham's, he had what Brougham unfortunately wanted—the power of making even his vanity subsidiary to his principles." The sketch of Robert Dale Owen is brief, and from another hand; it unjustly charges upon his legislation securing independent rights of property to married women a share in producing "the reprehensible laxity of Indiana legislation on divorce." Oglethorpe, the founder of Georgia; John Oldham, a New England worthy; Andrew Oliver, the Tory Lieutenant-Governor of Massachusetts, with Thomas Oliver, who built "Elmwood," the future home of Lowell; and the Fenian John Boyle O'Reilly, are other American personages of distinction. The naturalist Richard Owen is treated rigidly, with small allowances for his narrownesses.

Under the sounding title 'The Building of a Nation' (New York: The Henry T. Thomas Co.), Mr. Henry Gannett presents a miscellaneous collection of maps, diagrams, figures, and comparisons, bearing upon our political, financial, and industrial history. Those who have occasion to use a compend of this kind will probably prefer to take their statistics plain, as they find them in such manuals as the '*Tribune* Almanac,' rather than in the menstruum here provided; especially as Mr. Gannett's figures are now nearly five years behind the times, being for the most part derived from the discredited census of 1890. We quote with surprise the author's judgment upon our pension payments, of which he says: "Regarded purely as an investment, without considering its sentimental aspect, this money has been wisely spent."

From Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. we have 'Hull-House Maps and Papers,' by residents of a social settlement of that name in Chicago. Taking Mr. Booth's great work upon the poor of London as a standard, we are unable to attach any scientific value to this crude mass of materials. In spite of the benevolent motives impelling the authors of these papers, we fear that they may be doing more harm by persuading the poor among whom they labor that they are the victims of social oppression than they can do good by their lectures and clubs. The settlement appears to have been active in procuring the passage of the law in restraint of the right to labor, recently declared unconstitutional by the Illinois courts, and to be thoroughly imbued with the sentiment that in questions of wages no bread is better than half a loaf. While it may be necessary to prevent by law the overworking of children, it is certainly unjust to deprive them of their means of support without supplying some resource in its place. To charge those who accept lower wages "in order to buy comforts for an invalid child, or to add to the earnings of an aged father," with "crime" against their fellow-workers, indicates rather inadequate preparation on the part of the social guide.

From Brentano's comes a useful and curious little publication, 'Nos Artistes: Portraits et Biographes' (Paris: Librairie de l'Annuaire Universel). A page is allotted in alphabetical sequence to each actor or singer in theatre, opera, or concert, a portrait vignette being followed by a brief history of his or her career. The higher stage comes first, and then the cafés-concerts, circuses, and divers other shows. Less than a dozen biographies are grouped without portraits, but some forty of the profession declined to furnish the necessary particulars concerning themselves and be included in the gallery. At the end are some convenient lists of officers of the Dramatic Mutual Relief Association and the Playwrights' Association, of the danseuses of the National Academy of Music, the associates of the Comédie-Française, the wearers of the decoration of the Legion of Honor, etc., etc. New Yorkers will here meet Calvé, Melba, Eames, Van Zandt, the Reszkés, Nilsson, Sibyl Sanderson, the Coquelins, Réjane, etc. The American singers and actresses are not a few. The women in general boldly give the year and often the exact date of their birth, but some are silent as to that and as to their origin. One begins abruptly by telling of her début at the café-concert. Mme. Crosnier (1820), Mme. Laurent (1825), Mme. Brohan (1833) are among the veterans of the stage, active or retired. The address of each personage is given, and commonly the name of the photographer of the portrait reproduced.

Speaking of the elder Coquelin, who has just been sued by the Comédie-Française, from which he has retired, he was allowed his share of the *fonds sociaux* which the Comédie challenged his title to, for breach of contract. But his right to act at pleasure elsewhere in his retirement was denied by the court, which relied on "l'article 85 du décret de Moscou," which forbids every "sociétaire retraité," under a penalty, to play in any Paris theatre without the permission of the minister of fine arts. This was not abrogated by the decree of 1864.

The *Citizen*, published monthly in Philadelphia by the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, has now reached its second number. It is significantly in line with the large number and variety of journals lately sprung into existence for the sake of promoting "good government," as well as with the socialistic aspiration and movement of the day, while yet keeping its eye mainly on the diffusion of culture among the masses. As such it is entitled to every one's sympathy, and to support according to one's faith in the efficacy of the machinery or the attainability of the end in view.

A recent visit to the mountain republic of Andorra is described in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March. The travellers were obliged to ride from Ax, the terminus of the French railway, mule-paths being still the only means of communication between the six parishes of which it is composed and the outside world. The people, with few exceptions, are poor, and, though cultivating carefully all the available arable land, live mainly on the produce of their flocks and herds. Wealth, however, is apparently within their grasp, for the republic is "rich in iron and lead." They refuse to have these natural resources developed for fear that it would lead to absorption by France. They prefer their independence with poverty to riches and subjection. Commander Keane, in an account of the lower Zambesi, emphasizes the importance to Great Britain of this waterway, in connection with the lakes, into the heart of Africa.

An encouraging account of the progress and prospects of the British Central Africa Protectorate is given by the commissioner, Mr. H. H. Johnston, in the March *Geographical Journal*. The disordered condition of the country in 1891 is briefly described, together with the manner in which the raiding tribes were subdued and the slave-trade suppressed. Among the results of peace are the building of roads for wheeled traffic, a regular postal service between the different settlements, and the construction of a telegraph line. Courts of justice have been established, and the once hostile Yaos are being turned into excellent policemen. The natives, freed from the fear of the slave-hunters, travel hundreds of miles in order to work in the plantations or to settle in the neighborhood of the stations. In one district their number has increased from one thousand to ten thousand since 1891. The cultivation of wheat, sugar-cane, and tobacco has been successfully introduced, and there are now over five million coffee-trees in the Shire Highlands, the greater part being derived from a plant sent from Edinburgh about sixteen years ago. The trade of the country has risen from $100,000 to more than half a million. Mr. H. Yule Oldham's lucid statement in the *Journal* of his theory of a pre-Columban discovery of America by the Portuguese in 1447, based on a map of Andrea Bianco, is not convincing, and the almost unanimous verdict of the experts is "Not proven." Capt. H. Bower gives an interesting account of his adventurous trip to Chinese Turkistan, in the course of which he was shown an underground city made by tunnelling the high banks of a river. In it were found "some sheets of birch bark covered with writing in a Sanskritic character, and held together by two boards." These, fortunately, he bought, as they are believed to be among "the most ancient Asiatic manuscripts in existence." What their subject is he neglects to mention.

Games are, we presume, still employed as a memoriter exercise in history, literature, and language, and that they are still manufactured is shown by "The Table Game" of Hélène J. Roth, designed "to familiarize pupils with the names of everything that is placed on the [French] dining-room table," and by F. S. Zoller's "Das Deutsche Litteratur-Spiel"—both published by W. R. Jenkins.

—The second number of the *Sun*, the new Japanese magazine, comes from Tokyo, with twelve pages in English and over two hundred in Japanese, with an abundance of woodcut and half-tone illustrations and a rich freight of timely and able articles. Prof. Tsubouchi furnishes a thoughtful paper, marked by great erudition, upon the influence of the war upon literature. He shows that the outbursts of literary activity and the great books which usually follow a great war are indirect and collateral, rather than direct and immediate, results of vast military activity. In discussing the great commercial war of Asia, Prof. Iida warns his countrymen against the dangers which beset them on the conclusion of peace. It has been easy enough, he argues, to beat China at arms; but it will not be at all easy to excel the Chinese in trade, for the Chinaman is naturally and by long practice a thorough business man, while the Japanese are not, being mere tyros. After the war fever is over, there is danger that China will com-

pletely conquer Japan commercially. Prof. Kumé, whose paper is a literary gem, discusses the relations between the caste system and ideal manhood. In Old Japan there were two general classes, *kun-shi*, or scholars, and *shojin*, men of low degree. These terms are, however, only relative. It is because the Japanese have already partially broken the old caste system, throwing open nearly all social, educational, and political facilities and privileges, without regard to class, that Japan has beaten China in the war. He therefore urges that the relics of caste be allowed to fall into oblivion, that ideal manhood be cultivated, and that every soul, high and low, do something to make himself worthy of the name of man. His paper is not only a plea for democracy, but a pretty clear proof of how society is moving in "Everlasting Great Japan."

—In the interesting paper on literary men of the Meiji era (1868-1895+), we have a list of the names of 54 novel-writers, 75 poets in the Japanese, and 104 in the Chinese style, 61 essayists, and 23 newspaper *feuilletonistes*, whose works have won the greatest popularity. In the list of native authors who compose in the new or European style of poetry, we have 21 names, among whom we recognize several graduates of Cornell and other American universities. One lady writer, Mrs. Miyagi, writes what we might call an impressionist story of Japanese life, using a new kind of vernacular that bothers the orthodox native of Nippon as much as Couperus and his innovating confrères in Holland vex their fellow-Dutchmen. The names of eight Japanese who write habitually in English (the English portion of the magazine being furnished by them, and, we must say, in excellent form) are also given. In the list of popular books written during 1894 we find that almost all of the two or three score concern themselves with the fact or fiction of the war now in progress. Connected with the short paper, in English, on the study of political economy in Japan, we have a list of associations, publications, prevailing economic views, and a table of writers of the last and the present century, with their books and opinions classified, which gives an excellent bird's-eye view of the problem of economic thought in Japan. Other Japanese articles treat of biography, history, geography, fiction, fine arts, religion, politics, and divers other matters. Should the ability displayed in these two numbers of the *Sun* be maintained, Japan bids fair to be one of the literary rivals in the world's republic of letters. Hakubunkwan, Tokyo, is the publisher.

—'George Washington, Day by Day' (New York: Cycle Publishing Co.) has been compiled by Miss Elizabeth Bryant Johnston with the good intention of making the man better known. The method is that used in preparing a "literary calendar." For each day of the year three or four extracts from Washington's letters or diaries, or some experience dated or happening on that day, are given; and between each group of extracts is quoted some opinion of the man's life and character, taken from essayists and orators. The whole makes a quarto volume of more than 200 pages, and a few prints add an attractive feature. The matter, however, is often of the most trivial character, and the combination so haphazard as to give no sequence or suggestion of connection. Opening the book at February 25, we find the following entries: 1779, an extract from Thacher's 'Military Journal' descriptive of Washington; 1790, Washington's removal to a house on Broadway; 1795, nomination of Habersham to be Postmaster-General. This is neither biography nor history; and the reader will obtain a very confused idea of the man and of his thoughts or actions. Want of care is very apparent throughout. John Davison, an Indian trader, is made the "Half-King of the Mingoes." There was a half-king, but he was of the Senecas, and was called Thanacrishon. We do not recognize the *Marquis* de la Luzerne, or one Murilles, mentioned more than once. General "Heorth" is a bad typographical error, and "Secretary James Madison," recalled in 1796 from France, is a slip of a graver character. In refusing Howe's letter addressed to "G. Washington, Esq.," the General is made to say: "This letter is for a planter in Virginia"—a remark unsupported by any authority. Compared with Baker's 'Itinerary,' Miss Johnston's work leaves everything to be desired.

—The second volume of the 'Life and Correspondence of Rufus King' (Putnams) bears out the good impression made by the first. It is rich in new material, and the selection of letters shows care and discrimination. The abundance of matter is seen in the fact that only five years, 1794 to 1799, of King's career are covered in the 600 pages of this volume. The subjects treated are of high interest. The troubles of Jay's treaty and the expulsion of Blount from the Senate for treasonable intentions are of local value. As minister to Great Britain, King was called upon to deal with many questions: prizes taken by French and English; the "extraordinary facility in condemning" such captures exercised by the courts of both countries; problems of international law, such as whether fourpenny nails or osnaburgs were contraband of war; the impressment of seamen; the release of Lafayette and progress of Napoleon; and finally the rise of a black republic in Hayti and the schemes of Miranda, with a possibility of South American republics, and important effects to be exerted on the slave interests of the South and the commercial interests of the North. At all points King displayed tact and knowledge; and his treatment of questions which might lead to war is a model to be studied by the Jingo of to-day. The reader is impressed by the good understanding and cordial relations existing between the American minister and Lord Grenville—relations due in great part, as King frankly admitted, to Jay's conduct of his mission. Nothing could be in stronger contrast with the unfortunate X. Y. Z. affair going on at this very time in France, and which King describes.

—We wish we might have only praise for this work, but the hope of making it even better than it is leads to the noting of some faults. The reading of names shows carelessness. Helmsley is correctly printed on p. 200, but is "Hensley" on p. 249 and "Hemsley" on p. 314. Duverne de Praisle (387) is given Baisle (407), and in the original despatch it was as "Dunen" that he is said to have betrayed the Royalists in France. "Fæderal" is a very unusual form, and is probably intended for fœderal—in common use. "Lefayette" is plainly an error. Instead of repeating letters already found in this series (as Hamilton's), we wish the editor had included more of King's, making the set more distinctly his "Writings." Six of King's letters in the Wolcott and two in the Jay correspondence find no place in this volume. Nor have the Hamilton papers been thoroughly searched, as they contain the letters described by the editor as not to be found. Certain papers have not been collated with the manuscript, leading to misreadings and important omissions. Greene in Lodge is printed "Gunn" in King, and a similar difference makes *secure* in the one "prune" in the other. No less than four of the essays of Camillus in King's manuscript are in the Hamilton collection—a fact needed to make clear the editor's references to those essays. Letters are frequently printed out of their chronological order, and without apparent cause; while notes in brackets inserted in the body of a letter are extremely awkward. In a remarkable letter from Sedgwick (p. 193) it is stated that Beckley, made furious by his rejection as Clerk of the House of Representatives, published the "Reynolds" charges against Hamilton. If this be true, Monroe is in part exonerated from a very serious charge.

—Mr. Lecky, in his 'History of England,' says that "the majority of Irish titles are historically connected with memories not of honor, but of shame." Any reader who desires corroboration of this assertion, any person who wishes to understand the feelings with which the majority of Irishmen look back upon the Union of 1800, cannot do better than purchase Mr. Swift MacNeill's 'Titled Corruption: The Sordid Origin of Some Irish Peerages,' published in this country by the Putnams. Mr. MacNeill, for many years a member of Parliament, traces fifty Irish peerages to their origin. He makes himself responsible for the statement that "they are largely taken up haphazard, and are not cases of exceptional corruption, but are rather types of the character of the ordinary Irish peerage." They are altogether sickening recitals. The present holders of the titles should, of course, be judged by their own lives and characters, not by the doings of their ancestors. But certainly, so far as pride of blood and lineage is concerned, the humblest cottier of honest parentage has, if not more reason to be proud, at least less reason to be ashamed, than they. Mr. MacNeill would have recommended his case more to the general public if he were not so fond of phrases such as "immortality of infamy," "bloodthirsty Lord ——," "crime of the deepest turpitude," "high priest of corruption," and the like, which we find scattered through his pages. An index, at least of titles and proper names, would have made this little book more complete in itself.

—A few months ago Frau de Lagarde printed a short memoir of her husband, the late Professor Paul de Lagarde of Göttingen, for private circulation among his friends and pupils. In response to many requests, she has now published it substantially unchanged ('Paul de Lagarde: Erinnerungen aus seinem Leben.' Göttingen, 1894). The character of the book corresponds to the original intention of the author; it is not a biography, but, as the former title expressed it, "Recollections of his life, brought together for his friends." But the intimate and confidential disclosure of Lagarde's nature which is made in these pages will have hardly less worth for those who knew him only through his writings, especially as more than one aspect of his many-sided character and strong individuality is here brought to light which would hardly be divined from his works. Much of the value of these Recollections lies in the extracts from Lagarde's private correspondence, which have been made with skill and tact. The circle for which the memoir was written explains the fact also that Frau de Lagarde warmly defends her husband from the blame often cast upon him, that he was contentious and unjustly severe in his judgment of others. Se-

vere he often was, but never intentionally unjust; convinced, as he was, that truth and right were on his side, he could not but contend earnestly for them, but not from love of strife. His faults grew out of the best in his nature. More than in most men, his character was *one* throughout. The truth is, that Lagarde's heart was set on making the world over by far reaching reforms, social, political, educational, religious; but, as of old, the world would not. The many disappointments of his own career rankled in him with the poison of injustice; but the worst was the disappointment of the prophet to whom men give no heed. That he judged all the world harshly is natural enough.

—As is known to our readers, Lagarde's library, which he left to the Göttingen Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, to establish a publication fund, was bought by the University of the City of New York. It is very rich in works bearing on the Greek versions of the Old Testament, and in certain branches of Semitic study, and will prove very valuable to workers in those lines in this country. At the opening of the library in New York, April 29, 1893, Prof. G. F. Moore of Andover delivered an address on Lagarde's life and writings, which was printed in the *University Quarterly*, July, 1893. In her memoir, Frau de Lagarde has printed the greater part of this address, dealing with Lagarde's work as an Oriental scholar and theologian, as well as with his German writings. The brief sketch gives some impression of the immense range of his interests and labors, and of the quality of his learning. As an appendix to the volume, are printed two characteristic communications of Lagarde, containing a project for the reorganization of the Royal Society of Sciences in Göttingen.

GARDINER'S HISTORY OF THE COMMONWEALTH.—I.

History of the Commonwealth and Protectorate. 1649-1660. By Samuel R. Gardiner, M.A. Vol. I., 1649-1651. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

The first volume of Mr. Gardiner's 'History of the Commonwealth and the Protectorate' suggests reflections about two very different men—Mr. Gardiner and Oliver Cromwell.

What is the position which we ought to assign to Mr. Gardiner among the historians of England? What, that is to say, are the limits and the character of his genius? The time appears to have come for answering these questions. Among the living historical writers of England Mr. Gardiner stands now admittedly the first; for the Bishop of Oxford, since he was raised to the episcopate, has ceased to write history. It is an open secret, if secret it can be called, that Mr. Gardiner, from sheer fidelity to the great object of his life—the production of an adequate history of the rule of the Stuarts in England—has declined the Regius professorship of history at Oxford, and has thereby renounced the opportunity of succeeding to Arnold, to Vaughan, to Goldwin Smith, to Stubbs, to Freeman, and to Froude, and of thus filling a post which has been occupied by a longer line of illustrious men than probably any other professional chair in England. His fitness, let it be added, to carry on this tradition of eminence is universally admitted, and his refusal to forsake for a moment the work of his life has been deplored by all Oxford, and by no one, we venture to say, more sincerely than by the eminent teacher who has been appointed to fill the vacant chair. That Mr. Gardiner's devotion to his self-imposed task will have its reward, we may well hope and expect. There is every prospect that he will bequeath to England a complete and an absolutely fair account of the Puritan movement from the accession of James I. to the Restoration. There remains to be told the history of not quite ten years. They are years of immense importance, and Mr. Gardiner will find new opportunities for the exercise of his indefatigable research and of his incomparable candor. He will add much to the knowledge of even the most learned of his readers. His labors will go far to fix the ultimate verdict to be pronounced on Cromwell and his work. One thing, however, Mr. Gardiner will hardly achieve: he will not materially change his own position among historians His future labors, as they certainly will not detract from his fame, can hardly add much to his high reputation. We may now, therefore, form an estimate of his powers and their limits.

The limitations to Mr. Gardiner's historical genius are marked. He is not endowed with any dramatic power. The half-century of which he narrates the events is more full of striking situations than any fifty years in the annals of England, yet it may be questioned whether a single dramatic scene can be found in any one of Mr. Gardiner's volumes. The single exception which may occur to the reader is just one of those exceptions which prove the rule. The twenty lines or so which narrate the tradition of Cromwell's midnight visit to the body of Charles the First are a striking picture of a memorable scene; but in this instance our author merely repeats an anecdote handed down from Pope to Spence, and, to say the plain truth, the sensible reflections which follow this rendering of a weird scene spoil its effect. It would have been well if the story told originally by Lord Southampton had concluded (as with almost any other writer than Mr. Gardiner it would have done) the third volume of the 'History of the Great Civil War.' In the 'History of the Commonwealth and Protectorate' the absence of all taste for effective rendering of striking events amounts to a serious defect. The taking of Drogheda, the battle of Dunbar, the battle of Worcester, the escape of Charles the Second, are all told to the reader—we can hardly say that they are narrated. The facts are placed before us, but it takes some reflection to understand what they mean, or to realize what was the condition of England when distracted by a violent religious and political revolution. No doubt the tendency of many historians is to be too dramatic. They forget that, even in revolutionary eras, the ordinary life of ordinary men preserves for the most part the even tenor of its way. Still, it is quite possible to fail in reproducing the actual excitement of an age filled with passion. Whoever reads Mr. Gardiner's account of Cromwell's Irish campaigns will undoubtedly obtain a fairer statement of the facts than from any other English writer, but the facts themselves are hardly intelligible unless you allow for the atmosphere of rage and sentiment which gave them their color. No one will ever understand great crises in human affairs who does not allow for the force of human passions; and violence, prejudice, injustice, and all the long list of vices begotten of excitement and anger, seem to be all but incomprehensible to our historian.

Combined with this deficiency in the appreciation of violent feeling, there is patent, at any rate in Mr. Gardiner's later writings, a minor fault which mars the effect of his narrative, and even, it may be suspected, occasionally vitiates his judgment. He looks at the events which he i studying rather in piecemeal than as a whole. There is a real danger of his becoming rather a chronicler than an historian. His 'History of the Great Civil War,' as also the first volume of his 'History of the Commonwealth,' forms a perfect *Annual Register* of the years with which his volumes deal; but a chronicle of events is not, and never can be, the same thing as a history. The object of an historian is not only to tell his readers what happened in a given period, but also to show how, and if possible why, events took the course they did. He ought, at any rate, to put transactions before us in their due proportion, and to show us what were the salient features of a remarkable era. Mr. Gardiner here falls short of his duty, and fails to exercise a power of clear and orderly narrative which he undoubtedly possesses.

On this matter it is possible to speak with confidence. Mr. Gardiner's 'History of the Thirty Years' War' constitutes a triumph of literary skill. We venture with some assurance to assert that there is no historical manual in the English language which contains a more interesting, a more succinct, and a more lucid narrative of a very complicated series of transactions; whoever masters Mr. Gardiner's pages has before him a complete plan, though, no doubt, only in outline, of the struggle which finally fixed the political relations of Protestantism and Catholicism. The extraordinary thing is, that the very points in which Mr. Gardiner excels in his short treatise on the Thirty Years' War, are the points in which he comparatively fails in his large history of the great Puritan movement. Throughout the whole of the little manual, consisting altogether of not more than 222 pages, intelligent readers must be constantly impressed with our author's absolute command of his subject. He surveys the Thirty Years' War as a whole; he never loses sight of its general character; he marks with unerring skill the crises in the contest. The causes of the events and their ultimate issues are always before his mind. No critic, however captious, could ever question, as regards the Thirty Years' War, either Mr. Gardiner's mastery of his topic or his genius for clear and orderly narrative; but as we read the pages of Mr. Gardiner's later volumes we feel as if he almost declined of set purpose to take a general view of his topic. Each event is narrated in its chronological order, but the bearing of one event upon another, the relative importance of different transactions, the causes and the results of the Puritan Revolution, though no doubt not absent from our teacher's mind, are certainly not forced by him upon the attention of students. He writes, indeed, almost like a man who does not know the end of the course of events which he is laboriously tracing out. Year by year he explores the transactions which chronologically come before him, but he writes of 1649 as if he still hardly knew what was going to happen in 1651, and in November, 1651, at which date Mr. Gardiner's last volume closes, our guide does not seem to have before his mind the approaching fall of the Commonwealth or the rise of the Protectorate.

No doubt, this defect is one which, like every deficiency of Mr. Gardiner's, borders upon a virtue. It is certainly not desirable that the mind of an historical inquirer should be diverted from intense attention to the period or even the year with which he is actually concerned by thoughts about the changes which the succeeding year will produce; and

there is no doubt that Mr. Gardiner's attitude as an historian is much influenced by the fact that he is as truly an inquirer as a narrator, and is devoting his great powers rather to research than to narrative. Investigation is, after all, a different thing from narration. The only thing which is the subject for legitimate regret is that a possibly too exclusive devotion to the discovery of what is unknown threatens to prevent Mr. Gardiner from taking his proper place among the masters in the art of historical narrative.

As we have said, however, there is not a fault in Mr. Gardiner's position as an historian which is not closely allied to some high merit. His determination to guide his readers step by step through each year of the Puritan Revolution is, we doubt not, due in great part to the perfectly sound conviction that you never can judge men fairly, especially in times of revolution, unless you keep steadily before your mind the precise date and circumstances of their actions. Words or acts, say of Cromwell's, bear a totally different complexion according to the date when they were uttered or took place. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that the Cromwell of 1647 or 1648 must be treated in some respects as a different man from the Cromwell of 1650 or 1651. In any case, it is certain, though this certainty is by ordinary writers always overlooked, that in 1648 he could no more foretell the events or the sentiment of 1651 than any one of us can in 1895 predict what will be the state of parties or of public opinion, say in England, in 1898. The narrow limits of human knowledge are sufficient of themselves to convict of falsehood half the alleged schemes of far-sighted policy or of elaborate intrigue which are laid to the credit or to the discredit of the great leaders of men, such as Cæsar, Cromwell, or Napoleon. The determination to stick close to facts, and to look at them in their undoubted chronological sequence, is not the cause, but certainly is the support, of Mr. Gardiner's great and peculiar merit—his unrivalled sense of historical justice.

One effect of Mr. Gardiner's judicial fairness is curious. No writer had ever less desire to convert men to his opinions. Mr. Gardiner is far too conscientious an historian to be infected with the vice of either partisanship or didacticism, yet no author has ever, we suspect, made a greater number of conversions. A fair-minded reader rises from the study of Mr. Gardiner's books not so much with changed opinions, but, what is rather a different thing, with changed views. He learns, for instance—and learns in a way which it is impossible to forget—that the attitude of different parties throughout the Civil War, no less than throughout the period which led to it, was perfectly natural. The attitude of James and Charles, of Laud and of Strafford, was as much the natural outcome of their training and position as the attitude of Pym or Hampden or of Fairfax or Cromwell. It is perfectly plain that neither all the virtues nor all the vices were to be found exclusively among Cavaliers or among Puritans. What is even more noteworthy, because it is constantly forgotten, is that during the Puritan Revolution the choice of sides was a matter of great difficulty which might well perplex the wisest and the fairest of men. A revolution of some kind was inevitable. The defect of the Stuarts was that they understood neither the characters of men nor the course of events; they might have guided a revolution which they tried without any great skill to withstand, but what was the exact change required by the time is a matter which even now is open to discussion, and certainly could hardly be decided by any statesman of the seventeenth century. In a vague way we can see that freedom was the cure for the political, and toleration the one remedy for the religious, evils of the age. But the one thing certain, at any rate from the outbreak of the Civil War, was that every change was full of possible danger. The triumph of Charles meant despotism; the triumph of the Presbyterians meant the tyranny of an ecclesiastical party with which the majority of Englishmen had no sympathy. The success of a few ardent Republicans very possibly involved at once despotism and anarchy. The rule of Cromwell led inevitably, though much against his will, to the supremacy of the army.

All the inherent difficulties of the situation are forced by Mr. Gardiner upon the attention of students, and the more these difficulties become apparent, the more tolerant students must become towards the leaders by whom an unprecedented crisis had to be faced. We learn by this means to sympathize not only with the greatest men of the time, but also with the men who played a considerable, though secondary, part on the stage of history. To take as two examples of this Hugh Peters and Fairfax. We soon become convinced by Mr. Gardiner that the Puritan preacher was a very different sort of man from the sour fanatic with which, absurdly enough, he has been identified, and Fairfax appears in his true colors as, next to Cromwell, the greatest of Puritan soldiers. He is just one of those men whose virtues are passed over by zealots or advocates, but are recognized, in calm language the effect of which is the greater for its calmness, in the judicial pages of Mr. Gardiner's history. The truth is, that he is at his best when dealing with men who, though noteworthy, are not quite the leading spirits of the time. Whether he can draw a satisfactory portrait of such a leader as Cromwell is perhaps open to doubt. The time for summing up the character of the Protector has not yet arrived. Mr. Gardiner has already done much, however, to facilitate a fair estimate of the Puritan hero. In our next article we shall attempt to point out the conclusions which Mr. Gardiner's History suggests with regard to Cromwell.

JOHN ADDINGTON SYMONDS.

John Addington Symonds: A Biography. By Horatio F. Brown. With portraits and other illustrations. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

It is not easy to predict under what aspect the subject of this biography will especially interest future generations. To us, at the close of this century so curious of the study of character and so engrossed in theories of education, the story of this outwardly uneventful life is extremely interesting as a subject for psychological study, and as the most instructive example of a sort of culture which has no exact parallel in past ages.

Considered from without, the life of John Addington Symonds has nothing to distinguish it from many another devoted to literary pursuits. He was well—or at any rate much—educated; he was always in easy circumstances; he wrote many successful books under great but not unparalleled disadvantages due to ill health; he did what good his hand found to do; and he is at rest. But as soon as we lift the curtain of this outer life, we look upon a world agitated by volcanic storms of the most terrific character. It is as though one should break through the cold crust of the globe and peer into the molten, seething core of it. Symonds was the son of an eminent physician of Bristol, who lived on a footing of equality with the great scientists and scholars of his time. From him he inherited an acute and ever active intellect, and from his early-lost mother a distinctly neurotic temperament; a combination of the most dangerous sort. The working of his mind was preternaturally active and incessant, so that, from his very childhood, it was constantly outrunning his nerve-force, as if he were using more of the "gray matter" of the brain than nature could normally supply. Even while he was a mere schoolboy, that overwrought brain more than once stopped short in the midst of its work, like an overtaxed locomotive compelled to stand still and "make steam" for a further pull. For even "Tired Nature's sweet restorer, balmy sleep," was neither sweet, nor restorative, nor balmy to this precocious boy. Nightly terrors, somnambulism, or insomnia too often filled the hours when Nature should have been doing her work of restoration.

All this made him singular and morbidly sensitive; and these conditions, again, raised a barrier between him and most of the boys with whom he lived, which, of course, only made matters worse. These evils were fostered by the wealth of his family, by the admiration of his sisters for an only brother, and by the fact that his father, although disposed to do what he could for the motherless boy, was precluded by his own crowded life from giving him that constant personal attention which his mental even more than his physical condition required. At the age of nineteen we find him at Oxford in a circle of brilliant men, among whom the late Prof. Jowett was the most prominent figure, forcing his restless brain to keep pace with vigorous minds to which the severest intellectual gymnastics had long ceased to be a dangerous effort, like a young wrestler who brings his adolescent muscles into competition with the iron thews of the mature athlete. At twenty he won the Newdigate prize for English poetry; and he was graduated soon after in course with very high, though not the highest, honors. As might have been expected, the young man paid dearly for the killing pace which he had been keeping up. He had just won a fellowship at Magdalen, after failing to secure one at Queen's College, when he totally broke down and was sent for the third time to recruit his health by foreign travel.

Soon after this crisis, Symonds was married to his truly incomparable wife, to whom every reader who can read between the lines of this too discreet biography will easily discover that he owed, directly and indirectly, all the real happiness that ever came to him. From the psychological point of view this event marks the close of what in a certain sense we might call the unconscious period in Symonds's life. Although painfully addicted from his earliest days to introspection, he seems not to have discovered until now what he himself calls the "sophistication of his existence." His sufferings at this time are painful to read of. Religious doubts, the natural fruit of his education, wrung his very soul. Doubts but little less harrowing hung round all the ideals of his young ambition. He was ill, constantly weary, oppressed by a sense of utter failure, and yet not content to "sprawl," as he terms it, under the burden of his calamities, but pursued by a desire to distinguish himself in literature, and, at the same time, more and more conscious of those failings with which

his critics have taxed him not more severely than he taxed himself. In these circumstances Walt Whitman, the very type of whatever was most opposite to his Oxford training, seems to have helped him; and if, at a later time, he showed an undue appreciation of that remarkable author, the fact must be ascribed to his gratitude for this service. To Whitman, and, no doubt, to the wise counsels of his young wife, he owed the first distinct revelation that "nature is more than art, life more than culture," and therefore that duty well done—"drudgery" he still calls it—is the great panacea for all mental troubles to the sons of Eve.

We cannot further pursue a psychological inquiry which would carry us far beyond our limits. We only add that in proportion as definite endeavor made Symonds more the slave of duty, and in proportion as his nature was purified from the common taint of selfishness by his family relations and by the interest which he took in the people of Davos, where his weak lungs had fixed him, he became happier and less rebellious against his limitations. Let us not forget what they were. In the poorest health, and condemned by the best English doctors to an early death, he found his chief comfort in literary work; and while his tastes led him to a field of labor where accuracy is of prime importance, he, recognizing that importance in the fullest degree, was painfully aware of his inaccuracy, which was probably inevitable, and of which he was disposed to exaggerate the extent. He never forgot that he had been "plucked" at "smalls" because he could not accurately conjugate two simple Greek verbs. While he felt so keenly on this subject, his life as an invalid exiled for years from libraries and from contact with living scholars cut him off from all means of correcting this fundamental fault. Many of his works were written at a distance from all books of reference, often upon some hotel table far from that circumambient atmosphere of the study which does so much for the writer, and especially for one so open to external impressions as Symonds was. Yet, in spite of these and many more difficulties which most persons would regard as a sufficient excuse for absolute idleness, Symonds worked on, to the day of his death, with a patience, a courage, an enthusiasm such as might shame the most advantageously situated scholar.

When we turn from Symonds's inner life to consider that overwrought Oxford culture which was his bane, it may be objected that we have no right to judge of it from the effects on a nature so peculiarly sensitive. We answer that it is precisely in a nature where that particular culture worked unrestrained that we can hope to see its legitimate consequences. Symonds said it all when he spoke of his sophisticated existence. The very essence of this sort of culture, happily not the only one pursued in England, nor even at Oxford, is the sophistication of existence through the overstimulation of the æsthetic sense. Hyperæsthesia is the medical name for a morbidly active physical sensibility. There is no better word to express the morbid activity of the moral æsthetic sense superinduced by such overtraining. The contemplation of the beautiful in art is one of the noblest occupations of the mind; but the hair-splitting, minute, ceaseless analysis of Beauty, the concentration of all the mental powers on the vivisection of the butterfly Taste, the perpetual elevation of æsthetics above every other object of thought, can only produce monstrosities. "I am nothing if not cultivated," said Symonds of himself. Of others it might be said that they are nothing *except* cultivated. Whether it be the mannikin produced at Oxford or his analogue as we see him reared in the "brainy" circles of Boston, this tamer Frankenstein monster made of dead fragments from every literary churchyard is no product of nature. One would like to prick the artificial thing in order to discover whether it is stuffed with sawdust or with bran. By such busy spiders of "culture" all beauty, natural and artistic, is covered with cobwebs many deep. But if the great things of genius do not speak to our souls in their own naked beauty, how shall we ever discern them through all their dusty cobwebberies?

It was here that Whitman helped Symonds by the very fact of his robust brutality; and it is curious to note that Emerson, when, after some hesitation, he sent the 'Leaves of Grass' to Carlyle, appears to have found in it the very qualities which made it serviceable to Symonds. He spoke of the book as "a nondescript monster, which yet had terrible eyes and buffalo strength." It was those eyes and that buffalo strength that Symonds wanted. His was the weary, pampered stomach so well described by Horace as craving strong, coarse food—

> "perna magis ac magis illis
> Flagitat immorsus reflci, quin omnia malit
> Quæcumque immundis fervent allata popinis."

It is not surprising that Symonds should have looked upon Whitman as one who had rendered him the greatest service, the like of which no physician less coarse or more reticent could have rendered to such a patient. And we need seek no different explanation of the infinite good that came to Symonds from prolonged attrition with the simple folk of the Graubunden. Without the (to him) salutary shock of Whitman's brutalities, the milder vulgarities of their rather sordid peasant life might perhaps have disgusted without healing him. After he had once learned to disbelieve in Brummagem idols and papier-maché arks of the covenant he was ready for contact with the simplicities of unsophisticated existence. To come from the suffocating atmosphere of dilettantism into free contact with real lives was like passing from the close air of a ballroom into the pure coldness of a winter night. Perhaps he overdid the cure. It is remarkable, at least, how, after some years of the Davos life, Symonds turns away from the best products of the Oxford soil, and becomes intolerant even of Pater's "precious sentences."

The author of this biography has done his work well. He has mostly allowed Symonds to describe his inner life in his own words, only here and there interposing to correct, by the aid of some contemporaneous document, the mistakes of the writer's retrospection after many years and in altered circumstances. Nothing could exceed Mr. Brown's delicacy and discretion in dealing with those sacred things which some romantic readers will miss from this book. Nothing could equal the unfeigned humility of his consistent self-effacement, which ends by appearing excessive. And yet the work is perhaps somewhat too long. There is too much of certain kinds of illustration. One episode, the ten or more pages devoted to Jenny Lind, though interesting, is mere surplusage. The same impression might have been produced by a book considerably shorter than the two elegant and sumptuous volumes which the Scribners have given us. But it will not seem too long to the large circle of Symonds's enthusiastic admirers. For, with some enemies and some rather severe critics, Symonds had and deserved to have many firm and devoted friends. We cannot better close these remarks than with the last and, for once, true words of his epitaph written by one of them, his life-long friend Prof. Jowett; nor are there many that we should prefer to have engraved on our own sepulchre; "Ave carissime! Nemo te magis in corde amicos fovebat, nec in simplices et indoctos benevolentior erat."

RECENT LAW-BOOKS.

THE second edition of Prof. Wambaugh's 'Study of Cases' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is really a new book. The aim of the volume is to teach students "the methods by which lawyers detect *dicta* and determine the pertinence and weight of reported cases"—in other words, the use of the tools of the trade. The volume accordingly consists of a mass of elementary lore about cases, most of which is not to be found elsewhere, followed by a number of cases, without head-notes, for study. Besides this, there is a good deal of information on subjects which those who use law-books every day ought to have at their fingers' ends, or at any rate within easy reach, such as the proper method of abbreviating citations, and the chronology of the English reigns and terms of court. English and American law is case law, and if any proof of it were needed, it is that all the work of codification—*i. e.*, legislation with a view to reducing the volume of necessary litigation—during the past forty years, has resulted only in increasing the volume of cases. Why it should be so—why, at the very birth of the common law, we should find that atmosphere of veneration for precedent of which no other existing system shows much trace; why it should have perpetuated itself through all the later centuries of advancing enlightenment and reform; why to-day, in the teeth of the judicial legislation of six centuries, it should still be the fundamental assumption of the common law that the law itself has never changed, so that the best judges always resent the imputation of assuming to innovate—these are hard questions, to which no answer is to be found in Mr. Wambaugh's book, nor, so far as we know, in any other. But of the fact there is no doubt.

The common-law view of the relation of cases to the law has never been better stated than by Blackstone:

> "The judgment, though pronounced or awarded by the judges, is not their determination on sentence, but the determination and sentence of *the law*. It is the conclusion that naturally and regularly follows from the premises of law and fact, which stands thus: Against him who hath rode over my corn, I may recover damages by law; but A. hath rode over my corn; therefore I may recover damages against A. If the major proposition be denied, this is a demurrer in law; if the minor, it is then an issue of fact; but if both be confessed (or determined) to be right, the conclusion or judgment of the court cannot but follow, which judgment or conclusion depends not, therefore, on the arbitrary caprice of the judge, but on the settled and invariable principles of justice."

This is the beginning of wisdom. But although the law always remains the same, the major premises of the syllogism which make it up may be altered, and, strange to say, even reversed, so that a great English judge has called the theory so beautifully described by Blackstone a "legal fiction." The whole matter will be found fully discussed in Mr. Wambaugh's chapter on the "Growth of Legal Doctrine." Whatever view we may take of it, one thing is certain, that it is the *crux* of English and American law. So long as it re-

mains such, so long will the study of cases retain its ancient and capital importance.

The law tends every day, as Sheridan said of Gibbon, to become, if not more luminous, certainly more voluminous. Where lawyers used to have digests and treatises, they now have not only these, swollen to appalling dimensions, but a cyclopædia as well; and therefore it will surprise no one to find published as a 'Handbook of the Law of Contracts' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.), in the "Hornbook Series," a volume citing ten thousand cases and containing over nine hundred 8vo pages. And let no one suppose it to be anything but what it holds itself out to be. A Digest of the law of contracts would probably contain a hundred thousand cases, and for convenient use would have to be published in ten volumes. In the Brobdingnagian domain of modern legal literature, Mr. Clark's treatise may fairly be called a handbook, and, so far as we have been able to examine it, a very good one. It is founded on Anson and Leake, and is one of a series of elementary treatises on all the subjects of the law, the principal features of which are to be (1) a succinct statement of leading principles in heavy type; (2) a more extended commentary, bringing out the principles; (3) notes and authorities; (4) problems and hypothetical cases to test the student's knowledge. In the present book we have, as a result, a sort of codification of the law of contracts, consisting of some three hundred sections, with a gloss amply fortified by citations. It differs from such a book as Stephen's well-known 'Digest of Evidence' from the fact that the gloss is not in the form of illustrative cases, but resembles the comment of an ordinary text-book.

For the same series Mr. Norman Fetter has written a book on Equity, and Mr. Henry Campbell Black on Constitutional Law. Mr. Fetter has managed to sum up the whole of equity in 204 rules and 335 pages, notwithstanding that some four thousand cases are cited. Mr. Black has managed to do the same thing for American constitutional law in 201 rules and 550 pages, and has cited only 2,800 cases. With Mr. Black's manner of framing rules we must confess we are not wholly satisfied. For example, rule 129, relating to the "taking" of property under eminent domain, is as follows:

"In order to constitute a 'taking' of property under the power of eminent domain it is not necessary that the property should be destroyed, or that the owner should be entirely deprived or disseised of the estate. It is sufficient to entitle him to claim compensation if the work or improvement for which this power is exercised deprives him of the ordinary, necessary, and beneficial use of the property, or if its value, for such uses and purposes, is directly and necessarily diminished by the work in question. *But he is not entitled to claim damages in respect of any merely incidental, indirect, or consequential injuries which his property may sustain by reason of the work or construction, where the same is justified by a lawful exercise of the powers of government, and there is no actual appropriation of any property or right to which he has a legal claim.*"

One would think from this and the gloss which follows that there was some simple and easily stated rule, uniform throughout the United States, on the subject. But the fact is, that the old rule was that property must be "taken" in the physical sense, and this produced so much injustice that in a great number of American constitutions it is now expressly provided that the land-owner may recover for damage without taking through the exercise of the power of eminent domain. In such States the law is the exact reverse of what it is here stated to be in the last clause of the rule. Mr. Black's formula may do very well as a statement of the result of the Elevated Railroad decisions in this State, which wholly changed the law here by judicial legislation, and assimilated it to that of those States which have amended their constitutions. The subject is one which needs a short historical statement in order to enable the student to understand what it means.

Prof. John Westlake's 'Chapters on the Principles of International Law' (Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan) is, as he says, not a treatise on international law, but "an attempt to stimulate and assist reflection on its principles." It contains essays on the relation of international law to law in general; on the equality and independence of states; on territorial sovereignty; on war, and on other subjects. We have not space to criticise them in detail, but may call the attention of readers to the very clear statement by the author of the claims of international law to be regarded as real law, and not, as Austin insisted, a branch of morality. Austin, in his anxiety to separate positive law established over subjects by a sovereign from everything else, seems to have overlooked the fact that morality, if we use language in its ordinary sense, deals with the relations of individuals with one another, while international law is a body of rules affecting the dealings of sovereign states with one another—rules which are (and this is the main point) commonly regarded as enforceable, and actually from time to time enforced, by *states*.

'Commentaries on the Law of Persons and Personal Property, being an Introduction to the Study of Contracts,' by the late Prof. Theodore W. Dwight, edited by Edward F. Dwight (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), comprises the topics included in the author's lectures at the Columbia Law School, "immediately preceding the course on contracts." It is designed principally for the use of students, but it is so condensed that we suspect that in delivery the text must have been much amplified. Prof. Dwight had indeed a far greater faculty for oral than for written exposition, and those who remember his energetic manner, and capacity for creating interest in a dry subject, will miss something in looking over these pages. The book is marked by conciseness and accuracy, and the editor has added such late decisions and statutes as the lapse of time since its completion has made necessary.

The second part of Prof. James B. Thayer's 'Cases on Constitutional Law' (Cambridge: Charles W. Sever) completes that important work (pp. 2,434), which is the most comprehensive and at the same time scientifically arranged collection on the subject in existence. This volume contains five chapters on the important topics of retroactive laws, the regulation of commerce, the impairment of contracts, money, and military law. The work is intended to be divided into two volumes. Careful directions to the binder will enable the possessor of the parts as published to have them thus suitably bound, and to avail himself of the excellent index, which almost atones for the omission of head-notes, exacted of the author by the demands of the Law School. We say author advisedly, for the skilful linking together of the developed steps of each topic, and the copious annotation from all sources, give this book the character of an original work. Although primarily intended for law students, members of the bar will find the book a great repository of information. We only wish that a copy of it could form a part of every editorial library in America, and that a careful study of the chapters entitled "Taxation," "The Regulation of Commerce," and "War" might be obligatory upon the economic or military writers for every newspaper.

Roman Life in Latin Prose and Verse. Selected and edited by Profs. H. T. Peck and R. Arrowsmith. American Book Co. 1894.

To the minds of many teachers of the classics there is a new danger threatening their particular branch of learning. There was a time when boys were made to read selections from the best ancient works in a thorough manner, as remarkable pieces of literary perfection deserving of close study not only for the style and method of their composition, but also for their contents and the beauties of their expression. This old-fashioned study, covering a number of authors, has been to a great extent abandoned in the endeavor to teach boys to read at sight in both Latin and Greek. In order to accomplish this highly desirable end, it is necessary to read large amounts of these languages, and the reading, it is thought, must be done in authors whose style and contents are comparatively simple. As a matter of fact, by far the most of the time given to classics at present in our schools is devoted to Xenophon's 'Anabasis' and 'Hellenica' and to Cæsar's 'Commentaries,' and many boys on coming to college can read almost anything that is written in the style of these books. But what follows? There are practically no books surviving and worth our reading whose fields of thought and whose subject-matter are so limited as we find the thoughts and matter in the above-mentioned works. Further, it is not very surprising that so few young men are inspired by the contents of these books to keep up the study of the classics beyond their schoolboy days; that they are repelled from the narrow and jejune fields which alone are opened to them in such writings. The fact is that this new system, carried to its present excess, leaves out altogether the element of the imagination, which is so strong in young boys, and which ought to be fostered and not starved out. It needs nourishment on *thoughts*, and it is extremely doubtful (to put it mildly) whether there are in the 'Anabasis' or the 'Commentaries' many thoughts worth remembering as such. But we shall be told that the boy can't understand the great thoughts of the greater classical writers. *Nugaris!* Who wants him to? As if anybody, least of all the learned, felt sure about the exact shade of meaning! The great thing to be aimed at is the enlargement of the mind and the extending of the point of view, whether in the study of the classics or of anything else. The power of reading at sight is all very well—invaluable, if you like, and a thing that must be had—but with it one needs something else. What a pity that a boy should get the idea that the Greeks and Romans were always fighting, or talking in indirect discourse, or staying three days in deserted villages! This sort of thing was avoided by the old and broader way of teaching. One of the ways of avoiding it was by the use of books of selections from a variety of authors and on a variety of topics, by such a book, for instance, as Felton's 'Greek Reader.' And it may be avoided in Latin teaching now by the use of a book like 'Roman Life in Latin Prose and Verse.'

This book, to be sure, is not intended for mere beginners in Latin, but how easy it would be to make a similar book for such; how many of them there used to be in the days "when

nobody had any Views." But this one might well be used to great advantage after a couple of years of thorough study of the rudiments. It need not, of course, be the only text-book; but what an opener of the mind it would be to a boy could he use it, say twice a week, alternating with the harmless necessary Cæsar! It begins with half-a-dozen pages of popular songs, charms, and nursery rhymes; then come some epitaphs, including the famous one of Scipio (not printed in cold type, but engraved, tomb and all, so that you can read it, as it were, from the stone itself); then selections from Ennius, Plautus, old man Cato's ideas on the treatment of slaves, Lucretius, Catullus (but in the next edition we want the poor little sparrow hopping all by himself down the darkling road by which no traveller, sparrow or man, ever returns); then there is Cæsar, but not with his armor on, we may be sure, for Profs. Peck and Arrowsmith are men of peace; then three dozen saws from Syrus, a letter from Cicero and some of his good talk about literature and about old age; then Virgil, Mæcenas, then, of course, Horace, a dozen pages of famous passages and his adventure with that bore—a story which nobody can meet for the hundredth time without stopping to read it through; then Ovid, Livy, Petronius's dinner party, Quintilian, Martial, Juvenal, Uncle Pliny on hydrophobia and doctors, and his nephew's letter about the stout old fellow's death during the eruption—also the story of the haunted house and the letter to Trajan about the Christians; next some extremely timely words from Gaius, the great professor of law, on the business capacity of women; next *graffiti*, including the little ass at the mill and the labyrinthus; then Hadrian to his soul, extracts from Tacitus, Suetonius, and Gellius, and in full the last will of the little pig. Finally come three Christian hymns, including part of the greatest of all, the 'Dies iræ.'

The great merit of a work like this is that, instead of repelling, it is sure to make the study of Latin more attractive to all young students, while stimulating the more ambitious among them to a desire to read more widely. Hearty thanks are due to the editors for the excellence of their selection of passages. These are drawn from the best sources and printed from the best texts. The short notes on the passages and the brief biographies of the writers are useful and correct. There are about fifty illustrations in the book, taken from ancient and modern works. Of these, the one called a "Roman Bride" must represent, we think, a Greek lady, and the picture of the so-called temple of Vesta were better omitted, not being Vesta's at all, and having nothing to do with the scene in Horace's satire. Something should have been said in the notes about metres, and the more difficult verses should be marked with the ictus. But these points are easily corrected in another edition, to which it is to be hoped that the book soon may come.

Comte, Mill, and Spencer: An Outline of Philosophy. By John Watson, LL.D. Macmillan & Co. 1895. Pp. 302.

THIS is a sketch of philosophy by a well-known idealist of the school of Green and Caird, based upon a criticism of the most famous of the experientialists of our century. What is the standing to-day, among those who devote themselves to philosophy, of Comte, Mill, and Spencer? To judge the pertinence and strength of this book, we must recall to mind what their reputation is, not among men who read half-a-dozen works of philosophy and then stop, but among those who are qualified to judge of them. Spencer's books are supposed to contain an immense number of acute and valuable ideas, belonging to the marches between positive science and a more comprehensive theory; but as for his philosophy as stated by himself in sixteen propositions, it is valued by very few, if by any, although there are two or three of its statements which are pretty widely accepted. Spencer's 'First Principles,' though it contains one idea, at least, which has been generally taken up, is as a whole the work of a man wholly ignorant of modern philosophy, and therefore entirely incompetent to address modern students. Spencer, as a philosopher, is much more respected by those who write against him than he is by the bulk of students, although their general attitude of thought is nearer to his. Mill's 'Logic,' a work going on to two generations of age—generations the most active in the direction of logic mother earth has looked upon—was written by a man without any reading in philosophy outside the nominalist school. It was animated by the purpose of overthrowing the ideas of Whewell, which are the ideas that, before Whewell and since, have prevailed among those physicists who have endeavored to take a philosophical view of the history of physics, and who have had no extreme bias towards any particular school of philosophy. Moreover, it is now generally recognized that Mill's exposition suffered from his struggles to throw off the narrow bonds of the school in which he had lived. The result was to make him wavering and inconsistent to a degree that the reader would not at first deem possible. Jevons had begun to show this, in a series of papers now reckoned important by scholars, when he was cut off, to the world's loss. Comte, in the judgment of modern students, was a man whose spool of intellectual piano-forte wire was vastly greater. Of Mill there is nothing to ask except whether his doctrine is correct or not; but Comte certainly made mighty contributions to the world's stock of ideas, over and above what he got from St. Simon, whether they squarely drive the truth into the hard skull of Humanity or not.

Such, as well as we can make it out, is (not *our* opinion, but) the centre of gravity of the judgments of real students to-day. As compared with its place thirty years ago, it has moved much away from Mill, much toward Comte. But not in a direct line. No doubt, opinion has swerved toward realism (in the scholastic sense). For example, thirty years ago thinkers were generally very averse to innate ideas. But Spencer (July, 1865) used the phrase "hereditary ideas," and men began to think it was a question of evidence. Experiments were made; and the upshot is there is not a psychologist to-day who does not hold the doctrine of innate ideas, whether he *calls* them so or not, substantially as it was held by Descartes and Leibnitz. Now the doctrine of innate ideas is in general harmony with realism as opposed to nominalism. Pure mathematics, too, burst out into extraordinary activity; and pure mathematics is a natural friend of idealism. Then an exacter analysis of the logical question showed that realism was the doctrine of modern science. The advanced school of Formal Logic found in their algebra potent reasons for a conception of logic having a general similarity with that of Hegel's objective logic. The idea of evolution naturally inclined men the same way. Accordingly, when Mr. Watson proposes to found an idealistic philosophy on the study of the three great empiricists of whom our time talks, he is taking advantage of a powerful current of thought.

He begins with mathematical reasoning and Mill's views about it. During the last two generations the fundamental mathematical conceptions have been the object of most exact and profound study by the subtlest and exactest mathematicians who ever illuminated the world; and those studies have resulted in a substantial settlement of opinion among mathematicians themselves concerning most of the questions involved. After this history, it is interesting to find that Mill's main contentions are now regarded by mathematicians as attempts to formulate what is definitively acknowledged to be true. It is not surprising that Prof. Watson should be able to show very clearly that Mill is in error; and up to a certain point he goes on with great success. But it soon becomes apparent that he knows nothing of modern mathematics, and has not sufficiently (if at all) studied the analyses by modern mathematicians of their own thought. He is not aware how much those works do toward reconciling idealistic proclivities with the spirit of positive science. After the usual style of Kantians, he allows the question to be confused by not separating geometry as a branch of physics from geometry as a branch of pure mathematics. He calls no attention to the remarkable circumstance that, after mathematicians have deliberately severed their moorings to the real world—as in the Theory of Functions, for example, which is all about $\sqrt{-1}$—instead of their bark being tossed upon a wild sea of arbitrary hypotheses, as one might expect, they reach a certain destination, different investigators upon widely different lines being led to the same conceptions and to concordant results, quite as surely as different chemists experimenting upon the same substance. Such facts afford comfort to idealists; and it will generally be found that modern pure mathematicians are as idealistic about ideal geometry as they are decidedly empiricist about physical geometry.

Nor does Prof. Watson expose, as he should, the falsity of the common idea that mathematics advances by means of demonstrations. No doubt demonstrations are more important in mathematics than in most sciences; but, for all that, mathematics advances, just as the physical sciences do, by observation and generalization. Its observations are, it is true, only observations of the mind's own constructions, but they often have that *startling* quality which indicates that they *are* observations. The generalizations are so complex in construction as not at once to be recognized as generalizations. When mathematics is written in the style of Euclid, both the observations and the generalizations are hidden in the crush of demonstrations from student and writer alike. But modern mathematicians recognize the operations of attentive observation and generalization as their chief engines, and give them due prominence. This at once favors the moderately positivist conviction that science is the fruit of observation and generalization, and at the same time the idealistic belief that the world of ideas is a real world, that can be observed and reasoned about, and not a world of whimsies. It is really high time that those who write about the philosophy of mathematics should have a familiar acquaintance with modern mathematics, and should have attended to the reflections of modern mathematicians concerning their own science.

Prof. Watson's view of causation will seem to Anglo-Saxon minds a little wanting in

meaning. He denies that there is anything "occult" about causation, but in the same breath attributes it to an *identity* which he does not make clear. Thus, two bodies at a given distance have a given gravitational acceleration towards one another. If we ask why, and are told there is an occult unity in nature producing the uniformity, we can understand that, especially if the occultness is only relative. But when we are told that it is because of an identity not occult, we cannot say that that is perspicuous.

In three successive chapters on Biology, its relations to Philosophy, and the Philosophy of Mind, the question of whether everything is to be levelled down to matter or levelled up to mind is discussed with great clearness and no little force. The idealistic position is argued against the school of Spencer and Huxley in a manner deserving attention. The strong hold of idealism to-day lies in reflections upon the question of how consciousness came into the world. Students of to day form their opinions on a basis of observed fact. Their quarrel with the old "experientialists" is that their own doctrines were not so formed, but were the mere expression of their intellectual inclinations. If observed facts lead to belief in ghosts, in ghosts they will believe. If they lead to the belief in the active reality of ideas, in that they will believe. But in accepting idealism, the older generation of idealists must not flatter themselves that scientific men—and modern philosophers have upon their hands the stains of the laboratory—are going to embrace the notions, the sentiments, and the mode of being which, heretofore accidentally associated with idealism, have their home in the theological seminary.

Origines Françaises de l'Architecture Gothique en Italie. Par C. Enlart. Paris: Thorin & Fils. 1894.

UNDER the above title M. Enlart, of the École des Chartes of Paris and the French School of Athens and of Rome, has given the first full and accurate description of a highly interesting and important group of mediæval buildings in Italy that have hitherto been, for the most part, unknown to modern students of architecture. These buildings exist in places generally unfrequented by travellers. They are more or less apart from ordinary routes, and in some cases in situations so malarious as to render them unsafe for more than the briefest sojourn. The buildings are not the works of native designers; they are the churches of the Cistercian monks, who, during the twelfth century, established themselves in numerous bodies throughout Italy, as they did in other countries of Europe, carrying with them the architectural principles and habits that had been acquired in their original home

The architecture of the early twelfth century in Burgundy, where the Cistercian order arose, was Romanesque of two main types. The first type, of which the great church of Cluny was the most conspicuous example, was characterized by the use of the barrel vault over the nave; while the second adopted the oblong groin vault, as in the nave of Vézelay. Before the middle of the twelfth century this last type was modified into a semblance of Gothic by the introduction of the pointed arch in the vaulting and in the principal arcades, as in the well-known porch that was then added to the nave of Vézelay.

The Cistercian builders followed both of these types. Their earlier churches—such as Hauterive, Bonmont, and Fontenoy—are of the simpler pointed barrel-vault construction, while their later ones, of which only one important monument, the church of Pontigny, has survived in Burgundy, followed the type of Vézelay, improved by the addition of the groin rib that had by this time come into use under the influence of the nascent Gothic of the Île-de-France.

M. Enlart's descriptions and illustrations of the Cistercian churches in Italy, and his detailed comparisons of them with the Burgundian monuments, show clearly that they are derived from the Burgundian models. In some instances these models have been almost exactly copied, as in the case of Fossanova in southern Italy, the nave of which closely resembles that of Pontigny. M. Enlart shows further that these Cistercian buildings in Italy had such influence on the subsequent native architecture as to justify his thesis of the French (*i. e.*, Burgundian) origin of the so-called Italian Gothic. It is instructive, however, to notice that the influence of the former native architectural traditions, which render the pointed architecture of Italy so different from the true Gothic of the North, and even from the Burgundian pointed style, begin to manifest themselves in these Cistercian monuments on Italian soil. The author calls attention to this "fâcheuse influence" in the otherwise fine church of San Golgano near Siena, which was begun in the year 1218; and he tells us that San Golgano determined the style of the Cathedral of Siena—Fra Vernaccio, Fra Melano, and Fra Mario,* who were successively employed to direct the works, being monks of San Golgano—and thus through Siena became the prototype of the so-called Tuscan Gothic style. This view seems correct. The leading characteristics of the Tuscan pointed buildings largely bear it out. The forms of the vaulting, the adjustment of supports, and the general internal and external arrangements in such a church as Sta. Maria Novella, or the Cathedral of Florence, are substantially like those of the Burgundian Gothic. M. Enlart recognizes, also, a subordinate influence from the Île-de-France as manifest more particularly in northern Italy, and notably in the beautiful Church of St. Andrea of Vercelli. But this is confined to ornamental details. No building in Italy shows anything resembling the structural system of the pure Gothic of the North.

One pertinent question M. Enlart has not discussed, namely, the possible indebtedness of the Burgundian builders, in common with all other builders in the North, to Italy itself for the rudiments of those features in their system which, aside from the use of the pointed arch, gave it what Gothic character it has. The evidence is strong, and has recently been further strengthened,† that the true origin of the organic Romanesque which was perfected in the French Gothic is found in the Lombard Romanesque. In that early and remarkable development we find vaulting on a full system of ribs, with compound supports logically adjusted to them. The system was not, indeed, a product of purely Italian genius. It was the result of the infusion of a northern element; and it was not advanced, or even retained, by the Italians after this northern influence declined, being foreign to their more classical traditions and predilections. There seems little question that this Lombard art, at least in its beginnings, was anterior to any corresponding form of Romanesque north of the Alps, and that it largely furnished the model for the magnificent systems that were, under the particular favoring conditions of the North, quickly developed into the Gothic.

Before the Cistercian monks came into Italy the two latest and most important of the Lombard Romanesque monuments, the Church of S. Ambrogio of Milan and the Church of S. Michele of Pavia, had been completed.* It is a peculiarity of these buildings that they are constructed with an alternate system arising from the use of one large vault in the nave to two smaller ones in the aisles, necessitating an alternation of large and small piers. The same alternate system, which by derivation occurs in various subsequent varieties of Romanesque, and also in the Gothic, is found in some of the Cistercian pointed churches of Italy, as in San Martino, near Viterbo. This may be, as M. Enlart supposes, in imitation of the sexpartite pointed buildings of the regions contiguous to northern Burgundy—such buildings, for instance, as the Church of Pont-sur-Yonne and the Cathedral of Sens; but, on the other hand, it is not impossible that it may have been derived largely from the nearer Lombard monuments in which the vaulted alternate system seems to have originated. Thus, while recognizing, in the main, the Burgundian origin of what is called Italian Gothic, we must also recognize a possible prior influence from northern Italy as having been active in the formation of the architecture of Burgundy in the twelfth century.

The term Gothic is used by M. Enlart in its widest sense as including all the forms of pointed architecture of the Middle Ages. But it would tend to greater clearness if writers on the architecture of this time would agree to restrict the term to that style which alone was the complete and consistent architectural expression of the mediæval genius. In a strictly correct sense the term is out of place in connection with this subject, for neither the pointed architecture of Italy nor its Burgundian prototype is in this sense Gothic. The true Gothic, the distinctive style of the Middle Ages, was developed in the Île-de-France, and was never consistently carried out elsewhere.

The book is an important one, and, besides throwing new light on the origin of Italian pointed architecture, it fills a gap in the history of the fine arts. Its general make up is admirable, without that useless elegance which often renders such works unnecessarily costly, and inconvenient to handle. The illustrations by the author's own hand are remarkably clear, and sufficiently abundant; while the numerous full-page phototypes are superbly executed, and bring the principal buildings referred to before the eye with absolute faithfulness.

Three Men of Letters. By Moses Coit Tyler. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895. Pp. v, 300.

UNDER the above title, and in a dress of much typographic beauty, Prof. Tyler has grouped three sketches which are of the nature of by-products of his historical laboratory. The first, having to do with Bishop Berkeley's American visit, the writer tells us in his preface grew out of his 'History of American Literature during the Colonial Time'; and the two others, on President Dwight the elder and "The Literary Strivings of Mr. Joel Barlow," were prepared for his forthcoming 'Literary

* For a list of the *operati* of the Cathedral of Siena cf. Norton's 'Church-building in the Middle Ages,' p. 300.

† Cf. Cattaneo, 'L'Architectura in Italia dal Secolo VI. al Mille circa.' Venice, 1889.

* The dates of these two buildings have been much discussed, and variously assigned. Sig. Cattaneo, a cautious and able writer, regards the nave of S. Ambrogio as not later than the second half of the eleventh century. (*Ibid*, p. 210.)

History of the American Revolution,' but seemed to Prof. Tyler chronologically inappropriate for that work. Though more lengthy than most of the sketches in Prof. Tyler's well-known 'History,' these monographs have much of the brevity of their original purpose; and they are marked by the same picturesqueness of treatment, the same vivacity of expression, and the same felicity of statement that characterize the author's larger volumes. His ingenuity, as well as his breadth of reading, is illustrated, for example, by his substituting for any minute criticism of his own an estimate of Dwight's 'Conquest of Canaan' written by the sympathetic English poet Cowper, in 1788, when an epic in rhymed pentameter might still hope to find readers not wholly weary of that form of composition.

An exceedingly entertaining bit of writing is Prof. Tyler's description of the strenuous regimen adopted by Dwight as a student, when

> "the ancient superstition touching the peculiar virtue of early rising was still rampant at the college. The students were, indeed, not required to be at their morning devotions in the chapel earlier than half-past five o'clock in winter, or than half-past four in summer: but young Dwight, unable to sanction by his example the sluggish habits thus engendered, proudly betook himself from bed every morning in time to read and construe, before chapel, a hundred lines of Homer."

No less amusing is his account of the experiences of Joel Barlow as chaplain in the Revolutionary army—a chaplaincy not sought out of any love for the clerical profession.

But though Prof. Tyler usually tells his story with a twinkle of his eye and a ready welcome for the humorous—qualities much more conspicuous in the two later monographs of this volume than in that on Berkeley—he succeeds in leaving a distinct impression of the real worth of the subjects of his sketches and of some of the bases of their claims to permanent regard. The kindly idealist, Berkeley, waiting three years in vain on his Newport farm for governmental aid which never came from England to enable him to begin his desired American university, yet becoming, in spite of his disappointment, the life-long friend and benefactor of such institutions of learning as the colonies possessed; the many-sided Dwight, impressing his own intense intellectual and religious life on the college and the community where he labored; the versatile Barlow, holding fast during twenty-eight years of unusual vicissitude to his youthful dream of a poem worthily celebrating his native country—all stand out as distinct figures on Prof. Tyler's pages. The studies make no pretence of being complete biographies, they are not exhaustive literary criticisms, but they set forth, in a way likely to be helpful to the general reading public, the services of three very dissimilar men in the childhood of American letters.

It is to be regretted that Prof. Tyler, or his proof-reader, allowed the Connecticut city to appear as "Middleton" instead of Middletown (p. 62); and that in the Latin quotation (p. 88) "potestes" takes the place of *potestas*.

Rhodesia of To-day. A Description of the Present Condition and the Prospects of Matabeleland and Mashonaland. By E. F. Knight. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895. Map. Pp. viii, 151. 8vo.

UNDER the above caption a well-known traveller gives the impressions received in a journey made last year in south Central Africa as correspondent of the London *Times*. His book is primarily for the intending emigrant or investor, but it has a wider interest as showing very clearly how a vast tract of virgin territory is being methodically prepared for civilization. The promoters of the British South Africa Company, or, in other words, the Hon. Cecil J. Rhodes, have evidently done everything possible to make this experiment a success and to develop their possessions, carefully safeguarding at once the rights of the natives and the interests of shareholders and colonists. An elaborate and costly system of administration, for instance, has been established in all the centres of population, which will do much to prevent those lawless deeds of violence so frequent when pioneer whites come in contact with a weaker race. A mining law has been adopted, with the aid of an American expert, Mr. John Hays Hammond, in which "many improvements and modifications, dictated both by American and South African experience, have been introduced." Railway and telegraph lines are being rapidly built, fifty thousand mining claims have been registered, and a large number of farms have already been "pegged out." All the machinery of a country in an advanced state of civilization is set up and in running order in readiness for the coming tide of immigration.

Mr. Knight passes briefly in review the different topics on which information is most needed. The natives apparently are adapting themselves peaceably and contentedly to the new order, with the exception, possibly, of the military caste, out of which the company, however, hopes to make an excellent native police and soldiery. The climate of the high Veldt, where most of the cultivable and mineralized land is situated, is "undoubtedly healthy," and the fever which haunts the remainder of the country will disappear before occupation and civilization. Matabeleland is especially adapted for grazing, Mashonaland for agriculture; the fruits and vegetables of England growing on the hills, oranges and tropical productions in the valleys. There is gold in abundance; auriferous reefs are rich and extensive, but the alluvial gold has all been taken ages ago. A new clue to the mysterious ancient miners is given by the recent discovery of a copper coin of the reign of Antoninus Pius at the bottom of an ancient shaft near Umtali. They were doubtless prevented from getting more than the mere surface gold by the same difficulty which confronts the workman of to-day, the prohibitive cost of machinery. Fifty thousand dollars, for instance, "has to be paid for the carriage of a twenty-stamp battery to the Victoria district." The cost of transportation has been reduced by two-thirds since the time of Mr. Knight's visit, by the extension of the Beira railway to within seventy-five miles of the principal gold-fields.

In regard to emigration, he says: "This is no country for the 'waster,' the man of no trade and no means," but to farmers and skilled artisans Matabeleland "offers a good opening." Though Mr. Knight writes almost as if he held a brief for the shrewd and energetic managing director of the Chartered Company, it cannot be doubted that "Rhodesia" is a land of great promise—promise only, not fulfilment yet—and that in securing it for Great Britain Mr. Rhodes has displayed a far-sighted policy and a genius for organization which put him in the front rank of Englishmen of the day.

The Colonial Cavalier. By Maud Wilder Goodwin. Illustrated by Harry Edwards. New York: Lovell, Coryell & Co.

The Old Brick Churches of Maryland. By Helen West Ridgely. Illustrated by Sophie D. B. Stewart. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

Colonial Days and Dames. By Anne Hollingsworth Wharton. Illustrated by E. S. Holloway. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

AGREEABLE and valuable additions to Southern history are the first two books named above. The 'Colonial Cavalier' is a thoughtful, well-planned, orderly study of the domestic and social life of the cavalier emigrants of Virginia and Maryland. It gives to us, through the old-time gossip of letters and diaries, and the homely details of life and customs, a fireside intimacy with old Virginian and Maryland life which we have never had before. Though written in the simplest literary style, it is also in the best style, dignified and at the same time humorous and pleasing. The author notes in Jefferson's private account-book, under date of July 4, 1776, the day of the signing of the Declaration of Independence, the item, "For seven pairs of women's gloves, twenty shillings." "Even so," she says, "do great things and small jostle one another in this strange world of ours, and a woman's glove lies close to the document which changed the fate of nations." Mrs. Goodwin has scanned her authorities with discerning care, but she has drawn no one-sided conclusions. Especially has she refrained from gilding the American cavalier with the romance, the imaginary charms, with which many of his descendants elect to endow him. Life was grander in Virginia than in New England, and in some ways it was shabbier. The elegance and the shabbiness are both fully portrayed here.

'The Old Brick Churches of Maryland' is somewhat disappointing to those who are familiar with the county and town histories of Maryland, for but little historical matter, save that already made public in those histories, can be found in this new book. The brick churches and the chapels-of ease of Anglo-Catholic Kent, of Roman Catholic St. Mary's, and Puritan Anne Arundel are, however, all faithfully enumerated. The term chapel-of ease may need explanation for some readers. There were in Maryland at the time of the Establishment thirty-one parishes—each parish so large that a church attendant, forced by law to attend services, but possibly being at a long distance from the house of worship, might have to travel all day Saturday to reach the meeting-house, and all day Monday to get home. To relieve this state of things, chapels were built on outlying portions of each parish, in which services were held for communicants from remote plantations. In no colony was such freedom of religion and such protection of religion. The privilege, beloved of the Puritans, of calling names, was forbidden in Maryland. The celebrated "Act concerning Religion" forbade even the disparaging use of the words heretic, schismatic, idolater, Jesuit, Papist, priest, Presbyterian, Independent, Lutheran, Baptist, Brownist, Antinomian, Burrowist, Roundhead, under pain of ten pounds fine. So the Quakers also came to the safe haven and built their severely simple meeting-houses. The side-lights thrown throughout the book on the social developments of this meeting and friendly neighboring of the various sects are perhaps more interesting than the descriptions of the edifices. The score of illustrations are

not very happy as counterfeit presentments of brick buildings, and are not, on the whole, as satisfactory as the more commonplace illustrations, so universal nowadays, obtained through the much-abused camera and half-tone process.

'Colonial Days and Dames' proves a pleasant successor to Miss Wharton's previous book, 'Through Colonial Doorways.' It is a cheerful and animated relation of incidents of colonial days in America, chiefly in Pennsylvania, written without much coherence in narration or regard for literary shape, yet on topics of sufficient genetic affinity to be properly gathered into chapters. But little new material is disclosed to the reader who is at all familiar with the established sources and authorities for colonial history, but the old materials are selected with good taste, and elucidated with a chatty vivacity which renders both the selections and commentary explanations attractive. The illustrations are also tasteful, and the book is pretty to look at, in print and binding.

The Post in Grant and Farm. By J. Wilson Hyde. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

THE author of this little book has long been an officer of the post, and has made good use of his opportunity to inquire into its early history. He goes back to the period when the postal service was confined to the forwarding of royal despatches, and shows how it came to undertake its enlarged functions as a public carrier. Early in the reign of James I. a patent was issued to Lord Stanhope as master of the King's posts "as well within the kingdom as in parts beyond the seas, within the King's dominions." Under Charles I., in accordance with the policy of raising money by the sale of offices, another patent was issued, creating a master of the posts in foreign parts "out of the King's dominions." It seems that by this time, although there was no authority for carrying the letters of private persons by the inland posts, it had become the practice of merchants to use the foreign posts in forwarding their packets. The fees for this service made the office of postmaster a lucrative one, and, as is still the case under like circumstances, he who held it had to fight to keep it. Gradually, however, the postmaster for foreign parts out of the King's dominions came to monopolize the foreign business, and in the process of time the internal posts fell under the same management.

The details of these changes, with the groans and complaints of those who had purchased their positions only to be presently deprived of them, are told at some length by Mr. Hyde, but they have little interest except as showing how private enterprise succeeded in creating an extensive business under the guise of a Government monopoly. The revenue received by the Crown was insignificant in amount, but the profits of the business were very large. Indeed, it was the gains derived from the carriage of foreign packets that suggested the idea of carrying the letters of private persons by the inland posts, and in accordance with custom the exclusive privilege of conducting this business was granted to the postmaster. It dimly appears that one Thomas Wilkerings had most to do with the development of a comprehensive postal system, and although he enlarged the business chiefly for his own gain, the public eventually profited. To the business of carrying the mail that of furnishing post-horses soon was added, and as the postmasters had certain rights to impress horses for their service, they seem to have found their places lucrative.

Some entertaining incidents of the primitive days when the royal mail was carried across the Channel by fishermen, and occasionally plundered by Dutch and Flemish pirates, have been extracted from the old records by Mr. Hyde; and he has preserved some official records of the rate of the posts, their charges, and the difficulties arising from the absence of roads. When the business once got fairly under way, it must have increased very rapidly, for we are told that in 1674 Lord Arlington paid £43,000 for the privilege of farming it. Mr. Hyde has certainly gathered together a good deal of recondite information; but he exhibits little skill in arranging his material, and his book is of value chiefly as a collection of annals

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The Chemistry of Paper-making, together with the Principles of General Chemistry. By R. B. Griffin and A. D. Little. New York: Howard Lockwood & Co. 1894. Pp. iv, 517.

THIS book is the work of able chemists who have had large experience in the chemical examination of paper-making materials and processes. The first 100 pages are devoted to a brief summary of the elementary facts and principles of chemistry. Of this part, the 21 pages given to theory offer an outline of fundamental principles which is for the most part exact, everywhere clear, and will be of much advantage to the technical reader. We note, however, the following statements which should be corrected: "Weight . . . in chemistry means about the same as the term 'mass' in physics" (p. 4). Differences in temperature are stated to consist in differences in "momentum of the moving molecules" instead of their kinetic energy (p. 6). "The power of the steam-engine is derived from the blows delivered against the piston by the 'infinite' number of molecules of 'water'" (p. 7). The law of Avogadro is called the law of Ampère (p. 8). Energy and force are used as equivalent terms (p. 4).

The special part of the book opens with an excellent discussion of cellulose and the various fibres which have been used or suggested for paper-making, illustrated by a plate of admirable micrographs of fibres from 'Papier-Prüfung,' by Dr. W. Herzberg. The fibres are classified as: Seed-hairs (cotton); bast fibres (linen, jute, etc.); those derived from whole stems or leaves (straw, esparto, etc.); those derived from wood. Chapter iii. deals with processes for isolating cellulose, the importance of wood fibre claiming all but ten pages of the 124 of the chapter; and the greater part of this space is occupied with a thorough treatment of the details and modifications of the sulphite process. Chapters on bleaching and on sizing and loading follow, and the important subject of water receives a chapter to itself. Chapters viii. and ix., covering about 100 pages, describe the analytical methods necessary to the paper chemist, and the chemical, mechanical, and microscopical testing of papers. In the last chapter a short account is given of electrolytic processes which have been proposed for the preparation of bleaching-liquors; in regard to which the authors make the following statement: "At the present time, however, the state of the art is such as to hold out little probability that the electrolytic production of bleaching agents will become a department of the paper-maker's work in any such general sense as the recovery of soda-ash or the manufacture of bisulphite solutions has already done." An appendix contains some useful tables, and the rules for spelling and pronouncing chemical terms adopted by the A. A. A. S., to which, however, no attention is paid in the spelling employed in the text.

The book is, on the whole, a good example of what a work of this kind should be. The account of methods and processes is careful and accurate, and the text nowhere obscure, although occasional infelicities of expression occur, as in the sentence quoted above. One does not, however, expect a technical work to be a model of English prose, and is thankful if, as in the present instance, he can follow the author without appreciable effort. Valuable matter from the authors' own experience is found in almost every chapter, especially in those on analysis and paper-testing; and the whole work is characterized by thorough knowledge, good judgment, and proportion.

The Saga of King Olaf Tryggvason, who reigned over Norway A. D. 995 to A. D. 1000. Translated by J. Sephton, M.A. London: Nutt; New York: Macmillan. 1895.

THE Great Olaf Tryggvason Saga, as Vigfusson appropriately called it, has doubtless remained so long untranslated—this is the first English version—because of the early rendition of the 'Heimskringla,' which also contains a life of the king. From some points of view this has been a loss. The 'Heimskringla' saga is in many ways its inferior, in spite of the pre-eminent place of that whole work in Old Norse literature. It not only has in numerous instances an abridged form of episodes, undoubtedly good history, connected with the King, but it gives others only in part, and some it omits altogether. The Great Olaf Tryggvason Saga is much more loquacious and discursive, and, as a whole, perhaps infinitely less critical. It has admitted, for instance, all sorts of legendary material, such as was likely to spring up about the King in his great work of the conversion of Norway to Christianity, that is not found in the soberer narrative of the 'Heimskringla.' The Olaf of the 'Heimskringla,' in short, is an historical person; in the present saga he has assumed an heroic and superhuman aspect, and is gifted with supernatural insight and miraculous powers. If we accept Vigfusson's view, the more amplified saga is, nevertheless, the earlier. He even sees in it the original full text of Snorri, of which the 'Heimskringla' is but an abridgment; it has been interlarded, however, with many minor sagas and fragments of sagas bearing upon the life of the King, from various sources, known and unknown—all additions of the thirteenth century. Who was the author of the form in which we have it is uncertain. In all probability it was, like most of the longer sagas, a composite growth. Its last reviser may possibly have been Berg Sokkason, who was made abbot at Thvera, in the north of Iceland, in 1325.

The present translation is, in many ways, an excellent one, although, unfortunately enough, the picturesqueness of diction abundantly characteristic of the original saga has all but exhaled in the process of rendition. There is somewhere a mean between the pseudo archaism of the Morris Magnusson translations and this. These authors have evolved a sort of pre-Early English for the language of their sagas; Mr. Sephton has gone to the other extreme and made of his a modern book. An archaic feature has been suffered to remain in the citation of the 'Antiquitates Americanæ,'

published in 1837, as authority for the location of Vinland, which in the index is stated to have been Massachusetts and Rhode Island. Storm's 'Studier over Vinlandsreiserne' (1888) and Reeves's 'Wineland the Good' (1890) have disposed of the matter differently.

The saga, which is beautifully printed and attractively bound, is the initial volume of a new series of translations from the Old Norse. The next to follow is the Færeyinga Saga, to be translated by F. York Powell, Vigfusson's old collaborator in this field and the successor of Froude as Regius Professor of History at Oxford.

Sir William Petty: A Study in English Economic Literature. By Wilson Lloyd Bevan, M.A., Ph.D. 1894. (Publications of the American Economic Association, vol. ix., No. 4.)

FORMALLY, Dr. Bevan's study is divided into an introduction and six chapters. Essentially, it consists of three parts, dealing, first, with Petty's life (1623–1687), and bibliographically with his writings; second, with his views on specific economic topics, as labor, rent, taxation; third, with "Petty in relation to contemporary England, and his place in economic literature." Lack of care, apparently proceeding from lack of time, is the most prominent characteristic of the whole study; it forces itself upon the reader's attention before he has finished the introduction, and evidences of it pursue him literally to the last page. In the first part, for example, a careful narrative of Petty's checkered and successful career might have been made to contribute much towards the elucidation of the writings subsequently to be discussed. Instead of working out such a narrative—no holiday task, to be sure—Dr. Bevan reprints in chapter one some "materials for Petty's biography," viz., his curious autobiographic will and Aubrey's sketch of him, both reproduced in part only, and appends, in chapter two, a score of "illustrations and notes on Petty's life from contemporary sources." These are scraps collected here, there, and everywhere—some of them no doubt scraps of value, but scraps none the less. Partial materials for study they may possibly be; part of a study they are not.

The danger of attempting to draw conclusions from such fragments is well illustrated by Dr. Bevan's own treatment of one of them. After mentioning Petty's invention of double writing, he says:

"This invention, like a good many of Petty's later mechanical devices, proved a failure. Curiously we find in a letter, written by Sir Christopher Wren some years after, a reference to a similar machine. Wren, without mentioning any name, complained that a model of his invention, in a still imperfect condition, had been seen by chance by a visitor, and reproduced. . . . The history of Petty's own invention leads us to suspect that he may have been the person whom Wren accuses of this dishonorable act. From what we know of Petty's insensibility to strict honesty where he saw any chance of furthering his own interests, we cannot say that he was incapable of such an action."

This is surely pushing inference rather far. Like other English land-grabbers in Ireland, Petty probably acquired part of his estates there, after the Cromwellian settlement, by methods not strictly honorable if judged according to our present standards. His answer to the charges of corruption brought against him in Parliament is not entirely satisfactory. But what we know about it—and we *know* very little—scarcely justifies Dr. Bevan's persistent insinuations that Petty was generally dishonest, and by no means justifies the unsupported charge that he was this particularly mean thief. As for the history of the invention, it is known that Petty's device for double writing was completed prior to December 22, 1647. Sir Christopher Wren was then a youth of fifteen years and one month, and there is reason for believing that up to that time Petty had never seen him.

This specific instance of an argument upon insufficient grounds would not deserve notice if it stood alone. But it does not. Another example of Dr. Bevan's hasty way of presenting the results of his study might be taken from the last chapter: "In his will he [Petty] again betrays Hobbes' influence, where his words mean that the authority of the state in religion is supreme." The only words in Petty's will, partly printed in chapter one, upon which such a construction can be put, are these:

"As for religion, I die in the profession of that faith, and in the practice of such worship as I find established by the law of my country [here, in the middle of a sentence, Dr. Bevan's quotation unexpectedly ends], not being able to believe what I myself please, nor to worship God better than by doing as I would be done unto, and observing the laws of my country, and expressing my love and honor to almighty God by such signs and tokens as are understood to be such by the people with whom I live, God knowing my heart even without any at all."

Hobbes's influence is here more evident, one must own, if the hurried reader stops with the hurried Doctor, half-way through the passage.

In order, in his second part, to discuss Petty's economic views, Dr. Bevan must first decide where those views are to be found. Accordingly, he reopens the controversy as to the authorship of those famous 'Natural and Political Observations upon the Bills of Mortality' whose publication in 1661, under the name of Capt. John Graunt, marks the beginning of vital statistics, and indeed of all intelligent statistical study. Differing from McCulloch, Roscher, De Morgan, John, and Cunningham, whose "view, however plausibly stated, hardly seems to give adequate weight to contemporary testimony," Dr. Bevan assigns the 'Observations' to Petty. We cannot enter at length into this controversy, which is almost as complicated and fully as perverse as the Bacon-Shakspere quarrel. But, in passing, we may briefly note one or two reasons for thinking that, had Dr. Bevan examined the case a little more carefully, he would have hesitated before assigning greater weight to the contemporary testimony for Petty than to that he might have found for Graunt. The only contemporary testimony that Dr. Bevan mentions in favor of Petty is that of Evelyn (Diary, 22 March, 1675) and of Aubrey. Aubrey, however, gives two conflicting accounts, of which our study finds room to consider the second only. In the sketch of Petty's life which he furnished Anthony à Wood, *circa* 1680, Aubrey says that Graunt wrote the 'Observations.' But in a supplemental note, added, perhaps, after Petty's death in 1687, he says of Petty: "The 'Observations upon the Bills of Mortality' are really his." Opposed to this somewhat doubtful evidence, there stands, in addition to Petty's own frequent mention of the book as Graunt's, the contemporary testimony of Bishop Sprat, historian of the Royal Society; of Oldenburg, its secretary; of its committee appointed February 12, 1662, to examine Graunt's book; of the Royal Society itself in electing Graunt, a tradesman, to membership because of his book; and of the Council of the Royal Society, which, on the 20th of June, 1665, during the Plague, "ordered, that the 'Observations upon the Bills of Mortality,' by Mr. John Graunt, be printed by John Martyn and James Allestry, printers to the Royal Society." Concerning all this contemporary testimony telling against his position, Dr. Bevan says not a word. Nor is there, is his subsequent account of the contents of the 'Observations' and of the further treatment of similar subjects in the 'Essays on Political Arithmetick,' which are indisputably by Petty, any indication that Dr. Bevan appreciates the superiority of method and the greater general sobriety of Graunt's statistical work as compared with Petty's.

Petty's economic notions may be presented in either of two ways. On the one hand, since each of his pamphlets was directed to a concrete problem or problems, each may be described for itself, and with relation to the circumstances out of which it originated. On the other hand, the ideas embodied in his several pamphlets may be grouped topically. The latter method, which Dr. Bevan has chosen to follow in the second part of his study, is perhaps the better; it is certainly the more difficult of the two. Especially in the case of an author like Petty, whose economic writings cover a period of twenty-five years, during which his notions underwent considerable modification, the collocation of sentences selected from various pamphlets, regardless of their chronology, cannot fail to be misleading. Now Petty's bibliographical chronology is not simple. Some of his writings, for example the 'Treatise of Taxes and Contributions,' 1662, and the 'Five Essays in Political Arithmetick,' 1687, were published within a few months of their composition. Others lay years in manuscript before they were printed. Thus the 'Verbum Sapienti,' written in 1665, was printed in 1691 as an appendix to the 'Political Anatomy of Ireland,' which was written in 1672. In like manner the 'Political Arithmetick,' written in 1676, six years before the first of Petty's numerous "Essays," was not published until 1690, three years after the last of them. Of these facts Dr. Bevan takes so little account in expounding Petty's ideas, that his study affords but an imperfect survey of their development. This is indeed a fault, but to avoid it were so difficult that its commission may almost be overlooked. Less excusable are the evidences of continued carelessness which mar the execution of the second part of the study also. For example, in his account of the 'Observations' Dr. Bevan says (p. 49): "A table of mortality by decades, constructed by guesswork, is fitly followed by the astounding statement that London doubles its population in eight years." The passage of the 'Observations' to which reference is here made (sec. 12 of chapter xi.) runs thus:

"The next enquiry will be, In how long time the City of *London* shall, by the ordinary proportion of Breeding and dying, double its breeding People? I answer, In about seven years, and (*Plagues* considered) eight. Wherefore, since there be 24000 pair of Breeders, that is ⅛ of the whole, it follows, that in eight times eight years [!] the whole people of the City shall double, without the access of Forreiners."

It is unnecessary to examine the third part, on "Petty's place in economic literature." The ingenious founder of political arithmetic was also an economist of no mean ability. Taken all in all, he is perhaps the most important English economic writer before Hume, and relatively the most neglected. To Dr. Bevan he justly seemed "to merit more attention than he has hitherto received." After reading this study, we are of like opinion.

Petty still merits more, or at any rate other, attention than he has hitherto received.

Lucy Larcom: Life, Letters, and Diary. By Daniel Dulang Addison. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

One has only to look at the picture of Miss Larcom facing the title-page of this volume to know that hers was a noble, liberal, and kindly soul. Many have long been aware of this by other means, and these will take the greatest pleasure in the biography which her pastor has written with unaffected admiration for his parishioner and friend. Yet we cannot but hope that many others will read the simple story, and some of these will certainly be led to read Miss Larcom's various books, it may be to discover that there was more music in her than she ever got out, and that her genial personality was something better than its happiest expression either in prose or in verse. Mr. Addison has done his work well and made a most agreeable and interesting book. He has subordinated himself to his subject in a manner that commends to us his taste and modesty. The most obvious lack is that of any critical appreciation of Miss Larcom's work. A few pages from her townsman, Professor Woodberry, would here have been a notable addition. And, indeed, it is in a letter to Professor Woodberry that she makes a criticism on herself which is admirable for its sincere discrimination, though its construction is more stern than just if we apply it to her better work. She writes:

"Most of our modern verse—and I include my own—is too superficially lyrical; the measure often muffles the meaning; the thought flies off through the sound. In yours, the music and the meaning unfold together; always hinting the deeper chords half awakened beneath."

But Prof. Woodberry would probably be the first to tell us that in her recognition in him of possibilities greater than Clough's performance, and her assurance that "Milton might have been proud to write" some of his passages, there was too much of her habitual kindness and something of her pride in a new Beverly poet.

If, with the lack of critical appreciation, there is in Mr. Addison's book something of excess, it is in its endeavor to turn the late adhesion of Miss Larcom to the Episcopal Church to some good account for that particular schism. Here and there we seem to be reading a tract or an extract from a sermon. But then, too, it should be said that Mr. Addison's Episcopalianism is that of Phillips Brooks, as was that of Miss Larcom, the broadest of the broad—the Episcopal Church one door of many into the Church Universal. It is certain that Miss Larcom never would have joined the Episcopal Church, as she did in 1890, when she was sixty-six years old, if she had not seen that church invested with the splendor of Phillips Brooks's personality and shining with the light of his countenance. Reared in Puritan Congregationalism, she reacted from its narrowness, and found herself in sympathy with such minds as F. W. Robertson and F. D. Maurice—even more with the latter than with the former, for the trend of her mind was exceptionally mystical from first to last. Tauler and the other mystics were the purveyors of her spiritual food. She did her thinking mainly with her heart. Yet she so loved those roots of her own life that fed upon the Puritan soil that not even her delight in Phillips Brooks's preaching and the warmth of his friendship were able to make her an Episcopalian until after many years of her experience of these things. She had a childish satisfaction in her new spiritual home once she had entered it.

A chapter of twenty pages covers the period of which Miss Larcom wrote so pleasantly in 'A New England Girlhood.' The chapter is a good summary of that delightful book, but it is no sufficient substitute for it. The sensible reader will at once possess himself of that, if it is not already known to him. As a factory girl at Lowell she saw and was a part of that most interesting phase of factory life which produced the *Lowell Offering* and kindred publications. There was nothing precocious in her literary talent, and her poetry for a long time lagged behind her prose, especially that of her journal and letters, which, apparently, was much better than that of her more conscious literary efforts. They are full of animal spirits and rollicking fun, as she describes her journey West in 1846, her life on Looking-Glass Prairie, her early teaching, which was followed by several years of combined study and teaching in an academy of ambitious prospectuses and moderate advantages. There are intimations of a long-drawn tragedy beginning in these years—an engagement which went on up to the threshold of the war. Miss Larcom frankly celebrated the catastrophe in one of her best-known poems, "A Loyal Woman's 'No.'" Her lover held pro-slavery opinions, and she was always anti-slavery and abolitionist in her own, with so little "prejudice against color" that sometimes she seems to have had a prejudice in its favor.

Coming east again in 1853, she soon after became one of the teachers in the Wheaton Seminary at Boston, Mass., and there she remained until 1865, when ill health obliged her to give up the position. Her skill in teaching must have been considerable, and her influence on her pupils excellent, but to do literary work was the interest and passion of her life. Recognition on this line came to her very slowly. Her "Hannah Binding Shoes" was printed in the *Knickerbocker Magazine* without payment or acknowledgment and without her knowledge, whereupon she sent it to the *Crayon*, where it was again printed and brought on her the reproach of the *Knickerbocker* editor as "a literary thiefess." She spoke at the time most disrespectfully of the poem, which now stands, and by good right, in the fore-front of her complete collection. The first poem that brought her into notice was a "Kansas Emigrant Song," which successfully competed for a prize offered by the Emigrant Aid Society. In 1859 she tried in vain to find a publisher for a volume of her verse, though she had Whittier for a backer with Ticknor & Fields. It must have been much more difficult to find a publisher for poetry then than now, when the new volumes are thicker than the leaves of Vallombrosa. But then, perhaps, she wanted a publisher who would take the risk, for she always had to struggle for a living. Considering the amount and quality of her literary work, there is something to instruct and warn the young aspirant who is looking to pure literature as a means of livelihood.

Her fortunes were pathetic. She could never go to Europe; she could never have a home of her own; she was obliged to take an annuity from her friends. She was, however, rich in these, and among them Whittier and his sister took the lead. She met Whittier first when she was a factory girl in Lowell. Their mutual relations grew into something very beautiful. For a long time she showed him her verses before printing them, and when she declared her independence he was a little hurt. His influence upon their thought and form is not to be escaped. They collaborated in the making of certain compilations, so that we do not know whom to blame for the inaccuracies, which were many. At his death she was astonished at his wealth, and glad to find that he had willed her the copyright of the books they had made together.

Her alliterative name was generally supposed to be a pseudonym, and on one occasion a gentleman asked her if there wasn't some one who wrote poetry calling herself "Lucy Larcom," adding assuringly, "I never read any of the stuff." Though

"Born in the East on a seaward rock,"

the sea had for her no such fascination as the mountains, and that she often visited these in the company of Whittier was one of the rarest satisfactions of her life. Her poem "A Strip of Blue" is an exact expression of her preference for a glimpse of the sea to its limitless expanse. There was a homely sweetness in her verse as in her life that was her surest charm The extracts from her journal and letters are a frank disclosure of her inner life, while her opinions upon contemporary books offer many an interesting challenge to our own. On page 79 there are three errors of transcription in Donne's perfect couplet,

"No Spring, nor Summer's beauty hath such grace,
As I have seen in one autumnal face."

Two of them are important; especially so is the substitution of "an" for "one" in the second line. The lines were written for George Herbert's mother. They do for Lucy Larcom quite as well.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appleton, Henri. Des Effets des Annexations de Territoires sur les Dettes de l'Etat démembré ou annexé. Paris: L. Larose.
Bacon, Rev. T. S. It Is Written. James Pott & Co. 75 cents.
Barhite, Jared. Our Profession, and Other Poems. Long Island City: W. E. Barhite. $1.25.
Beeching, H. C. In a Garden, and Other Poems. London: John Lane; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Benson, A. C. Lyrics. London: John Lane; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Beers, Prof. H. A. The Ways of Yale in the Consulship of Plancus. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Beesly, A. H. Ballads and Other Verse. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Bloundell-Burton, John. The Hispaniola Plate. Cassell. $1.
Bolles, Frank. Chocorua's Tenants. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1
Boyesen, Prof. H. H. Essays on Scandinavian Literature. Scribners. $1.50.
Boynton, Gen. H. V. The Chickamauga National Military Park. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.50.
Brainerd, T. H. "Go Forth and Find." Cassell. 50 cents.
Briggs, Prof. C. A. The Messiah of the Apostles. Scribners. $3.
Brooks, Noah. How the Republic is Governed. Scribner. 75 cents.
Brooks, Noah. Short Studies in Party Politics. Scribners. $1.25.
Burwell, Letitia M. A Girl's Life in Virginia before the War. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Campbell, Rev. J. G. Waifs and Strays of Celtic Tradition. London: David Nutt.
Castlemon, Harry. Elam Storm, the Wolfer. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Christ and the Church: Essays concerning the Church and the Unification of Christendom. F. H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Clodd, Edward. A Primer of Evolution. Longmans, Green & Co. 75 cents.
Coffin, C. C. Daughters of the Revolution and their Times. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Cohen, Rev. Henry. Talmudic Sayings. Cincinnati: Block Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Conway, M. D. The Writings of Thomas Paine. Vol. III. 1791—1804. Putnams. $2.50.
Cressey, G. C. The Essential Man: A Monograph on Personal Immortality. Boston: G. H. Ellis. 75 cents.
Croquet, C. P. du. French Verbs, Regular and Irregular. W. R. Jenkins.
Cutts, Rev. E. L. Augustine of Canterbury, Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
D'Avenel, le Vicomte. La Fortune Privée à travers Sept Siècles. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Defoe, Daniel. History of the Plague in London. American Book Co. 40 cents.
Doyle, A. C. The Mystery of Cloomber. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.
Eldridge, C. W. The United States Internal Revenue Tax System. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Fontaine, C. Fleurs de France: Quinze Contes. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 60 cents.
Foote, A. R. A Sound Currency and Banking System. Putnams. 75 cents.
French, C. W. Selections from Browning. A. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.

Gollancz, Israel. King Henry IV. 2 vols. King Richard II. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45 cents.
Hearn, Lafcadio. "Out of the East": Reveries and Studies in New Japan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ingram, Prof. J. K. A History of Slavery and Serfdom. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.60.
Jones, Prof. Henry. A Critical Account of the Philosophy of Lotze: The Doctrine of Thought. Macmillan. $1.90.
Kelly, Edmond. Evolution and Effort, and their Relation to Religion and Politics. Appletons.
Littell's Living Age. Jan.-March, 1895. Boston: Littell & Co.
MacDonald, George. Annals of a Quiet Neighborhood. Harpers. 50 cents.
McMaster, Prof. J. B. History of the People of the United States. Vol. IV. Appletons.
Minot, H. D. The Land-Birds and Game-Birds of New England. 2d ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Murlin, E. L. The Red Book: An Illustrated Legislative Manual of the State. Albany: J. B. Lyon.
Nodier, Charles. Trilby the Fairy of Argyle. Boston: Lampson, Wolffe & Co. 50 cents.
Rockwood, Prof. F. E. Cicero's Cato Major de Senectute. American Book Co. 90 cents.
Shields, Prof. C. W. The United Church of the United States. Scribners.
Stevenson, R. L. The Body-Snatcher. The Merriam Co.
Valdés, A. P. The Grandee. Geo. Gottsberger Peck.
Webster, Daniel. Bunker Hill, and Other Orations. American Book Co. 20 cents.
Willard, Miss F. E. How I Learned to Ride the Bicycle. F. H. Revell Co. 50 cents.
Wise, T. J. Spenser's Faerie Queene. Illustrated. Part IV. London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Withers, A. S. Chronicles of Border Warfare. New ed. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $2.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 18, 1895.

The Week.

THE President's letter to the Chicago sound-money conference has a weight greater than that which naturally belongs to his official position—the weight, namely, of a temperate and truthful portrayal of the real nature of the silver propaganda. In this respect Mr. Cleveland now sees more clearly and speaks out more emphatically than ever before. Like nearly every other public man in this country, he has heretofore felt constrained to acknowledge himself "a friend of silver," in favor of its "judicious" use in the currency; but the scales have fallen from his eyes, and he now sharply declares that "the line of battle is drawn between the forces of safe currency and those of silver monometallism." In thus clarifying his view of the situation, the President has but progressed along with general opinion; and for the change the silver agitators have themselves to thank. By their reckless language they have made it impossible for intelligent men longer to misunderstand them. When they say that the "basis" of our currency must be enlarged, people now see that they mean depreciated money. When they talk about raising prices, people understand that they mean scaling down their own debts. They continue to argue gravely about maintaining "the parity" and securing an international agreement, but this is getting to be more and more evidently a mere blind, and their intention to debase and repudiate is becoming clearer every day. To have this seen and said by the President is a great stroke for national honesty.

Mr. Cleveland is undoubtedly correct in maintaining that this silver question needs only to be argued out before the people in order to be settled right. The silver-men think themselves very original and ingenious, but they are merely the inflationists and repudiationists whom the world has been familiar with since the beginning, masquerading in what is simply the latest of a long series of disguises. All that is needed is the arrival of the dramatic crisis when, as the stage directions say, "all unmask," and the jig is up for the financial villain as surely as for the theatrical villain. The rapidity with which the silverites are throwing away their masks is therefore most encouraging. They will soon be avowedly where the greenbackers were in 1874, and meet a like fate. Only now, as then, it is necessary, as the President urges, that honest-currency men should unite when rogue-currency men combine. We must have men in 1895 and 1896, like Garfield in 1874 and 1875, who have thought this question through and are ready to go on the stump and meet all comers. We must have business men organize, must have silver lies run down and speared fast to the ground. We must ignore party lines in this business and vote as we want our wages and debts paid. The action of the President and his cabinet ought surely to restrain the Democratic party from surrendering to the silver inflationists. Let Republican leaders be equally outspoken, and the agitators will be forced to flock by themselves. When they do that, no fire from heaven will be necessary to consume them.

We have often pointed out the mischief that is worked among weak minds by statistics. Many a man, for instance, never dreamed he had not enough currency for the needs of his business until some one told him how much money there was in the country "per capita." As soon as he learns there is only $23 "per capita," he sits down on a log and weeps and wails and wonders what we are coming to. So also when he takes up the custom-house returns and finds the imports exceed the exports, he concludes that his neighbors are all running in debt for silks and champagne, although he knows that among his own acquaintances things are going on as usual, and notes are met with the customary regularity. There is a similar alarm about "plutocrats" and "watered stock." When some people foot up the number of "plutocrats" there are, and the quantity of watered stock there is, they want to leave a dying world. Judge Gaynor, for instance, although drawing a comfortable salary in Brooklyn, and surrounded by a peaceable and reasonably contented community, writes out to St. Louis that "untold millions of sham, dishonest, and oppressive paper stock and bonds" are "preparing to sap agricultural, mechanical, manufacturing, mercantile and professional, and all other honest industries." Now, if the judge were obliged to state under oath how many millions the "untold millions" were, and in what manner "oppressive paper stock" "saps agricultural, mechanical, etc., honest industry," it would make him happy as a king and lively as a cricket. He would see that he was the victim of a bugaboo.

The country long ago discovered in McKinley one of those great geniuses whose province it is to make difficult and complex problems clear as daylight, and his peculiar powers shone to great advantage last week in Hartford. He brought out a simple little receipt to cure financial ills, which is one of those flashes of insight that make ordinary men beat their heads and tear their hair in rage at their own stupidity in not having perceived the great truth themselves. People have been worrying over the gold reserve, the country was brought to the verge of panic and bankruptcy on account of it, and a costly contract had to be made with foreign bankers—all to meet a difficulty which McKinley surmounts in one sentence. Says he: "The outflow of gold will never trouble us when the inflow of gold is only large enough." What a ridiculous plight that leaves the President and the syndicate in! Why didn't they think of that? If they did not, why didn't they send for McKinley? These are painful questions to be compelled to ask, but still more painful is it to think that such a man as this should be forced to journey about the country drumming up delegates to nominate him for the Presidency. Any other country possessing such a political genius would seize him and make him President against his will, if necessary. We could have him as President with his hearty consent, and yet we lie back and smile at his hunt for delegates. The outflow of gold he can contemplate with serenity, but the outflow of delegates is what starts him on his parlor-car travels.

The large use of instruments of credit in wholesale trade, obviating by so much the need of actual currency, has long been well known. What has not been so well established is the growing extension of the same system to retail trade. Prof. David Kinley publishes in the March *Journal of Political Economy* some inquiries directed to this point, which yield most instructive results. Through the comptroller of the currency, questions were sent to national banks asking for the amounts deposited on the nearest settling day by retail grocers, butchers, clothiers, furniture-dealers, and fuel-dealers, with kinds of money and checks and other instruments of credit specified. Replies were received from 2,465 banks, all over the country, and from the returns a rough but sufficiently accurate estimate can be made out showing the part played by currency and credits respectively in retail trade. Prof. Kinley makes out a table covering all the States and Territories, and shows that payments by check range from 54 per cent. of the total settlements in retail trade in the North Central States to 65 per cent. in the South Central. The bearing of the investigation on present currency discussions is thus stated by Prof. Kinley:

"While it is generally admitted that the larger part of wholesale business is done on credit, some have claimed that only a small portion of retail trade is so conducted, and that the supply of money should, therefore, be increased for the daily needs of the people. The present investigation shows, however, that credit plays an important rôle in retail payments; its results are, therefore, on the whole,

in the line of former conclusions as to the importance of credit instruments in payments and exchanges generally, and against the necessity of any additional provisions for simply increasing the volume of money without taking into consideration the other and at least equally important element of our circulation."

The price of beef is now higher than it was in the year 1873. This fact ought to gladden the hearts of the silverites, who think that low prices are the bane of the human race. Yet we have not heard of any public meeting being called to celebrate this advance in the price of steaks and roasts. There is to be an advance in the price of coal if the anthracite companies can bring it about, and there is already an advance in petroleum. In none of these cases is there any sign of public rejoicing such as ought, according to the silver theory, to attend the advance in prices. It may be replied that the theory requires the advance to be general before it becomes beneficial. In other words, people are not benefited by paying 5 cents a pound more for beef and 25 cents a ton more for coal unless at the same time they have to pay a dollar more for shoes and two dollars more for a coat, and other things in proportion. The idea is that when prices become high all around, wages will be raised proportionately. But unless they are raised more than proportionately, the laboring man is no better off. So the vital question for all persons who work for hire and all who have fixed incomes—that is, for ninety-five out of every hundred persons in the community—is, who will guarantee that their wages will rise simultaneously with the advance in general prices and a little more than in due proportion to such advance? A committee of guarantee ought to be appointed at once. Senator Jones of Nevada, Don Cameron, and the author of 'Coin's Financial School' ought to be members of it, with President Andrews of Brown University for consulting actuary. There is no time to be lost.

Very few ministers—of the Methodist persuasion, at all events—will be willing to believe that Senator Morgan, the chairman of the Senate committee on foreign affairs, had not been drinking when he composed his explanation of the English difficulty with Venezuela, to wit, that Great Britain is quarrelling with Venezuela for the purpose of getting hold of the Venezuela gold-fields in order to maintain her monometallic gold system. To this Alabama Sage, the gold standard in England is in constant danger of collapse for want of gold, and the Government, in order to keep up the supply, grabs all the gold it can in all parts of the world and carries it to the mint. He thinks we should do something to stop her little game. There are, of course, many men as ignorant and silly as this in other countries, but we do not believe one could be found on the civilized globe to make the exhibition of himself that Morgan makes. The shame of him, too, is aggravated by the fact that we sent him abroad to represent us in an august international tribunal, side by side with eminent jurists and scholars and gentlemen, last year. Worse still, he is actually chairman of the committee on foreign affairs of the Senate. His biographical sketch says he got "an academic education" somewhere in Tennessee, and we should ascribe his follies to the limitations of this curriculum if it were not that Lodge, who graduated at Harvard, follows close behind him in support of similar tomfooleries. We should say, too, that he was a useful illustration of what the Democratic party can do in these days in the way of producing statesmen, if it were not that Frye, the Maine Republican, talks on foreign politics in a way fully as well calculated to excite the suspicions of clergymen. One thing is certain, and that is, as we grow in size, and power, and pretensions, we must provide different instruments for the management of our foreign relations. It is preposterous to try to do business and maintain friendly relations with great foreign states through these politicians, who are either shamming for their own fun, like Lodge, or are, like Morgan, giving the world in our name, and in a black broadcloth coat, a gloomy savage's views of the working of civilization.

Very disturbing news was received from Hawaii by the last steamer. On the evening of April 1, Mrs. Dominis, the ex-Queen, who is a prisoner, although allowed to take exercise in the open air, "was observed exchanging salutations with a body of political prisoners returning to jail from their daily labor on the roads. She was first seen to wave her handkerchief to them from the east veranda of her former palace." This salutation was responded to silently by the road workers. The event has taught the Government that "little reliance is to be placed upon the ex-Queen's oath of allegiance or act of abdication." But this is not the most alarming news brought by this steamer. In proportion as Great Britain neglects her opportunity to grasp the islands, the danger of Japan's seizing them increases. "Serious and growing apprehension is expressed here," says the news budget, "as to what the Japanese Government may feel *compelled* to do with Hawaii after the termination of the war with China." Jingoism, we are told, has taken possession of certain Japanese politicians. This means that they have their Morgans and Lodges and Fryes, just as we do—a sad state of things for Japan, no doubt, but one that must be reckoned with in Hawaii just the same. The budget concludes by saying: "Altogether, more danger is feared from the Japanese than from any other source." This is very strange indeed, for how could more danger be feared from any country than from England? We shall never believe it unless it is officially communicated to our Government by Minister Thurston's successor when he shall be appointed.

Minister Thurston's probable departure from Washington as *persona non grata*, it seems, was known to the royalists in Honolulu before it was known to the public in general. "It is clear," says the news budget, "that the 'tip' came from the informant in the State Department who warned the Queen and her advisers that President Cleveland would instruct Minister Willis to demand that President Dole and his associates should turn over the government to her." Another "tip," from the same source probably, was that "Senator Pettigrew submitted to Secretary Gresham his virulent speech against the Hawaiian Government in the recent cable debate, and that both Secretary Gresham and President Cleveland approved it." This is little less than treason on Pettigrew's part, and it is a wonder that he should have dared to do it. It remains to be seen how such a damning fact was kept secret here while publicly talked about in Honolulu. Very likely it reached the ears of those road-workers and led to the exchange of salutations with Mrs. Dominis which had such a disquieting effect. If so, Senator Pettigrew ought to take greater precautions the next time he has a midnight consultation with Gresham. There is a hint that Minister Willis's place may become too hot for him, and that there are just as good reasons for calling him *persona non grata* as there were for applying that epithet to Mr. Thurston, but up to the sailing of the last steamer he had not received his passports.

We do not often agree with the Hon. Hugh J. Grant, but we read on Tuesday his manifesto, issued on the occasion of his taking command of Tammany, with peculiar interest. It is not quite as pleasant reading as that old one of 1888, when he promised to fill our offices "with the highest order of citizenship the county affords." But he recognizes the signs of the times when he invites William C. Whitney, E. Ellery Anderson, and divers other distinguished citizens to join the organization. There never was a time when it needed such men more. W. C. Whitney and E. Ellery Anderson and Mr. George G. Haven in particular ought to be there. One of Mr. Whitney's best-known public papers was a eulogy on Croker as an honest, hard-working man, who was trying to serve his country according to his lights. Moreover, Mr. Whitney was, with Mr. Haven, the park commissioner, one of the very earliest to discover Mr. Grant's commanding talents. In those now apparently far-off days, when Mr. Grant had just taken office as our new mayor, and the rich were rallying round him, and he was filling the whole city with promise, Mr. Whitney called attention to his immense abilities, and the probabilities that

his career would be one of unusual brilliancy—an estimate in which Mr. Haven heartily concurred. "That young man," said one, "is a person of extraordinary powers." "Right you are," said another. "He will go far," said another. "You bet," said a third. The whole community fell in with this view.

He makes one remark in his manifesto which we think of itself shows that the man has a great future:

> "It is the time for Democrats to get together and help make an organization under the roof and rules of old Tammany Hall which shall work for the clean and honest administration of municipal affairs, which shall labor to overthrow the hypocrisy which has beclouded the eyes and minds of the people of this city, and which shall place the government of the city of New York once more in the hands of New Yorkers. It is the duty of every New York Democrat to do this, the duty of every one who loves his party, of every one who has any local pride, of every one who has a contempt for sham."

Now, we know there are plenty of carpers who will cry out that any one could have said this, that we all knew this, and so forth. No man like Mr. Grant can utter a word without having the authorship claimed by some trumpery fellow who is trying to live on other people's brains. What we say is, if this was so easy to say, why did not some one say it? Who hindered him? The facts of the situation were as patent to everybody as to Mr. Grant—the condition of the city and the work before Tammany. Why then did not somebody besides Mr. Grant perceive it, penetrate the heart of the crisis, see the need of the hour, and proclaim the saving truth? Simply because nobody else was H. J. Grant. There is only one Hugh J. Grant, not two—only one man with the perceptive power necessary to set Tammany to its proper work.

A notable victory for the principle of non-partisanship in judicial elections was won in Wisconsin week before last. For a number of years in that State there has been a growing popular conviction that a judge who had served one term with credit should be given another term without regard to his politics. In pursuance of this policy the Republicans have more than once joined in the reëlection of a Democrat when they might have put one of their own party in his place. Under ordinary circumstances the precedent of continuing on the bench a faithful incumbent whose term was about to expire would hardly have been questioned in the Republican party this spring, although he was a Democrat in his political affiliations. But party feeling has run high in Wisconsin since the Democrats got control of the State in 1890 for four years, and also of both the United States senatorships; and when the tidal wave of last fall swept the Republicans back by more than 50,000 majority, the professional politicians, who had never liked the non-partisan principle, resolved to overthrow it. They accordingly nominated a Republican lawyer, and counted upon the 54,000 majority of last November to carry him on the bench in April. But a number of the best Republican newspapers in the State, under the lead of the Milwaukee *Sentinel*, refused to endorse this grab game, and called upon the people to sustain the policy of retaining good judges in office without reference to their politics. The appeal was successful, and although Wisconsin apparently remains as strongly Republican on national politics as last fall, it has reëlected a Democrat to the Supreme bench. The incident is full of encouragement to all believers in the non-partisan principle everywhere.

A bill to establish the office of commissioner of public records in Connecticut is now before the Legislature of that State. The need of such an officer can be fully appreciated only by those who have had personal acquaintance with the records of the counties, cities, and towns of the various States, or have followed the work of the commissioner in Massachusetts. In that State, where the condition of the records was fully up to the average, many had been lost, and many more were in danger from fire, theft, or mutilation. Most of these are now safe, and improvement in the general condition is apparent. The use of permanent ink on public records, which is now required by law in Massachusetts and is proposed in New York, is among the important reforms introduced by the commissioner. The office was established as an experiment, but its operation met with instant popular approval, and it is now both permanent and held in high esteem. We feel sure that the people of Connecticut will manifest the same appreciation if the Legislature follows the example set by the neighbor State. One indirect result will be a revival of local historical and antiquarian interest; and, as in Massachusetts, the preservation of the earliest records by copying and printing will surely be resorted to.

We are extremely sorry that State Senator W. P. Goebel should have had to kill Secretary John Sanford of the Farmers' and Traders' Bank at Covington, Ky., on Thursday. The reason why Goebel killed Sanford was that Sanford tried to kill him, having "lain in wait" for him on the steps of the First National Bank. One or other of them had to die, because they belonged to "Kentucky's best-known families" and were "leaders in politics, business, and society." Politics, business, and society cannot have two leaders in Covington, Ky. One has to perish sooner or later. Goebel was bright, and excited the envy of Hallam and Meyers. Goebel and Sanford ran rival banks. Hence "bitter political feeling." Then at last "the bitter attack" on Sanford appeared in the local paper, referring in its headline to him in "depraved language." One of the bankers was doomed. Sanford leaves a son, who knows what he owes to the memory of his deceased parent and likewise to Goebel. "General regret" over the affair is expressed by the Kentucky colony in Washington. No joy; no exultation. The banking business in Kentucky is evidently what insurance men call "extra-hazardous." It is not every man who could spot a rival cashier lying in wait for him, in time to get the drop on him. We strongly advise elderly Kentucky financiers to fix their residences in New York, and do their business through local fighting men.

The Harvard overseers have decided that it is within the power of the athletic committee to settle the question of the continuance of football, and the athletic committee are going to allow its continuance within college grounds. "There is to be no publicity." Only undergraduates and alumni are to be allowed to witness the sacred mysteries of the play, and "there will be no passes for newspaper reporters." Telegraph or telephone wires will not be allowed on the field, news about the eleven is to be "circulated privately" alone, and "newspaper reasoning from wrong premises, and especially unwarranted puffing and other personal mention of players," are to be rigidly prevented. These proposals betray a lamentable ignorance of both the generous football youth of our colleges and the newspapers. Publicity and puffing and glory are what have made "the game" the great thing it is, and if the players are to contest in secret, for an amount of gate-money that will look more like a missionary collection than the President's salary, with no howling mobs to cheer them on to bloody deeds, the charm of football will disappear for self-respecting students. But the worst blunder refers to the newspapers. Are the overseers aware of the job they have on hand in undertaking to prevent the newspapers from "reasoning from wrong premises"? And do they expect to keep out reporters simply by withholding passes? Most of the football reporters are college men, who would have no difficulty in getting in under the new regulations, and the lurid nature of their accounts would only be heightened by the attempt to curtail their rights. Then as regards keeping players' portraits out of the daily press, have the overseers considered the resources of a well-equipped illustrated daily? Last year's pictures of the intellectual Hinkey will do perfectly well for this year's Brewer, or, if the worst comes, a little dressing up of the Marquis of Castellane's picture will make him pass for a raw-head and bloody-bones football hero. Idlest of all is it to expect that Yale spirit will consent to play football after the Miss Nancy style proposed by the Harvard overseers. It begins to look, in fact, as if those gentlemen had chosen to kill the game by making it ridiculous.

THE SILVER PROPAGANDA.

Signs multiply in all parts of the country that the advocates of free silver coinage have organized a most comprehensive scheme for pushing their views upon the attention of the public and making proselytes. That no State is considered too strongly committed to the cause of sound money to be a hopeless field is illustrated by the fact that Mr. Charles Heber Clark, secretary of the Manufacturers' Club of Philadelphia, went to Harrisburg last week to make a plea before the members of the Pennsylvania Legislature, as the representative of those high-tariff Republicans in the stronghold of protectionism who are ready to follow the lead of Don Cameron, and give that champion of free coinage another term in the United States Senate. The tone of this plea is sufficiently shown by the closing passage:

"This is a question which you can help to answer, and I trust that you will be impelled to send to this nation some message that the great commonwealth that has always been in the very front as the champion of American protection as against British free trade, will still hold that place in the contest between British gold monometallism and that bimetallism which was introduced to our political system by the great men who set up the pillars of the republic."

The recent recommendation by "the American Bimetallic party" of the immediate organization of all who believe in its views is already being followed. A fortnight ago, some four hundred persons, hitherto Democrats, Republicans, and Populists, met at Athens, Ala., and organized the Central Alabama Silver Club. The State commissioner of agriculture, who is a Democrat, offered a resolution to carry on the fight for silver within party lines, but it was overwhelmingly defeated, and in its stead a declaration was unanimously made pledging those present "to support and in 1896 to vote only for the party platform and candidates, national, State, and county, in favor of the free and unlimited coinage of legal-tender silver and gold on equal terms, at 16 to 1, regardless of all past, present, or future political affiliation on other matters." Committees were appointed to organize similar clubs throughout the State.

Another feature of the propaganda is the attempt now making to commit the Democrats of Illinois to the support of free coinage by the unprecedented step of holding a State convention in June of one year to decide what position the party shall take in a campaign for an election that will not be held until November of the following year. The chairman of the State central committee has publicly declared that he is convinced that 90 per cent. of the Democrats of the State outside of Chicago are favorable to "free and unlimited coinage of silver, at the ratio of sixteen to one, without waiting for the action of any foreign government," that he himself is in favor of this policy, and that the party machinery will be used to secure its endorsement at the snap convention.

The free-coinage men have also opened a campaign for the circulation of silver literature on a great scale. They are already flooding the West with copies of 'Coin's Financial School,' and this is only the beginning of their efforts. Gov. Richards of Montana has called a conference, to which the Governors of all the silver-producing States are asked to send delegates, to meet at Salt Lake City next month to inaugurate an "educational campaign on the silver question, the intention being to place bimetallic literature in the hands of voters throughout the Union."

The friends of sound money have every reason to rejoice over such evidence that the silver-men are going to make an open and straightforward fight all over the country. A sharp division between those who want an honest dollar and those who do not is on all accounts to be desired. A year's discussion of the principles that enter into this question is the best possible preparation of the public mind for the Presidential campaign of 1896.

Of course there must be, and will be, as vigorous a campaign for sound money as has been started against it. The work of educating the people must be prosecuted as thoroughly as that of hoodwinking them. Sound-money clubs must be organized, pamphlets laying down the right financial doctrine must be circulated, speakers who can expose the fallacies of the silver-men must be put in the field, particularly in the West and South.

No student of our political history can doubt the result of such an appeal to the people. One's memory need not extend further back than twenty years to find proof that the advocates of sound money will always win when they make a determined fight. The Indianapolis *Journal*, which is the most influential Republican organ in Indiana, is vigorously opposing what it styles "the free-coinage scheme of the bonanza mine-owners," because it "believes profoundly that the free coinage of silver by the United States alone would put this country on a silver basis, drive the stock of gold abroad or make it merchandise, and create a panic such as this country has not witnessed since 1837." The editor of the *Journal* has recently received two or three postal cards from readers who tell him that his paper is not in accord with the majority of the Republican party in opposing free coinage. He makes a very effective reply to such protests by this appeal to history:

"The *Journal* has been through one contest in Indiana for sound money. From first to last it fought the greenback and fiat-money lunacy when it was sweeping the State, and when nearly every Indiana Republican in Congress voted to repeal the resumption act. Then angry appeals and abuse came in every mail from men who are now ashamed that they were ever so far beside themselves as to oppose the resumption of specie payments, which more than doubled the money of the country."

The sound-money men of the country only need to make the same kind of a fight against the free-coinage craze from now until the next Presidential election in order to win an equally complete victory.

AN AMERICAN PROTECTORATE.

It is clear that the Lodge theory of a United States protectorate over this hemisphere has not been adopted by the Government at Washington. His view was, it will be remembered, that Great Britain might properly enough demand an indemnity from Nicaragua for injuries inflicted, but that she could not be allowed to collect it. International law admitted the right to claim, but the shade of James Monroe interposed a ghostly hand to prevent enforcement of the claim. But it appears that Gresham, probably emboldened by Lodge's temporary absence from Washington, has disavowed this idea, and told the English Foreign Office to go ahead and get their $75,000 out of Nicaragua the best way they can. Hence the alarming references of the London *Times* to "the justice and good sense of the Americans." Wary and experienced patriots always distrust such international compliments, knowing that they imply the success of foreign schemers over our too credulous diplomatists.

We do not suppose that even Lodge was serious in his view of an American protectorate. Certainly no man with the responsibilities of directing foreign affairs upon him could look upon any such doctrine without amazement. It implies that the countries of South America may be as insolent or lawless or reckless in their dealings with any European Power as they please, and that our Government will always interfere to prevent them from being punished in any way whatever. What the effect of such a monstrous principle, if once established, would be upon the class of men in office in South America, can easily be imagined. They would be protected against the consequences of their own acts. They would not need to pay their debts, or to observe international courtesies or obligations, and could count upon the United States to prevent their being forced to make either apology or reparation. The position in which it would put this country would be intolerable. We should be in the situation of a foolish old uncle allowing a scapegrace nephew the luxury of doing exactly what he pleased, without any danger of ever being called to book for debts or debauchery.

The duties of nations exercising a protectorate over certain portions of the earth's surface are not clearly defined and are still the subject of discussion. Prof. Westlake devotes a good part of his last volume to the matter, which has assumed no little importance in connection with the partition of Africa among the European Powers. Many things about protectorates and "spheres of influence" remain unsettled, but no jurist or statesman or man in his senses supposes that there can be a protectorate without responsibilities. Yet the Lodge idea is that we can be protectors without any obligations whatever. If Great Britain claims an indemnity from Nicaragua, or Germany from Venezuela, we must cry

"Hands off! America is for Americans." But if Downing Street then says, "Very well, keep your protégés in order, and pay their debts yourself if you won't allow us to collect our dues," we are to assume a surprised and pained air, and talk deprecatingly of the sovereignty and independence of the South American nations, with which we could not for a moment think of interfering.

Such international effrontery no public man would be equal to off the stump, nor would he be, we should hope, to the impudence of denying the right of other countries to apply the same rule to South America that we follow ourselves. When we have a claim, we set about enforcing it. American citizens have had claims against Venezuela pending since 1871, on account of some steamboats of theirs held in the Orinoco by revolutionists. These claims were taken up by the State Department, but negotiations dragged, and finally, in 1890, Congress passed a joint resolution authorizing the President to collect the money by force, if necessary. Happily, force was not necessary, as a mixed commission has since passed on the claims and made an award of $141,000, which Venezuela will now meekly pay over. But the spectacle of the United States forbidding England to do what they themselves were ready enthusiastically to do five years ago, would be too much for anybody but those sad and sincere men, without a ray of humor, who are known as Jingoes.

The effect of this wild notion may be observed in operation in South America in two ways. In proud and jealous countries, like Chili and Argentina, it produces a distinctly hostile feeling. They do not want to be protected or patronized. In the weaker republics, like Venezuela and Nicaragua, it arouses a vague belief that the United States are bound to stand by them in all their quarrels with European Powers, right or wrong. Venezuela, it is reported, is going to declare war against Great Britain as a result of the Guiana dispute, and to look to this country to see that she is not allowed to be spanked. This is certainly deplorable, both for the South Americans and for ourselves. As for Europeans, in so far as they take the talk of our Jingo Senators seriously, they are both puzzled and exasperated by it. What they see clearly, however, and say with sufficient positiveness, is that the fast-and-loose protectorate over this hemisphere asserted in some quarters is thoroughly impossible if the world is to live in peace. Their attitude was well expressed by the London *Economist* of March 23, when it said:

> "It is needless to say that there is no Power in Europe so great that it does not regret and even dread a dispute with the United States, but still it is possible to carry deference too far, and sooner or later these recurring incidents will lead to regrettable complications. Europe, as a whole, may even be compelled to ask the Government at Washington whether it does or does not claim any especial rights within North and South America and Hawaii, and if so, what these rights are. Does the Union claim to be the protector, in the modern sense, of Spanish and Portuguese America; or does it regard all the Powers within those limits as its dependent allies? In either case, does it acknowledge itself to be in any sense answerable for their conduct?"

WESTERN REBUKES OF EASTERN FILIBUSTERS.

It must have been generally remarked that the wildest talk in favor of the annexation policy comes from Eastern Senators. Frye, Lodge, and Platt, all of whom during the last few weeks have been shrieking that the United States ought without delay to begin grabbing territory in different parts of the world, are representatives of New England Republicanism—that Republicanism which in the first national convention of the party supported with enthusiasm the declaration in the platform that "the highwayman's plea, that 'might makes right,' was in every respect unworthy of American diplomacy, and would bring shame and dishonor upon any government or people that gave it their sanction."

Time enough has now elapsed for public sentiment throughout the country regarding the proposed revival of the old "highwayman" policy to find expression. It is an interesting fact that, while many New England journals have kept silent or even endorsed the outbreaks of the Maine, Massachusetts, and Connecticut Senators, earnest protests against their annexation schemes have been made by representative party journals in the West.

The Milwaukee *Sentinel*, which is the chief Republican newspaper in Wisconsin, opens an article on "The Annexationists" by calling attention to what Mr. Bryce says, in the new chapter on "The Home of the Nation" in the last edition of his 'American Commonwealth,' on the immense advantages that Nature has given this country by reason of its geographical position:

> "Severing its home by a wide ocean from the Old World of Europe on the east, and by a still wider one from the half-old, half-new world of Asia and Australasia on the west, she has made the nation sovereign of its own fortunes. It need fear no attacks nor even any pressure from the military and naval Powers of the eastern hemisphere, and it has little temptation to dissipate its strength in contests with them. It has no doubt a strong neighbor on the north, but a friendly one, linked by many ties of interest as well as kindred, and not likely ever to become threatening. It had on the south neighbors who might have been dangerous, but fortune favored it by making one of them hopelessly weak, and obliging the other, strong as she was, to quit possession at a critical moment. Thus it is left to itself as no great state has ever yet been in the world; thus its citizens enjoy an opportunity never before granted to a nation, of making their country what they will to have it."

With a merited sneer at such demagogues as Lodge, the *Sentinel* admits that "perhaps the more resolute spirits among the gentlemen who wish this country to annex Hawaii, Cuba, and other islands will see in Mr. Bryce's words nothing but a crafty attempt to further the interests of Great Britain by pretending that it is advantageous to the United States to keep itself isolated; and Mr. Bryce, in their eyes, may be only a subtle and insinuating British agent, who has been hired to use his influence against the annexation of territory by this country." But the Wisconsin editor is of opinion that nobody whose judgment is worth anything will doubt that Mr. Bryce is still, as he always has been, an exceptionally intelligent, well-informed, and disinterested friend of the United States; and he considers the passage above quoted "especially worth reading at this time, when Americans who ought to know better are effervescing with a desire to annex a few half-civilized communities."

The Omaha *Bee*, in an article entitled "Unwise Counsellors," points out that the utterances of Frye, Lodge, and Platt show "a spirit distinctly hostile to the established principles and policy of the nation, which, if permitted to grow until it takes possession of the people, cannot fail to involve us in grave and serious complications and conflicts." The *Bee* calls attention to the advantages that we now enjoy by virtue of our situation, and shows that, if we depart from our traditional policy and begin gathering in all the territory we can lay our hands on, as advised by the New England highwaymen, "we should not long enjoy the freedom from aggression on the part of other nations that our isolated position has given us." "Let this country enter upon such a course as these Senators suggest," it adds, "and it would not be long before we should have to reckon with the rest of the world, perhaps united against us."

These patriotic Western editors expose the demagogism of the Fryes, Lodges, and Platts most effectively when they point out that we have quite enough on our hands in governing the territory we now have. "It is hard to understand," says the *Sentinel*, "this desire to increase the troubles we have by adding others which we know not of"; and it proceeds to give this much-needed advice to the New England demagogues:

> "An American who wishes to be patriotic would be better employed in trying to get men of sense and integrity nominated for aldermen in his ward, in trying to give his city clean streets and fine public buildings, in spreading information about money, in tackling any of the problems which the country must settle. This kind of employment is not so spectacular as preaching the need of territorial acquisition, and not so exciting for the preacher, but it deserves to attract men who have energy and hard heads. We have an opportunity, as Mr. Bryce says, of making this country what we wish to have it. Some of us are in danger of neglecting this opportunity through a desire to borrow trouble from abroad."

The Western editors do not believe that at present any considerable body of the American people sympathizes with the views of those who think that this country ought to reach out for new territory on every hand. The *Bee* points out that such a policy involves the building of an enormous navy, the maintenance of a great standing army, and the reconstruction of the machinery of the home Gov-

ernment; and these are things which it feels "confident the great majority of the American people do not desire." At the same time, as a strong effort is making to impress these views upon the people, the Omaha editor holds that "the sooner their dangerous nature is pointed out, the better."

Politics is notoriously full of surprises, but it has seldom shown a greater than when that section which has always prided itself upon its superior morality, as illustrated in its traditional hostility to filibustering, suddenly breaks forth, through its chosen representatives in the Senate, as the advocate of the "highwayman" policy, and then is properly taken to task for its unpatriotic attitude by a younger section, which reminds New England that the true grandeur of nations is not to be found in spectacular conquests of territory, but in the more prosaic work of solving the great problems that already tax the energies of this country.

A NEGLECTED INCIDENT IN THE LIFE OF DR. FRANKLIN.

PHILADELPHIA, April 9, 1895.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN paid a visit to Germany in the year 1766, which appears to have been almost entirely neglected by his biographers, and yet it is of interest from many points of view. In a letter to his wife dated London, June 13, 1766 (printed in Sparks's 'Works of Franklin,' vol. vii., p. 320), he wrote: "To morrow I set out with my friend Dr. Pringle (now Sir John) on a journey to Pyrmont, where he goes to drink the waters. . . . We must be back at farthest in eight weeks. . . . I propose to leave him in Pyrmont and visit some of the principal cities nearest to it, and call for him again when the time for our return draws nigh." That he actually went to the baths with Pringle we have satisfactory evidence in the Pyrmont *Brunnenarchiv*, published in Berlin in 1782, which contains a list of the guests at Pyrmont from 1752, and which, under the year 1766, contains the entry: "Leibmedicus Ritter Pringle aus London und Dr. Franklin aus Pennsylvanien, kommt aus London."

Very few references to this trip occur in his correspondence or elsewhere. It was in the midst of a very exciting period of Franklin's life, which may account for the fact that he makes such small mention of the journey himself; but the few times he mentions it, he certainly shows that he enjoyed it very much, and there is various evidence from German sources pointing to the fact that his visit was regarded as a very important and interesting event in the annals of Goettingen.

The exact date of Franklin's visit to Goettingen is fortunately preserved for us in the reports of the Goettingen Academy of Sciences. In the one hundred and tenth issue of the *Goettinger Anzeigen*, bearing date of September 13, 1766, the statement is made that the session of the Royal Society of Sciences held on the 19th of the preceding July was more impressive than usual. "The two famous English scholars, the Royal physician, Mr. Pringle, and Mr. Benjamin Franklin, from Pennsylvania, who happened to be at that time in Goettingen on a trip through Germany, took their seats as members of the Society." The same periodical, in its issue of September 27, 1766, says that Pringle and Franklin visited Mr. Hartmann in Hanover in order to see his apparatus for strong electrical experiments. Sir John Pringle, in a letter dated London, September 6, 1766, to Professor Michaelis of Goettingen, thanks him for the courtesies which he and Dr. Franklin had received from him on occasion of their visit to that city. In a letter dated June 2, 1769, to the same gentleman, Pringle apologizes to him for some extraordinary statements which Franklin had made during their conversation in Goettingen in 1766, in regard to the enormous size of the Patagonians, explaining that he had been misled by the reports of sailors.

During this visit at Goettingen, Professor Achenwall held a conversation with Franklin on the condition of the American colonies He wrote out careful notes of this interview, and published them subsequently in the *Hannoversches Magazin* in the seventeenth, eighteenth, nineteenth, thirty-first, and thirty-second issues—the first bearing date of February 27, 1767, and the last April 20, 1767—under the title of "Some Remarks upon North America and the Colonies of Great Britain in that Continent, from a Personal Interview with Dr. Franklin." He remarks in his closing note that he found Dr. Franklin very willing indeed to answer all his questions, and not only that, but to go much further and give him all the information he could in regard to matters in the New World. He also calls attention to the fact, in this foot-note, that when the British colonies felt themselves aggrieved by the Stamp Act, they showed almost exactly the same temper and mode of thought as the Corcyreans displayed towards their mother country, Corinth, on a somewhat similar occasion. (See Thucydides i., 34, etc.)

The report of this interview with Dr. Franklin was republished subsequently in various forms: In Koehler's (J. T.) 'Sammlung neuer Reisebeschreibungen aus fremden Sprachen,' Goettingen and Gotha, 1767-69; also, a separate edition entitled 'Herrn Hofrath Achenwalls in Goettingen Anmerkungen über Nord Amerika und über dasige grosbritannische Colonien aus mündlichen Nachrichten des Herrn Dr. Franklin,' Frankfort and Leipzig, 1769; also, at Helmstedt in 1777. The latter edition was accompanied by an appendix consisting of a translation of John Wesley's address to his brethren and countrymen in the American colonies. There seems to have been also a Dutch translation of this interview published at Utrecht in 1778.

The book attracted considerable attention, to judge from these frequent reprints; though, so far as I am able to learn, no mention of it is made by any of Franklin's biographers or bibliographers, with one exception, and he evidently knew nothing beyond its bare title. Mr. Paul Leicester Ford, in his Franklin Bibliography (a most valuable work, by the way), mentions it, but confuses it with a supposed translation of 'The Examination in Parliament,' published by Almon in London in 1766. He says in the Bibliography (page 133), under the title of 'Examination in Parliament,' that this work was reprinted several times in German, and gives the three titles which are cited above. It is evident that Mr. Ford had never seen any one of these pamphlets, or he could not have fallen into such a serious mistake. Not only do the pamphlets above mentioned treat of an entirely different subject, but they had no relation whatever to the 'Examination in Parliament,' nor, so far as I have been able to ascertain, is any mention made in any one of them of the fact that Dr. Franklin had been examined before Parliament. The Frankfort and Leipzig edition of 1769 is in the Philadelphia Library; the Koehler edition is reported by Sabin to be in the Harvard College Library, and the Helmstedt edition, he states, is in the Massachusetts Historical Society's Library. Copies of the Koehler edition and of the Helmstedt edition are to be found in the British Museum, and the Leipzig edition of 1769 is also in the British Museum catalogue, but the attendants were unable to find it when I called for it.

The copy in the Philadelphia Library contains 94 pages, 12mo, and discusses various topics relating to the British Colonies. The style of composition bears out the statement of the author, that it is essentially a series of answers to questions which he propounded in regard to the Indians, to the products of the country, its agriculture, manufactures and commerce, education, government, monetary and tax systems, law of succession, system of land-holding, slavery, redemptioners, religion, towns and cities, etc. The account of the paper money issued in Pennsylvania would of itself be ample evidence that this pamphlet rested upon statements of Franklin, as the account is very similar to that which he gives in other places.

Koehler, in his edition, evidently regards it as very necessary to correct some of Dr. Franklin's statements about the colonies, on the basis of Meyer Roberts's account of his travels in America, and he adds a number of foot-notes which are interesting, as he plainly makes the attempt to discredit Franklin's testimony. He accuses Franklin of great carelessness in his statements to Prof. Achenwall, and unfairness towards other colonies than Pennsylvania. He states, for example, that Franklin had said that a college had been established in Boston, when every one knew that it was at Cambridge, six miles from Boston! Franklin spoke, moreover, of the educational institutions of Pennsylvania as though they were the only ones in the colonies, whereas many other colonies had just as good, and probably better—notably, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey. Franklin speaks of the colonists paying tribute to the Iroquois Indians in the shape of gifts; Koehler remarks that this is true probably only of the Pennsylvanians—"mostly Quakers, whom their religion makes cowards."

In speaking of the difficulties in Pennsylvania between the Government and the colonists, which Franklin had described in some detail, Koehler says: "The Pennsylvanians are a 'sort of little rebels' who are violating in a criminal way the rights and dignities of their indisputable superiors, as well as the laws of nations; these people have become insolent through their too quickly acquired wealth, and deserve the severest punishment, because they give other subjects a bad example." He is not even satisfied with Franklin's description of how bear-roast is prepared in Pennsylvania. For, although he cannot deny that Franklin's description is true, still he says they do this much better in Poland, where they boil the claws in Burgundy, and thus make a most savory morsel.

In this interview with Achenwall, Franklin claims the credit for the establishment of the college in Philadelphia in 1749 (now the University of Pennsylvania). He declared, among other things, that the stories of the wealth of Mexico and its civilization were all a myth. "The Indians," he declared, "were barbarians; how could they build such cities as the Spaniards described?"

More than a year after his return to England, Dr. Franklin received a letter from Johann Friedrich Hartmann, dated the Calends of October, 1767, in which the writer says that he shall always remember the time when he was privileged to talk with Franklin on the occasion of his visit to Hanover. He also states that the Prince of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt had sent a special messenger to Goettingen to salute Franklin; but the messenger got to Goettingen the very day Franklin left and too late to see him (printed in Sparks, vol. vii., p. 326). This Hartmann was a very prominent physician in Hanover, head of the royal hospital, and well known to scholars of that day for his interest in electrical investigations.

A further reference to this visit of Franklin's to Goettingen is found in Johann Stephen Pütter's 'Selbstbiographie' (2 vols., Goettingen, 1798, pp. 490 and 491). Pütter there mentions the pleasure which he derived from a visit of the famous Franklin and his equally famous English companion, Dr. Pringle, then President of the Royal Academy of Sciences at London. He says that Franklin was at that time working on the plan of the establishment of an American university at Philadelphia, and that was one of the reasons which led to his visit to Goettingen. Although he was not able to speak German, he seemed to be glad to get a copy of Pütter's 'History of the University,' and he talked with him and others about its contents. "I had the pleasure," Pütter remarks, "of having these gentlemen at my house one afternoon and evening, in company with other scholars in Goettingen. My friend Achenwall utilized this opportunity to get exact information from my guest as to the condition of the American Colonies, and their relation to the mother country; he subsequently published a part of this information in the *Hannoversches Magazin*. What Franklin said at that time could almost be regarded as the exact prophecy of the events which afterwards took place in that quarter of the world."

In Von Schlözer's Life, by his son, published at Leipzig in 1828, the author mentions that his father, on occasion of a visit to Hanover in April, 1766, dined at Münchhausen's along with the celebrated American, Dr. Franklin. He adds that nothing remarkable occurred on this occasion, except that Dr. Franklin kept his spectacles on during the entire meal—evidently looking upon this much as he would have done on Franklin's keeping on his hat.

In the Autobiography of Prof. Michaelis, published at Leipzig in 1793, he mentions having met Franklin in the summer of 1766, and he also gives us an account of what he calls an important conversation that he held with Franklin on one occasion at table.

"As he was dining at my house, we talked much about America; about the Indians; the rapid growth of the English Colonies; their population; their doubling in twenty-five years, etc, and I remarked that when I was in London in 1741 I had taken occasion to study pretty carefully the condition of these colonies from English books and reports, and I had come to the conclusion, which I expressed at that time to various people, that the colonies would ere long become independent. They laughed at me at that time; but I said I was of the same opinion still. Franklin thereupon answered, with his earnest, significant and shrewd expression, that I was entirely mistaken; the Americans had a great love for their mother country. I replied, that might be so, but the mighty sweep of interest would soon work very strong and outweigh or destroy the love for the mother country. He could not deny that this might be true, but he said their revolt would still be impossible, for every important place in the colonies, including Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, lay exposed to the English fleets. Boston could easily be destroyed by a bombardment; to this, of course, I could not reply. I did not think, at the time, that I was talking with a man who a few years later was destined to play such a prominent part in the fulfilment of my prophecies. When the disturbances actually broke out, I watched with great interest for the beginning of the bombardment of Boston, but things took an entirely different course."

The editor of the Autobiography of Michaelis remarks in a foot-note that he had had the opportunity, as a student at Goettingen, of seeing Franklin and Pringle, who had dropped into the Goettingen Library, and that they had pleased him much better than the famous Lessing, who was also stopping at that time in Goettingen. "These Englishmen, who are ordinarily reputed to be very distant in their manners, were exceedingly pleasant and condescending; Lessing, on the contrary, was distant and contemptuous."

EDMUND J. JAMES.

BROC'S LIFE UNDER THE FIRST EMPIRE.

PARIS, March 28, 1895.

M. DE BROC is the author of two volumes on 'France under the Old Régime,' which gave a clear account of the administration of the French provinces before the Revolution, and of the old provincial life. The interest I felt in reading this work, which was full of data and of documents scattered in a number of volumes, often difficult to find, induced me to read also a new volume by M. de Broc which has just appeared, 'La Vie en France sous le Premier Empire.' Why did he not write simply, 'La France sous le Premier Empire' as he did 'La France sous l'Ancien Régime'? "Life in France" means everything and nothing. In going over the volume I saw that M. de Broc intended to give to his new work a sort of dramatic life, with the help of the innumerable documents which we now possess on the period of the Empire. He meant to be more anecdotic, and it is perhaps a pity, for we know all his anecdotes, and I, for my part, expected a more general and systematic survey of the institutions of France as they were left us by Napoleon. For, if Napoleon's immense empire was but an empty dream, if he left the frontiers of France just as he found them, after having conquered nearly the whole of Europe, he was more successful as a lawgiver. "He created," as M. de Broc says, "institutions which have outlived himself and which are still flourishing. He made many laws which have not escaped criticism, but which nobody has yet undone. Neither monarchies nor republics have effaced their mark. . . . If the institutions of the First Consul and of the Emperor have such profound roots, it must be because they corresponded to the needs of the new France and were adapted to its manners. If they had been only the instrument of a reign, they would not have survived it."

In order to judge Napoleon well we must always see in him the First Consul, the inspirer of the Code Civil (so long called Code Napoléon) and author of the Concordat. One of the framers of the Code Civil, who died very old, told a friend of mine, who repeated it to me, that in the discussions which took place in the Council of State, at the time of the framing of the Code Civil, Napoleon, who presided as First Consul, took an active part in the deliberations, and always astonished the old *parlementaires* and jurists who were members of the Council by what they called between themselves his Jacobin opinions. Montalembert used to call the Code Civil the code of despotism. Napoleon would not tolerate testamentary freedom—he would have all children treated alike; and the part of which a father can freely dispose—what is called the *quotité disponible*—was reduced under his inspiration to a *part d'enfant*: that is to say, if there are two children, the father can dispose of a third of his fortune; if there are three, of a fourth; if there are four, of a fifth, and so on.

"You French," said Napoleon one day to Mme. de Rémusat, "care for nothing seriously except equality. And you would all renounce it willingly if you could each of you flatter yourself with the idea of being the first. . . . It is necessary to give to each man the hope of rising . . . and to keep your vanities at work. The severity of a republican government would have bored you to death. What made the Revolution? Vanity. And what will end it? Vanity. Liberty is a mere pretext."

The Code Civil is the code of that perfect equality which Napoleon thought to be the dominant passion of the French people. Its administrative expression must be found in our centralization, the most complete and in one sense perfect centralization to be found in the present or in the past. This centralization is the common work of the Revolution and of Napoleon; it began with the destruction of the old provinces and the creation of the departments. The province had its own life, the department is an arbitrary geographical unity; the First Consul had as many proconsuls as there were departments. I once asked a friend of mine who had been prefect in several great departments, if he did not dislike being sent from one place to another, and if he did not find these changes too laborious. "Not in the least," said he; "the prefect is everywhere the prefect; he finds everywhere the famous decree of Messidor, which is still in force, and which regulates precedence among all the functionaries, civil or military—the prefect, the bishops, the presidents of the law courts, the generals, etc.; he finds everywhere the same bureaux of the prefecture, where all business is classified and annotated; he has to go through the same rounds of visits for the *conseil de révision*—that is, the examination of the conscript soldiers; he has to preside at the same annual meetings of the councils-general; he has the same legal advisers." Wherever he goes, he is the representative of the State, whether the State be republican, imperialist, or monarchical. He is part of a great engine which is worked in Paris. He is not a man, he is a prefect; he has no thoughts but inspired thoughts, no will but an impersonal will. He comes to-day, he disappears to-morrow. He is all the more formidable because he is nobody.

This great machine of centralization was so minutely described by Taine that M. de Broc could not improve upon his description. At various times attempts have been made to secure decentralization, not only administrative, but intellectual also, if I may so express myself. Under the Second Empire, a certain number of gentlemen in Lorraine made an effort in this direction; they are still remembered under the name of the "school of Nancy." At present there are a few men who favor the creation of provincial universities, to play in France a part similar to that played in Germany by so many independent universities, which are distinct focuses of intellect. I find in some Souvenirs (now in process of publication) of Madame Octave Feuillet, the widow of a novelist who was a member of the French Academy, and who had some celebrity in the days of the Second Empire, an extract from

a letter which Feuillet addressed to Napoleon III. in January, 1867:

"One word more, Sire. Let the Emperor allow me to confide to him an idea which oppresses me, and which reflection fortifies every day. I think that the terrible instability of government in France is caused not alone by the political agitations of the country; I believe that the extreme centralization of the Parisian dictatorship has much to do with it. It is difficult for the Emperor to judge exactly the degree of mortal inertia into which the province has fallen. As the result of centralization, the whole of France has become the servile faubourg of Paris. The supremacy of Paris has no counterpoise, and, in every crisis, in each sudden movement, the head threatens to give the impulse to the body. . . . An almost incredible fact, Sire, is the want of men in the province. In a department like mine, which has 600,000 inhabitants [he wrote from the Manche], not one Deputy can be found. The provincial life is so reduced, so null, that it can neither form intellects nor harden characters. The France of '89 was much more fruitful.

"Must we believe, Sire, that centralization, excellent as a remedy and a means, is bad as a régime; that, in this sense, the Revolution went too far? Is not the chief work of centralization, French unity, accomplished for ever? And, at any rate, is not the chance of civil wars preferable to the chance of a Commune of Paris? Would it not be time to give to the province—that is to say, to France—under new forms in harmony with the times, life, spring, independence, a distinct activity, the local animation which the former provincial institutions of the old régime spread over the whole surface of the empire?"

The Emperor contented himself with thanking Feuillet for the expression of his "elevated and patriotic views." These spasmodic efforts towards decentralization will probably always be vain; there are material facts which favor centralization, and which act every day with more power and more energy. The railways, the telegraphs, the telephones are powerful agents of centralization; they make, in one sense, each country smaller; the business of every town, every village can easily be carried on in the capital. Paris acts like the brain which orders all the movements of the body. It is a curious fact, however, that, since administrative centralization has been made so easy and so complete, since there is, so to speak, no provincial autonomy left, the history not only of the provinces but of the old cities and the ancient monuments of France is studied with a minuteness and a care which is quite extraordinary. Any book, any pamphlet, any document relating to the old provincial life is sure to find a buyer. I am a constant reader of sale catalogues, and I am very much struck by the care which is now taken by booksellers to collect these pamphlets and documents. The provincial archives are now kept as well as our great libraries, and I remember the time when they were shamefully neglected.

There is one domain in which Napoleon met with a moral force stronger than his own. He was at heart of the opinion of the kings and princes of the sixteenth century. He made the Concordat, and signed a treaty of alliance with the Church; but he had no respect for religious liberty. A mere deist at heart, he considered an established religion as a mere "instrumentum regni." He met with some opposition in his *entourage* when he signed the Concordat.

Constant tells us in his Memoirs that on the day when the new law on public worship was signed, Joseph Bonaparte entered his room with the Consul Cambacérès.

"'Well,' said the First Consul to Cambacérès, 'we are going to mass. What do people think of it in Paris?' 'Many people,' said Cambacérès, 'intend to go to the first representation, and to hiss the play if they don't find it amusing.' 'If anybody dares to hiss, I will have him thrown out by my consular guard.' 'But if the grenadiers hiss like the others?' 'No fear of it. My old moustaches will go to Notre Dame as they did to the mosque in Cairo. They will look at me, and when they see their general behave gravely and decently, they will say, It is the order of the day.' 'I am afraid,' said Joseph Bonaparte, 'that the generals will not be so yielding. I have just left Augereau inveighing against what he calls your *capucinades*.' 'Bah! Augereau is a noisy fellow, and if he has some little imbecile of a cousin, he will put him in a seminary and ask me to make him an almoner.'"

Bonaparte well knew that the immense majority of the nation would see with satisfaction the reopening of the churches; but he intended to govern the clergy despotically. All the bishops' mandates were to be submitted to the approbation of his prefect, whether they were Catholics, Protestants, or Jews. The episcopate was reduced to a perfect slavery; the despotism of the Emperor and his agents was equalled only by the servility of some of the bishops. The curate became a minister of the imperial rule; he was forced to preach for the conscription, to read the bulletins of the Grand Army. (These ceased to be read after 1805.) I have before my eyes a copy of the catechism which was used in the churches of the French Empire, with the approbation of Cardinal Caprara, the Papal legate. It was used from 1806 to 1814. The seventh lesson made this commentary on the fourth commandment:

"What are the duties of Christians towards the princes who govern them, and what are particularly our duties towards Napoleon I, our Emperor? Christians owe to the princes who govern them, and particularly to Napoleon I., our Emperor, their love, their respect, their obedience, their fidelity, military service. . . . To honor and serve our Emperor is to honor and to serve God.—What is to be thought of those who would not fulfil their duties toward the Emperor? According to the Apostle Saint Paul, they would resist the order established by God himself and would deserve eternal damnation."

Though he had been consecrated by the Pope, Napoleon was not long in treating him as a vassal. He took possession of his States, and imprisoned him in France. He took a very practical and realistic view of religion. One of his courtiers, Cardinal Maury, once said to Pasquier: "Well, the Emperor has satisfied the two great needs of his capital: with a good police and a good clergy he is sure to keep it quiet. An archbishop is a prefect of police."

The subject treated by M. de Broc was almost exhausted by Taine. M. de Broc has not the sledge-hammer style of Taine; he is more superficial. I expected to find in his book what is not found in Taine, a lively description of the imperial society. The contact of the old aristocracy, after the emigration, with the new military aristocracy of Napoleon's creation was a fine subject for the political philosopher; but M. de Broc has not analyzed in a wide and philosophical spirit the immense social transformation which took place at the beginning of this century. He has contented himself with putting side by side a number of anecdotes and extracts from memoirs. The impression left by his volume is wanting in clearness and in sharpness.

Correspondence.

THE INCOME TAX.—TWO METHODS OF LEGISLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Comparisons may be odious, but they are not always without instruction.

(1.) The existing method. Any one of 356 members of Congress introduces a bill for an income tax; it is referred to a standing committee of seventeen members made up by the Speaker of the House, the selection being based possibly upon some financial reputation of the individuals, but mainly upon party and political considerations, chief among which is the degree of their influence in procuring his election to his office. No member of the committee has even the pretence of representing the Treasury, or the nation, or the public interest, or has any responsibility for or needs to have any knowledge of the administrative effect of any laws which may be passed. Every member represents 1-356th part of the whole country, and is amenable in the first place to the pressure of his own constituents, but in a much greater degree to the necessity of conciliating the other 339-356ths of the House, themselves under hydraulic pressure from the private and party interest in the lobby. The bill as reported, therefore, is not constructed with an eye to the revenue of the Treasury or its effect upon the business of the country, or the possibility of its being put in operation, but solely as to whether it can be passed. The idea of its being subjected to anything like the test of effective debate is too absurd to be worth a moment's attention. The bill has passed both houses, after such tinkering as can be imagined, and is signed by the President, who cannot veto it without incurring the reproach of upsetting the financial system established by the deliberate judgment of Congress. The whole country is in an uproar in trying to understand the provisions of the act, the modes of making returns, the possibility and even the constitutionality of collection. Certain persons combine to bring the question before the Supreme Court, and, pending the decision, the whole subject stands in abeyance beyond the period fixed by law for the collection. Suddenly the Court decides by splitting the act in two in the middle, declaring that one-half the sources aimed at cannot constitutionally be touched, leaving the other half to be applied with an amount of uncertainty, jealousy, and exasperation far outweighing in their disastrous effect upon the public mind any possible benefit to the revenue. Such, up to this date, is the net outcome of the profound wisdom of our present methods of legislation.

(2.) A possible method. Congress may be supposed to have passed a resolution that an income tax is expedient, and called upon the Government to submit a bill for that purpose. The Secretary of the Treasury, in conference with the President and the other members of the Cabinet, has undertaken the task. They know well that their proposals will be subjected to the fiercest criticism, and that to have any chance of success their bill must be workable in its details, and bear unmistakable evidence of having been prepared solely with a view to the protection of the Treasury with the least possible disturbance of or injustice to private interests. Questions of constitutionality would be provided for in advance by submitting points for the decision of the Supreme Court. The bill, thus carefully pre-

pared, is laid before Congress by the Secretary of the Treasury in person, with an oral exposition of its details. Debate then begins. Members of the Government party will almost be compelled to support it. Those of the other side will have to take great care that their opposition is based upon grounds of public interest, and not upon local and party interests, which would be too dangerous in the face of Cabinet representatives of the whole country. Everything that could be said for and against the bill would be said. If it was finally passed, the country would know its history, that it had been adopted with full deliberation, and would accept it with resignation, if not with pleasure.

If the mass of criticism and amendments was so great as to make the passage of the bill impossible, and of such a kind that the Government would not accept them, the Secretary would withdraw the bill altogether, as it would be better to wait for another session or another Congress than to adopt hasty or reckless legislation.

Besides the direct effect of this course, members would appear before the country individually and in the light of public debate, instead of being lost in the secrecy of the committee rooms, and the people would begin to regain confidence in Congress instead of steadily losing it.

Which of the two methods is most in accord, not merely with common sense, but with the prospect of the future welfare of popular government, of course every thoughtful person will decide for himself. G. B.

Boston, April 13, 1895.

THE ILLINOIS FACTORY LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to suggest that in your article of April 4 on the Illinois factory law you quite misunderstand the purposes and significance of that law. Its purpose was in no way a catering to the labor vote of this State; its significance involved in no sense a success of the labor politicians. It meant simply a first valuable step in the heavy task of giving legislative sanction to the accepted results of modern sanitary and philanthropic science. The propagation of disease in garment-making sweat-shops, the stunting of the race by disease-producing child labor, the unnecessary hazards in dangerous machinery, the race-degeneration through excessive and unhealthy modes of work by females—these are some of the evils which English legislation has already found worth attacking, and which the as yet youthful development of Western manufacturing makes it now possible to remedy with special ease and effectiveness. Such evils and remedies it is which you appear unable to discriminate from the demands for class legislation in favor of manual laborers. There are some of us who, like you, are neither anarchists nor socialists; who, like you, believe neither in a general pampering of certain classes of workers nor in particular in an indiscriminate eight-hour law. But it is a serious disappointment to us to find you taking satisfaction in a decision which involves a standstill in the progress of modern philanthropy. Could you accompany our factory inspector for a week in a tour of the Illinois establishments, you would see enough to wrench your heart-strings, and to turn your sympathies if not your convictions.

After all, is not this matter of bringing constitutional engines to bear something of a farce? Is it not more a matter of personal feelings and preconceived notions than of the legitimate effect of ambiguous constitutional clauses? To illustrate. The Supreme Court in its opinion admits that "the right to contract may be subject to limitations imposed . . . by the demands of public policy or the necessity of protecting the public from fraud or injury," but claims that where this police power is exercised "to secure the public comfort, welfare, or safety, it must appear to be adapted to that end," and that in this legislation about women laborers "there is nothing in the nature of the employment . . . which is in itself unhealthy or unlawful or injurious to the public morals or welfare," that "the mere fact of sex will not justify the Legislature in putting forth the police power of the State for the purpose of limiting her exercise of those rights, unless the court is able to see that there is some fair, just, and reasonable connection between such limitation and public health, safety, or welfare proposed to be secured by it"; that "the court must be able to see that the law has at least in fact some relation to the public health, that the public health is the end actually aimed at, and that it is appropriate and adapted to that end. This we have not been able to see in this law."

Now, here is no real constitutional question. It is simply that the members of the Court "have not been able to see" a conclusion of fact, a purpose which seems apparent on the face of the law, an appropriateness of means that has been approved by physicians and philanthropists the world over, sanctioned by repeated and deliberate English legislation, and twice recommended by the International Association of Factory Inspectors on sanitary grounds. When the question is merely whether the Court is "able to see" a specific sanitary purpose and the adaptability of means to this end, is it not clear that its inability to see what so many qualified persons have seen is, after all, a matter of temperament and preconceived belief, and that it is no victory for great constitutional ideas, but simply for a certain conservatism of thought? Is it not time to cease flattering ourselves as the defenders of imaginary constitutional bulwarks, and to consider whether it is not, after all, mere matter of personal opinion on a social question? This would make us more humble in our attitude and more ready to give a fair consideration to the real issues of such a question. J. H. W.

Chicago, April 8, 1895.

[Our correspondent's points seem to us fully covered by the court's opinion. As this document contains twenty-six pages of concise argument, we have space but to remark that it seems to us not to "misunderstand the purposes and significance" of the law; and that the "purpose" of a Legislature, unless so expressed as to limit the law itself, has nothing to do with the interpretation, still less the constitutionality, of the laws it may enact. Nor have we any contention with the regulation of sweat-shops or dangerous or improper employments. This law was a general one, covering the right of industrial employment of women and their contracts for such employment, and was not limited to sweat-shops; had it been so limited, it might have stood. And the obnoxious section 5 was not avowedly a sanitary, but a sex, restriction. In England the Parliament is supreme; in our country the individual is guaranteed certain rights. But the laws of Illinois provide that "no person shall be precluded or debarred from any occupation, profession, or employment (except military) on account of sex." And under the Constitution of the United States a woman has been held to be a citizen. As such, she has a constitutional right to make her own contracts. If it were constitutional for the Legislature of Illinois to forbid her working more than eight hours, it would be constitutional to forbid her working at all.—Ed. Nation.]

THE NEGRO VOTE IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I observe, in your issue of the 4th inst., that you call attention to the political movement in South Carolina preparatory to the Constitutional Convention, and say that "the 'pacification scheme' has the familiar ante-bellum air of peace at the expense of the colored American."

In justice to the conservatives of this State and to a large proportion of the Tillman faction, allow me to state that when they demand "white supremacy," they demand also "good government and *honest* and *fair* elections" (*vide* address issued by the Conference of February 25). The desire to disfranchise the negro is not due to the fact that he is a negro, but because a very large majority of that race in South Carolina are not qualified to cast an intelligent ballot, and are not fitted, in point of morality or education, to administer the government. I am within the bounds of moderation when I say that probably 90 per cent. of the negro voters of the State vote as they are told to do by the "precinct chairmen," are ignorant of the issues involved, and often ignorant even of the names of the candidates. Under such conditions are we to be criticised for wishing to disfranchise the ignorant part of that population?

I have no desire to go into an extended discussion of the difficulties that confront and perplex us, but I wish to emphasize the fact that there is a strong and growing public sentiment demanding an intelligent and pure ballot, and, with such a large illiterate population in our midst, we must provide such qualification of the suffrage as will insure the preservation of good government, and at the same time provide for honest and pure elections. This is possible only under a government controlled by the Anglo Saxon. We have not forgotten the terrible ordeal through which we passed during the period from 1868 to 1876, when South Carolina was under the domination of negroes and carpet-baggers, nor will we submit to a repetition of such misrule and corruption. The fear of a return to such a condition led us to resort to election methods which were wrong and unjustifiable, and from which honorable men now recoil, and which they are determined must be abandoned.

Men all over the State are loud in their demands for fair elections and justice to all, and are equally outspoken in insisting on the maintenance of the public schools, which do as much to educate the negro as the whites, but which are supported almost entirely by the whites, on whom the burden of taxation falls by rea-

son of the tax on property for the support of the schools.

The demand for fair elections, which forms such a leading subject of discussion in the present agitation, was anticipated by the introduction last winter by the writer in the Legislature of an election bill embodying the Australian ballot system, and which was advocated by the leading papers of the State, but which, in view of the fact that the Constitutional Convention would deal with the suffrage, was continued to the next session. Under the operation of this bill, all citizens who were qualified would have equal showing and protection in casting their ballots.

In conclusion, let me say that the communication from Hartsville to Col. Dargan, to which you refer, is but the silly ebullition of some crank or fanatic—a communication which is censured by the people of the community and by the press, and which deserves no notice. Col. Dargan is himself fully aware that this is the case, and that though his views are very different from those of most of his white fellow-citizens, he is always accorded a respectful hearing, and can, with perfect impunity, express his opinions as he chooses at any time and at any place in this State.

RICHARD I. MANNING.

WEDGEFIELD, SUMTER CO., S. C., April 8, 1895.

[We have nothing but sympathy for the people of South Carolina in the dilemma which slavery has imposed upon them; at the same time we welcome any evidence that the white conscience revolts against the practices by which the revolution of 1877 has been secured to this day. That this conscience is to be found in the Tillman faction we cannot believe without forfeiting our sense of humor; and the fact that the "Conservatives" have joined hands with that faction in agreeing to disfranchise no white man except for crime, proves that the "color line" serves to still all dissension among the whites, as the appeal to the war spirit and memories served for more than a generation to suppress all reformatory movements in the Republican party. Our correspondent does not disguise the nature of the problem which the Conference undertook to solve, namely, to reconcile "demands for fair elections and justice to all" with inequality of disfranchisement: the whites must always be counted in, the blacks always be counted out in sufficient numbers to insure "white supremacy." It would puzzle a Philadelphia lawyer to frame a device for this juggling from which honorable men would not recoil.

We cannot agree with our correspondent in looking upon the anonymous Hartsville menace of Col. Dargan as that of a crank or fanatic—at least if by that designation the fellow is to be sharply set off from the community in which he lives. Some "Regulators" of Camden, S. C., recently ordered a Northern merchant, Mr. Richard Hallowell of Boston, out of town because he freely visited or conversed with the colored people there, while sojourning for his health. For this "unpleasantness" the leading citizens expressed their regret to Mr. Hallowell in a published letter, not, however, without insinuating that he had no right to associate with any but his own color; but we have not heard that they called a town meeting to denounce the cowardly Regulators, or offered a reward for their discovery by the police. It used to be said that in Connecticut they always kept one member of every pious family unconverted to do their wicked work for them; and, with all respect to our correspondent, we believe that his "cranks" and "fanatics" are a necessary part of any scheme likely to be adopted for maintaining the rule of the minority in South Carolina.—ED. NATION.]

HILL'S WICKED PARTNERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Undoubtedly, as stated in your last number, Senator Hill is "responsible more than any other man for the failure of the court to overthrow the income tax, root and branch"; but are not Senators Hoar and Lodge of this State entitled to share the responsibility and the condemnation for the assistance they rendered to Mr. Hill? J.

BOSTON, April 13, 1895.

TAXATION OF STUDENTS IN GERMANY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your issue of February 28 (p. 167) speaks of the extortionate income and communal taxes which foreign students must pay at Leipzig and other North German universities. As far as Leipzig is concerned there is evidently some mistake. At the office for both state and city taxes, they assure me that a foreign student whose income is from foreign sources is not taxed; and the practice seems to bear their statement out. I have inquired of several foreign students resident here from one to four terms, and from none have taxes of any kind been required. But foreign residents who are not students must pay taxes, I have heard, even on an income from property not in Germany.—Respectfully,

G. M. STRATTON.

LEIPZIG, April 4, 1895.

GRAMMAR-DICTIONARIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reply to Mr. Gardner M. Jones's inquiry in the *Nation* for April 4 about grammar dictionaries, I may be pardoned for calling attention to the following among the "commoner dictionaries" that contain pretty good synopses of grammar: Millhouse's 'New Pronouncing and Explanatory English-Italian and Italian-English Dictionary' (Trübner); Velazquez's 'Pronouncing Dictionary of the Spanish and English Languages' (Trübner)—otherwise not to be recommended. Bustamente (Christern) being the best; and Helms's 'Neues vollständiges Schwedisch-Deutsch und Deutsch-Schwedisches Wörterbuch, nebst einem kurzen Abrisse der Formenlehre beider Sprachen' (Leipzig: Otto Holtze, 1887). This last is, of course, not so well known in this country, but in Germany I believe it is the standard, and would serve as a good model for makers of French and German dictionaries for English students. It contains just what Mr. Jones suggests, although not in quite so condensed a form. The *Formenlehre* occupies 20 pages.—Yours truly,

WM. M. STEVENSON, Librarian,
Carnegie Free Library, Allegheny, Pa.

ALLEGHENY, PA., April 9, 1895.

Notes.

IF a sufficient number of subscribers at $1.50 can be secured, the Virginia Historical Society is prepared to publish entire in one volume the Minutes of the Virginia Company of London (1619-1624), heretofore published only in abstracts. The Corresponding Secretary of the Society is Mr. Philip A. Bruce, No. 707 East Franklin Street, Richmond.

Additional announcements by Macmillan & Co. are a uniform edition of the late Sir John Seeley's works, 'Ecce Homo,' 'Natural Religion,' 'The Expansion of England,' and 'Lectures and Essays'; a new edition of Prof. Goldwin Smith's 'Oxford and her Colleges,' photographically illustrated; a new edition of Zangwill's 'Children of the Ghetto'; 'Fishes, Living and Fossil,' an introductory study, by Bashford Dean; 'Agriculture, Practical and Scientific,' by Prof. James Muir of Yorkshire College, Leeds; 'Municipal Home Rule,' by Prof. Frank J. Goodnow of Columbia College; 'Essays in Taxation,' by Prof. E. R. A. Seligman of Columbia; 'Social Theology,' by President Hyde of Bowdoin; and a story, 'An Experiment in Altruism.'

We defer till the completion of the work a more extended notice of the new and revised edition of Mr. Henry E. Watts's translation of Don Quixote, of which the first volume has just appeared (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan). The entire work will contain five volumes, of which four will be devoted to the translation and notes, and the fifth will be a new and enlarged Biography of Cervantes, with a Bibliography of his works. The rate of issue is to be a volume a month.

The second edition of H. D. Minot's 'Land-birds and Game-birds of New England,' edited by William Brewster, is a handsome volume from the Riverside Press of Cambridge. This work originally appeared in 1876, and we have nothing to add to our extended notice of it in that year, except praise for the manner in which Mr. Brewster has handled his youthful author. Mr. Minot is the youngest ornithologist whose writings have acquired repute. He was born in 1859, and at his death by a railroad accident in 1890 was the youngest railroad president in the United States. Mr. Brewster has shown great tact and discretion in dealing with the author's peculiarities. It was no easy task to give this book the necessary critical annotation, with due regard to those idiosyncrasies which constitute its chief claim to perpetuity. Minot's work has certainly taken a new lease of life at Mr. Brewster's hands, and, twenty years hence, may be found to have achieved a permanent place in the literature of the subject.

'The Book of the Rose,' by Rev. A. Foster-Melliar (Macmillan), is not a poem or a romance, as one might perhaps imagine from the title, but is a treatise on the cultivation of roses, written confessedly "for enthusiasts, for those who make a regular hobby of their roses, and think of them as fondly and almost as fully in January as in June." Some two hundred pages are given to the methods of cultivation, including the minutest instructions for preparing the "blooms" for competitive exhibition,

and one hundred pages to "Manners and Customs," or the author's judgment on the excellences and deficiencies of many kinds of roses. The concluding chapters are on "Selections" (of the best roses in each class), and a "Calendar of Operations" for each month in the year. The book is illustrated with many good figures from photographs, and, though here and there the language is rather technical, it is interesting even to the general reader, while to one who desires to raise fine roses for his own enjoyment, or for exhibition, it must prove an invaluable guide. The author has taken many first prizes, and he tells honestly how he won them—and how he lost others.

Gen. H. V. Boynton, the historiographer of the Chickamauga Commission, has published an historical guide to that National Military Park (Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co.). The handsome volume contains the topographical description of the park and a guide to the more important points. It has also a full historical description of the battles of Chickamauga, Chattanooga, and Missionary Ridge, in which, with good judgment, an impartial statement is compiled from the records of both armies, giving the things about which there is general agreement. The maps are excellently drawn, though necessarily on a small scale. The other illustrations are half-tone reproductions of photographs of landscape views of the field. A history of the legislation by which the park was established is appended to the descriptive matter, with the proceedings and addresses at the meetings which gave special impulse to the park scheme.

Prof. C. W. Shields has collected various papers and addresses of his on the subject of church unity into a sizable volume, 'The United Church of the United States' (Scribners). This title will be taken as prophetic, or challenging, or simply futile, according to the reader's standpoint. Prof. Shields himself admits that the prospect of immediate church union is not bright, and that several generations must pass before all these things shall be fulfilled.

Saint Columba was an Irish saint (of the clan O'Donnell) and abbot of famed Iona, where he died in 597. His Life, written by Adamnan, one of his successors, although little more than the usual catalogue of miracles, throws much light incidentally on early Celtic monasticism and on the beginnings of Christianity in Ireland and northwestern Scotland. The reprint, edited by J. T. Fowler ('Adamnani Vita S. Columbæ'; Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), is based on a larger work by Dr. Reeves. The introduction gives a good sketch of the early Celtic church, some notice of the Druids, Bards, and Brohans of ancient Ireland, and an interesting account of Iona. The notes are full of antiquarian lore, while the text of Adamnanus is better Latin than we should expect from that age (*circa* A. D. 695). But the author was a man of learning, with some knowledge even of Greek and Hebrew. The book has an admirable index, and a glossary which, though brief, will be found to supplement, especially for Irish-Latin words, the latest (the Niort) edition of Du Cange.

A history of German civilization from a new point of view is Friedrich Seiler's 'Die Entwicklung der deutschen Kultur im Spiegel des deutschen Lehnworts' (Halle: Waisenhaus), of which the first part covers the period from the earliest appearance of the German tribes to the introduction of Christianity. The author applies to historical research the old commercial proverb, "The word follows the ware," and thus endeavors, by a chronological and critical study of the foreign words in the German language, to trace the influence of foreign nations upon the growth and character of German culture. Investigations of this kind must be conducted with great care and may easily lead to very erroneous conclusions. The name of an object in many cases does not indicate its true origin. Thus we call the fowl which is a native of the western hemisphere a turkey, while the French seek its origin in India (*dinde*), and the Germans in Calcutta (*kalkutischer Hahn*); in like manner our maize or Indian corn is to the German Welsh corn (*Welschkorn*), or Turkish wheat (*Türkischer Weizen*). It must be remembered, however, that *welsch* in German means merely foreign; and this was also the signification of *türkisch* in the sixteenth century. The citizen in Goethe's "Faust" who likes to talk of war and rumors of war,

> "Wenn hinten, weit, in der Türkei,
> Die Völker auf einander schlagen,"

uses the word "Turkey" in this sense as synonymous with remote regions. Thus far Herr Seiler has conducted his researches with circumspection, and does not appear to have drawn from the exotic elements of the German tongue any conspicuously rash or untenable inferences.

Lambert le Bègue, who ranks as the founder of the order of the Béguines, has been the subject of considerable discussion. His invectives directed against the vices of the clergy of Liége, towards the end of the twelfth century, led to a prosecution for heresy in which he was roughly handled, till he succeeded in escaping and appealing to the Anti-Pope Calixtus III., who at that time was recognized in the territories of the Empire. Little was known about him until, curiously enough, some of his writings were discovered in a contemporary MS. in the Hunterian Museum of Glasgow. These have been utilized by the distinguished professor of history at Ghent, Paul Fredericq, in a paper contributed to the Royal Academy of Belgium, through which we at last obtain a tolerably clear conception of a somewhat notable personage, hitherto half mythical.

The latest monograph in the Münchener *Beiträge zur Romanischen und Englischen Philologie* is by an American, Clarence Griffin Child, and is entitled "John Lyly and Euphuism." Mr. Child gives an exhaustive and minute survey of the question, with much schematic and bibliographical information. In his conclusions he stands nearest to Landmann, yet differs from that authority in some important particulars which tend to prove Lyly's Euphuism much more the result than the cause of a popular taste. Mr. Child has "endeavored to bring out the absolute falsity of the notion that Euphuism was a sort of wilful superficiality and affectation, and to show how orderly and consistent, in spite of its faults, the Euphuistic rhetoric was. . . . Its excesses merely display how anxious and eager the effort was to attain ends thoroughly worthy—clearness, precision, force, rhythmic melody, formal consistency" (p. 116). There is at least boldness in this apology, and food for reflection for contemptuous critics of Lyly.

La Révolte, the little anarchist newspaper of Paris which, for one reason or another, raised so much talk about itself, and which ceased to appear a year ago, is to be revived next month under the name of *Les Temps Nouveaux*. Jean Grave, as before, will be its director, assisted by what may be called the regular communist staff, MM. Élisée Reclus, Pierre Kropotkin, Ch. Albert, and the rest. It will consist, like its predecessor, of eight pages, four of which will be devoted to literature. The *Révolte* was seven years old when it died, and had a circulation of about nine thousand. It was itself the successor of the *Révolté*, which was founded in 1870 by Élisée Reclus, and had a life of nine years. Jean Grave, who succeeded Reclus, was a shoemaker by trade, who learned printing in order to carry on the paper. For years he set the type in his own chamber. The entire resources of *La Révolte* at its beginning were but twenty francs.

In the *Korean Repository* for February, 1895, the two best papers are on native guilds and the Tong Hak. A system of mutual helpfulness among the common people is secured by these industrial societies, which stand in lieu of the institutional charities of Christendom. The Tong Hak, or Eastern Culture movement—the match which set ablaze the fires of war between China and Japan—really arose, in 1859, out of the reaction of the founders' mind against Christianity. Made up avowedly of a mixture of Confucianism, Buddhism, and Taoism (and thus far akin to the Shin Gaku, or Heart Culture movement in Japan, A. D. 1820–1855), it borrows some features and the name of God from Roman Catholic Christianity. Choi, the founder, was in 1865 beheaded as a "foreigner-Korean" and a Christian, and his scriptures and religion put under ban. Under intolerable oppression, religion became politics, and nothing but Japanese bullets and bayonets under Korean direction has been able to suppress the Tong Hak rebels. "The Korean Bride," by Mrs. M. B. Jones, opens a window into social life. In "The Bird Bridge" we have the Korean version of the Star Lovers who cross the Milky May once a year on the backs of myriad magpies. In the editorial department is a valuable paper on the Korean Almanac, with the text of the King's oath of January 7, 1895, in which "all thought of dependence on China" is sworn off.

The *Geographical Journal* for April opens with the first part of an account of the Luchu Islands by Prof. B. H. Chamberlain. He describes each island separately, the natural history and industries of the whole group, and briefly outlines their history down to their enforced annexation by Japan in 1872. The most prominent race-characteristic of the people, who are closely allied by race with the Japanese, is not a physical, but a moral one. "It is their gentleness of spirit and manner, their yielding and submissive disposition, their hospitality and kindness, their aversion to violence and crime." Mr. Walter B. Harris tells the story of one of his adventurous journeys in Morocco, this time in the wilds of the southern Atlas, through a region never before visited by a white man. Much of it is a forbidding, rainless country, in which extraordinary labor has been expended upon irrigation works. In one place water was carried from a river to an oasis eleven miles distant, by "no less than eleven rows of subterranean aqueducts." These consisted of pits some thirty feet deep by ten in diameter, and sixty feet apart, which were joined by a tunnel. "A rough estimate gives the result that . . . some nine thousand of these pits must have been sunk and the intervening spaces tunnelled." Mr. Dixon's account of his explorations in British Guiana is accompanied by two maps showing the position of the gold districts, as well as the disputed territory between Guiana and Venezuela. There is also an interesting notice of the last instalment of the *Challenger* Report, now

complete in fifty royal quarto volumes. As the highest praise which can be given to the typographical part of this magnificent work, Dr. Mill says that it "may take its place beside the best memoirs of the United States Geological Survey, and fear nothing from the comparison." The first two volumes give a narrative of the cruise; the two following are devoted to physics and chemistry, another to the deep-sea deposits, two to botany, forty to zoölogy, and two to a summary of the whole work of the expedition. There is a general index, and one of about 16,000 names of species.

The *Psychological Review* (Macmillan) has issued its first Psychological Index, "a bibliography of the literature of psychology and cognate subjects for 1894," compiled by Howard C. Warren of Princeton and Livingston Farrand of Columbia. It fills seventy-two pages, and is followed by an index of authors.

Among the new periodical ventures of the year are the *University Graduates' Magazine* (132 Nassau Street, New York), of which the character is hardly developed beyond a monthly bid for the attention of each college which is described (as, Princeton in the March number); and the *Brochure Series of Architectural Illustration* (Boston: Bates & Guild), which is, as to its plates, "to be entirely devoted to the photographic illustration of foreign architecture." Italy monopolizes Nos. 1 and 2 (January, February). Each of these thin issues sells at five cents each, and the yearly subscription is fifty cents. The size is octavo.

It seems odd to find a sympathetic article on Brook Farm in the *Catholic World* (for April), but Father Hecker's connection with the experiment would supply any missing link. "Brook Farm To day" is Mr. McGinley's theme, and he has to tell pictorially and otherwise of the Martin Luther Home for Orphans and its cemetery, "Gethsemane"; but also he traces up some of the old haunts that Time and Nature have gently spared as they have the Margaret Fuller cottage.

With the April number the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* closes its second volume, in which the table of contents shows a large measure of attention to have been bestowed on seventeenth-century history and records, as in the valuable abstracts of Virginia land patents, the causes of discontent in Virginia in connection with Bacon's rebellion, the instructions to Governors Yardley and Berkeley, the letters of William Fitzhugh, wills, etc., etc. The most important genealogical contribution is that concerning the Flournoy family of Virginia, Middle Tennessee, and West Kentucky. In the present number, one notes with curiosity two instances adduced by Mr. E. W. James of a court's granting petitions for the education of free negro apprentices in the mechanic arts in 1719 and 1727. In the latter, it was "ordered that David James a free negro be bound to Mr. James Isdel who is to teach him to read ye bible distinctly also ye Trade of a gun Smith." This has a Cromwellian sound. The friends of this magazine (and it deservedly has many) can but wish it an improved proof-reading; the recurring errata are excessive in a quarterly publication.

Mr. Foster's Monthly Bulletin of the Providence Public Library for April pays homage to the momentary Napoleon cult in a reference-list of works and reviews which will give serious occupation to any student. The same number is noticeable for its catalogue of the contents of a musical alcove in the library, containing 222 volumes, equivalent to a collection of the chief works of the best authors, say in English literature, and embracing "characteristic and representative works of the great masters in music for the last two centuries."

We can heartily commend the 'Public Library Handbook' issued by the Public Library of Denver, composed of twenty-six chapters dealing with such practical topics as starting and advertising a library, selecting and buying books, cataloguing, duties of assistants, classification, binding, taking account of stock, etc. These instructions are from several hands and are signed, and while they exemplify the practice of the Denver institution, they have a general applicability. The book is prettily printed, has diagrammatic illustrations, and of course an index.

The distribution of artesian wells on our coastal plain, from New Jersey to Virginia, is illustrated by N. H. Darton in a recent number of the Transactions of the Institute of Mining Engineers, and in so definite a manner that the number of such wells must largely increase in the future. The region is underlain by a series of great sheets of unconsolidated deposits, mainly sands and clays, lying unconformably on an east-sloping floor of harder rocks. A map shows the location of the various deep wells, and numerous sections exhibit their relation to the water-bearing strata that they pierce. It is curious to note that several wells in Maryland east of the Chesapeake Bay, as at Claiborne, Easton, and Cambridge, derive their water-supply from rainfall west of the bay, which passes beneath the salt water of the bay before rising in the wells. Similarly, numerous wells that supply the summer settlements on the sand-bars of the Jersey coast, receive their supply from inland rainfall that passes down through gravel beds deep beneath the salt-water lagoons behind the sand-bars, before it is again brought to the surface.

An important official report has lately been issued, entitled 'Agriculture by Irrigation in the Western Part of the United States at the Eleventh Census,' prepared by F. H. Newell, special agent. It is well illustrated with maps of the whole area, of States separately, and of special districts, as well as by numerous views and diagrams, making the most satisfactory general account of the development of this important art in our arid regions that has yet appeared in this country. It is gratifying to add that its tone is throughout much more scientific than that of a number of other official reports on this subject which might be cited. The general map of irrigated districts shows the largest areas in northern and southern Colorado, northern Utah, scattered over Montana, and grouped along the base of the Sierra Nevada in the valley of California. In both Colorado and California, about a million acres of land are thus rendered cultivable; yet this is only a little over 1 per cent. of the area of each of these great States. Arizona and New Mexico irrigate less than a hundred thousand acres, or about 1-10 of 1 per cent. of their whole surface.

—Mr. Henry Bradley's second fascicule of volume iv. of the 'New English Dictionary' (Macmillan) made its quarterly appearance promptly on April 1. It reaches from *Fanged* to *Fee*, and contains an unusual proportion of words having an ancient pedigree, with a scarcely visible minimum of modern scientific terms. The latter circumstance marks the non-success as yet of the phonetic revolution, for if the scientific *ph*'s were bodily transferred to the letter F, then a goodly array of scientific formations from the Greek would take their place here beside *Farad*, *faradaic*, *faradaism*, *faradization*, -etc. On the other hand, we meet with *fare*, the now obsolete term for 'strait' (in "Fare of Messina"), which might suggest 'thoroughfare,' whereas the derivation is from the Greek *pharos*, meaning first a lighthouse in the strait, then the promontory thus guarded, and finally the water passage. The alternative spelling *phare* illuminates the whole matter, but the phonetic reformers would interdict it, and would thus add another source of confusion to the eight shades of meaning of fare, 'a going' (including 'passage money,' 'passenger,' and 'food'), to say nothing of the obsolete substantives *fare*, 'a litter of pigs,' and *fare*, 'a game at dice.' Their choler must rise when they read Mr. Bradley's note under *fantastic:* "The form *phantastic* is no longer generally current, but has been casually used by a few writers of the nineteenth century to suggest associations connected with the Greek etymology." And again, under *fantasy:*

"The shortened form *fancy*, which apparently originated in the fifteenth century, had in the time of Shakspere [so Mr. Bradley spells the name, we remark in passing] become more or less differentiated in sense. After the revival of Greek learning, the longer form was often spelt *phantasy*, and its meaning was influenced by the Greek etymon. In modern use, *fantasy* and *phantasy*, in spite of their identity in sound and in ultimate etymology, tend to be apprehended as separate words, the predominant sense of the former being 'caprice, whim, fanciful invention,' while that of the latter is 'imagination, visionary notion.'"

Strange perversity of the human mind, which seeks variety in language instead of simplicity and uniformity, and, having secured it, uses a discriminating orthography for quick apprehension by the eye! In like manner we write, "the Powers of Europe," "the State of New York," using a capital initial for the sake of the reader and not the listener.

—In close connection with the foregoing is the statement that "in standard English the form *farther* is usually preferred where the word is intended to be the comparative of *far*, while *further* is used where the notion of *far* is altogether absent; there is a large intermediate class of instances in which the choice between the two forms is arbitrary." The requirements of poetic euphony will tend to keep this and all similar choices open. Here is an interesting remark under *father:*

"The modern English *-ther* . . . for O. E. *-der*, *-dor* in *father* and *mother* is often wrongly said to be due to the analogy of *brother* or to Scandinavian influence; it is really the result of a phonetic law common to the great majority of English dialects; other examples in standard English are *gather*, *wither*, *together*, *weather*. At present nearly all dialects pronounce *father* and *mother* . . . as in standard English; in various parts of the north of England and the north Lowlands (d), alveolar or dental, is sometimes heard."

The contest between usage and dictionary comes to light under *feasible*, third meaning, 'likely, probable' (of a proposition, theory, story, etc.). "Hardly a justifiable sense, etymologically," comments the editor, "and (probably for that reason) recognized by no dictionary, though supported by considerable literary authority"—Hobbes, Lyell, Livingstone, and others. Amateurs of the fashionable game of golf who are at a loss whether to sound the *l* or not, may learn here that the etymological restoration of *l* to *faute* (fault), after it had been taken over from the French, had become standard in the seventeenth century; "but in Pope and Swift it [*fault*] rimes

[so Mr. Bradley spells this word] with *thought*, *wrought*, and Johnson (1755) says that in conversation the *l* is generally suppressed"—as it is in many dialects to-day. We had expected some notice of the vulgar pronunciation of *February*, with a suppression of the first *r*, but there is none. Finally, the phrases involving *white feather*, in the sense of 'cowardice,' are explained as "in allusion to the fact that a white feather in a game-bird's tail is a mark of inferior breeding." We cannot controvert this, but we are reminded of the white "flag" in a rabbit's and a buck's tail, and wonder if the cowardice is not associated with *retreat* ("turning tail").

—Mr. A. J. Butler, the well-known translator of Dante, whose rendering of Scartazzini's 'Dante-Handbuch' into English was noticed by us some months ago, has just published, under the title 'Dante: His Times and His Work' (London: A. D. Innes & Co.), a volume compounded of papers originally written for the little-known periodicals, the *Monthly Packet* and the *Magazine of the Home Reading Union*. The book is intended not for advanced students of Dante, but for persons just beginning to read him and in need of preliminary information of an elementary kind. This end the book seems to us to serve well. It is less detailed and technical than Scartazzini's work, more accurate and reliable than Symonds's. Particularly clear and good are the account of the rise of the Guelf and Ghibelline parties in Italy and that of political affairs in Florence up to Dante's exile. We could wish, however, that the author had treated a little less superficially the general intellectual condition of the thirteenth century, as well as the character of the Provençal and Old French literatures and their influence upon the beginnings of Italian poetry and upon Dante himself. It cannot be too often repeated that Dante cannot really be understood without some appreciation of these sources of many of his most fundamental conceptions.

—We have noted some inaccuracies of statement. It is not true, speaking of the general condition of literature in the Middle Ages, to say (p. 8) that "not till the twelfth century was far advanced did any signs of a reawakening appear." The 'Chanson de Roland,' the greatest of Old French poems, was written as we have it in the end of the eleventh century; and the first of the Troubadours, William VII. of Poitou, was born not far from the same time. Guido Cavalcanti, Dante's most intimate friend in Florence, died August 28 or 29, 1300, and not "in the course of the winter" of that year (p. 75). Where does Dante tell us, as the author asserts (p. 85), that he wrote the 'Vita Nuova' before he was twenty-five? It will hardly do to say that the whole conception of Canto III. of the "Inferno" (punishment of the indifferent and unpartisan) "seems to be due to Dante's own invention" (p. 93). Had not Dante clearly in mind the immortal condemnation of the Laodiceans (Rev. iii. 14-16)? Among the "student's" editions of the 'Divine Comedy,' Scartazzini's one-volume edition (Milan, 1893) should certainly be mentioned (p. 194), as by far the best we yet have. Blanc's 'Vocabolario Dantesco' was originally written in French, not in German (p. 194). The most serious slip, however, is the statement (p. 49) that "Dante's son Pietro says no word to show that Beatrice was anything but a symbol, and in this some of the other early commentators follow him." The first person to assert the historic unreality of Beatrice was Filelfo, in the fifteenth century. As for Pietro di Dante, while it is true that the manuscript of his Comment printed by Lord Vernon contains no mention of the flesh-and-blood Beatrice, there exists another group of manuscripts (of which the English Ashburnham Codex 841 is the best-known representative) containing apparently a later and fuller form of the Comment, in which it is distinctly said of her that she was "nata de domo quorundam civium florentinorum, qui dicuntur Portinari, de qua Dantes auctor procus fuit et amator in vita dicte domine et in eius laudem multas fecit cantilenas." Bartoli, eager in defence of his interpretation of Beatrice as the *ewig-Weibliche*, sought to prove this passage an interpolation; but Signor Luigi Rocca, in the *Giornale storico della Letteratura Italiana* (vii., p. 366 *seq.*) has shown this to be impossible. Hence we have the assurance that Dante's own son believed his father to have loved and honored with his pen the historic Beatrice Portinari, daughter of Folco Portinari and wife of Simone de' Bardi.

—Bishop Creighton's Hulsean Lectures on 'Persecution and Tolerance' (Longmans) are, as might be expected, charming in thought and expression, and instinct with the love and charity befitting a Christian prelate. His leading object is to prove that Christianity itself is not justly chargeable with the deplorable crimes that have been committed in its name, and that modern writers are mistaken in attributing them to the doctrine of "exclusive salvation" which rendered it the duty of all possessing power to enforce uniformity of belief in order to save souls from Satan. He holds that persecution has always sprung from the desire to preserve social organization and ecclesiastical domination, and that its abandonment has arisen not from a spread of intelligence, but from the recognition of the fact that social order can be maintained amid diversity of belief. This is a vindication of religion at the expense of its representatives, whom it deprives of excuse by attributing to them worldly motives, however disguised by the self-deceit which is so easy; and, in spite of Bishop Creighton's persuasive eloquence and ample knowledge, we cannot but regard his argument as unconvincing. Unquestionably, as he says, justification for intolerance is not to be found in the teachings of the Gospel, but these teachings form only a small part of the structure that has been erected upon them; and the motives which led to the Albigensian crusades and the career of the Inquisition were more complex than Bishop Creighton endeavors to prove. Selfish lust of domination unquestionably there was, but also there were the sense of duty to prevent Satan from extending his empire, and a profound conviction that God had intrusted his church, as his chosen instrument, with power to root out heresy. We should be loath to attribute to Pius IX. a merely selfish desire to preserve his rule over the human mind when, in his Apostolic Letter, *Multiplices inter* of 1851, and his Allocution *Maxima quidem* of 1862, he emphatically condemned the maxim that every man is at liberty to worship God according to his conscience, and when he repeated this in the Syllabus of 1864 as the accepted doctrine of the Church, which all its prelates are required to enforce.

—The *American Journal of Art and Archæology* (October-December, 1894), besides the usual extensive and well-arranged budget of archæological news, contains important papers by Mr. Henry S. Washington and Prof. Marquand. Mr. Washington reviews the question of the date of the Santorini pottery. These relics, which were discovered in the island of Thera, buried under the lava and scoriæ of a prehistoric volcanic eruption, have been reckoned as perhaps the oldest specimens of Aegean pottery, though their style is more advanced than that of objects found in Dr. Schliemann's "second city" in the Troad. For quasi-geological reasons, M. Fouqué had assigned to them the approximate date of 2000 B. C.; and this date has been assumed as a sort of "pou sto" in the quicksands of the period. It is quoted by various manuals as a settled point, and it is apparently so treated even in M. Perrot's latest volumes on early Greek art. Mr. Washington shows very conclusively that M. Fouqué's conjecture is unwarranted and that geology has positively no answer to give to the question when the Santorini pottery was buried. Prof. Marquand examines with great care, in a series of elaborate tables, the value of such architectural standards as the so-called "Semper's norm." Semper expresses the "norm" of Doric architecture by the ratio of the width between column-axes to the height of the order, and, in accordance with this standard, distinguishes six successive periods in the Doric style. Prof. Marquand shows this norm to be unpractical and insufficient. It makes no account of many other proportions which the architect must have had in mind. Mr. Marquand himself applies to the five temples of Selinus a series of tests derived from comparison of the ground-plan, the elevation, the columns, and the entablature. His conclusion from the application of all these norms is, that any inference as to date must often be uncertain. "The study of the ground-plan produces one result, the elevation another, the columns and entablature a third." The evidence derived from a study of proportions alone is, therefore, though valuable, not always decisive. It is a laborious method of reaching results which may sometimes be more quickly attained by other means.

—We seem to hear a new note, new at least for South America, in a little book by Federico Elguera ('Marionetes'; Lima: Gil, 1894), which, as its name implies, finds the world very much of a huge puppet-show. But it has no touch of that vicious spirit of cynicism caught out of French influences by so many Spanish-Americans and offered in the place of humor. It is a good healthy book, and a clean one, not indulging in grotesque caricature, nor yet depending upon any unusual sparkle of wit or fancy, but full of wholesome fun because the author has a faculty for seeing men precisely as they are, and knows how to paint them truly. The ubiquitous scamp *Perecito*, half gentleman, half mendicant, pleading for work to buy bread for his variously afflicted family, disgracing every effort of kindness in his behalf, and finally extorting a dollar upon a tearful plea and spending it for a seat at the theatre, is a familiar character to us all, and yet we cannot deny the petition while we have the dollar in our pocket. There is fine humor, too, with a strong and characteristic local color, in the indigent petty politician who can put no other interpretation upon a summons from the President, coming just after a ministerial crisis, than that of a recognition of his self-conceived talents. The intellectual littleness of the man as shown in the bluster and pompous irritability of preparation for the momentous visit, as well as in his stupid misinterpretation of the interview with the President, followed naturally by discomfi-

ture, the whole brought out in strong relief against the discriminating good sense of his doubting yet hopeful wife, is admirably portrayed. The book is in many respects notable. Eschewing the orthodox Castilian literary models, adopting rather the speech of the café and the streets, without buffoonery or pessimism, it applies the cold, keen lance of practical common sense to a people who would be the better for a little of such blood-letting, and then, with a touch of human sympathy that colors every sally, seems to say, "But, after all, brother, you're a pretty good fellow, and I have faith in you for the future."

—The proper pronunciation of *sp* and *st* in German has long been a puzzle to many teachers of that language, who are unable to decide whether they shall adhere to the Hanoverian practice of pronouncing words like *sprechen* and *stehen* as they are spelled, or adopt the more general usage and pronounce them as though they were written *schprechen* and *schtehen*. In a lecture recently delivered before the Berlin Deutscher Sprachverein, Dr. Grabow of Bromberg showed that the soft or coalescent sound represented by *sch* in German and *sh* in English was unknown to Old High German, and first appears in the transition to Middle High German wherever *s* is followed by hard *c* or *k*. Thus we find in O. H. G. the words skif, skaf, skaz, miskan, skriban, which in M. H. G. are written and pronounced schif, schaz, schaf, mischen, schriben. This change did not extend at first to *sl*, *sm*, *sn*, *sw*, etc., which remained the same in O. H. G. and M. H. G., as, for example, in slagen, smizen, smeren, sniden, swimmen, swingen. Very soon, however, these digraphs began to be pronounced as though they were written schl, etc., but it was not until the formation of New High German that the orthography conformed to the orthoepy, and the words were spelled schlagen, schmeissen, schmieren, schneiden, schwimmen, schwingen. At a still later period *sp* and *st* obeyed the same law of development and underwent a similar orthoepic transformation, but without producing a corresponding change in the orthography of the words beginning with these letters, so that today more than six-sevenths of the German people pronounce sprechen, spielen, stehen, stechen, etc., as though they were written schprechen, etc. The same tendency is also perceptible in the early evolution of the English language. As *s* before *c* or *k* in O. H. G. became *sch* in M. H. G., so *sc* in Anglo-Saxon became *sh* in English: sceótan, shoot; scufan, shove; scyttan, shut; scip, ship; scrud, shroud; sceó, shoe; sceáp, sheep. The movement, however, seems to have stopped here and did not extend to *sl*, *sm*, *sn*, *sp*, *st*, *sw*, and *su*, the few words in which *su* is pronounced as though it were written *shu* (sure, sugar, sumach, censure, sensual) being of French origin. The attempt made by Sheridan and others to give this sound to *su* in suicide (shooicide), supreme (shoopreme), etc., failed to receive the sanction of the best orthoepists or of general usage. Indeed, the extension of the *sch* sound to these digraphs in German may be regarded as a mark of literary degeneracy, since it was contemporary with the decline of courtly epic poetry and the minne song which followed the fall of the Hohenstaufen. The change took place after poesy, which had been attuned to the harps of knightly minstrels, had passed into the hands of "rude mechanicals."

ASSYRIAN DICTIONARIES.

Assyrisches Handwörterbuch. Von Dr. Friedrich Delitzsch, ord. Professor an der Universität zu Breslau. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs. Erster Teil. 1894. Zweiter Teil. 1895.

A Concise Dictionary of the Assyrian Language. By W. Muss Arnolt. Berlin: Reuther & Reichard; New York: B. Westermann & Co. Parts I and II. 1895.

SCHOLARS have been long waiting for Professor Delitzsch's Assyrian Dictionary. Since Norris, that excellent and modest English scholar, published his three volumes (1868-'72), there has been nothing to represent the growing Assyrian vocabulary, except special glossaries, etymological treatises, and the individual word-collections of separate students. Even Norris's Dictionary treated only the nouns. Delitzsch did, indeed, append to the third edition of his 'Assyrische Lesestücke' (1885) a 'Kleines Assyrisches Wörterbuch,' so called, but this was made up from memory, as he himself has told us, was by its nature an incomplete and provisional affair, and contained no references. It had not even a specific relation to the Chrestomathy with which it was bound up. Delitzsch has had, however, great advantages for the production of a relatively complete and useful Lexicon of the Assyrian language, in preliminary training and in long familiarity with the materials, and he has no doubt felt, as others have, that he owed such a work to his fellow-workers and to the new generations of students, as well as to his own position. This debt he began to discharge in 1887 by the publication of his 'Assyrisches Wörterbuch,' of which three parts have appeared. But it grew evident that this work was undertaken on too elaborate a scale. The time was not ripe for a monumental thesaurus. Assyrian studies were in a state of flux. What was needed was a book of moderate compass and cost, as comprehensive as the present state of our knowledge admits, with citations enough to justify the definitions given, with thoroughly sifted etymological statements, and with a careful discrimination between what is known and what is conjectured. An unpretentious and promising 'Assyrian Glossary' was projected at Johns Hopkins University, some seven or eight years ago, but the plan fell through at that time. The 'Concise Dictionary' of Dr. Muss-Arnolt of the University of Chicago may be regarded as its continuation. There is certainly, at the present moment, a clear field for a practical Assyrian Dictionary, and two books are appearing to occupy it.

Delitzsch is the first claimant, with his 'Handwörterbuch.' The first two parts lie before us. The remainder was promised before the end of the year 1894. It is to be hoped that the year 1895 will see it. In externals the book is good. The size is convenient, the type clear, the impression of the page clean and attractive. The matter is abundant, but compact. Citations are sufficient in number and from a wide range of literature. The articles are not unduly long, and reference to them will be easy. The labor involved in such digestion and arrangement of the materials is very great and deserves cordial recognition. Some proper names are included, but not compounds, which is a sensible course. The thick type of the initial words catches the eye readily. Why it is of different sizes, and why Hebrew letters are prefixed in the case of some stems and not of others, are questions that will puzzle beginners and even some advanced students. The introduction which the concluding part is to bring will probably clear these matters up.

Passing to the contents, we desire at once to say that they testify to large familiarity with the text, to knowledge grammatical as well as lexical, to earnestness, to great industry, to very considerable insight and power of combination. The work is, of course, not final, but this is due in large part to the situation. Assyriological science is moving so swiftly that an attempt to fix any aspect of it can have only temporary success. This must be constantly remembered in order to just criticism. And here space admits of reference to very few details.

The words are disposed under their respective stems. This seems on the whole wise. The derivatives are needed to present fairly the use of any given stem, and the student learns more readily the common noun-formations. It may be objected that not all the stems are known, and indeed the same objection has been often, and even recently, made to a similar disposition in a Hebrew dictionary, where the margin of uncertainty is much narrower. But this objection is of little consequence in view of the decided advantages on the other side. The certainty that particulars will be modified with advancing knowledge is not a sufficient reason for refusing to exhibit most practically and usefully what is believed to be known at present.

There is almost no information as to the etymology of the stem-words themselves. Fulness here was out of the question; it would have conflicted with the indispensable conditions of size and price. But we could have wished for enough to show the verbal relations between the languages of the Shemitic family. Few things are more attractive to the Shemitic student or more illumining, in his early stages, than a judicious presentation of equivalents in the cognate languages, with their divergent shades of meaning. Even brief hints do good out of all proportion to the space occupied by them. By this silence we lose also much evidence as to the contributions of Assyriology to the interpretation of Hebrew and other Shemitic words. In Assyrian lexicography we have, further, the whole range of connection between the Shemitic and the pre-Shemitic on Babylonian soil. We cannot help regarding it as one of the defects in Delitzsch's equipment for the work of a lexicographer that he yielded some time ago to the theory that a pre-Shemitic language does not exist in the cuneiform writing. This theory raises far graver difficulties than the ones it tries to meet, and is regarded by the soberest judges as untenable. This being so, it is a pity that in a dictionary which students are to handle there should be no suggestion of the intricate and fascinating relation between the Assyrian and the Akkado-Sumerian vocabulary. It is, however, to the credit of his good judgment that Delitzsch has refrained from any argumentation in favor of the non-Akkadian theory, and even any further obvious commitment to it. Moreover, the lack of etymological statements is atoned for in part by the full exhibition of linguistic facts in important cases, with occasional suggestions of comparison as to particular points of usage. Such words as *alâku*, 'go,' *bêlu*, 'take possession of,' *banû*, 'build,' *gamâru*, 'complete,' *dalâlu*, 'be humble,' afford illustrations.

An examination of the word-meanings, in connection with Delitzsch's earlier work, reveals a certain changeableness of view which we fear will not tend to increase the general confidence of sceptical scholars in the scientific basis of Assyriology. Take for example *ummu*,

'mother,' which in 'Hebrew and Assyrian' (1883) and the 'Prolegomena' (1886) was distinctly derived from a stem meaning 'wide,' 'spacious'; now the relation between such a stem and the meanings of 'womb' and 'mother' is stated hesitantly and obscurely. So now we have no definition of the stems whence come *assatu*, 'woman,' 'wife,' and *têniseˆtu(m)*, 'mankind,' nor even any allusion to the evidence that they are distinct in origin. *Annabu*, 'hare,' which formerly was explained as 'Springinsfeld,' is now questioningly interpreted from its fertility. Under *alu*, 'city,' which was formerly (even in the large lexicon) connected with the Hebrew *'ôhel*, 'tent,' as well as with Assyr. *mailu*, *mailtu*, 'couch,' now stands quite alone. In some instances the present attitude is probably wiser than the former, but not in all, and the abandonment, without an array of new evidence, of positions taken with much positiveness not long ago may lead some to doubt the security of positions taken now. However, this is a defect of the past rather than of the present. We shall be glad to believe that these changes mark increasing sobriety of judgment, and a sharper distinction between what is fairly proved and what still remains mere opinion.

It would be interesting to take up other points, such as the principles of transcription and the treatment of particular words, but our limits forbid. We are glad to welcome this dictionary. It has some faults, but great merits. It will serve an immediate and useful purpose and furnish a basis for something better when the time comes. One final remark is called out by a statement in the prospectus, to the effect that the larger 'Assyrisches Wörterbuch' is relieved of so much material by the publication of the hand-dictionary that it can now be finished in three additional parts instead of seven. How a thesaurus of which three parts have been already published without completing the first letter can be finished at all in three more parts, and how the publication of a compendious hand dictionary can so relieve the thesaurus as to permit its completion in less than half the expected space, it is not easy to see. This amazing statement does not encourage lively anticipations as to the value of the thesaurus, which should either be finished slowly, on an ample scale, or abandoned altogether.

Dr. Muss-Arnolt's work promises to fill about 500 pages—rather less in number than Delitzsch's—but the size is reduced not so much by diminishing the amount of matter as by the use of smaller type, the utmost compression of statement, and an ingenious system of abbreviations. Detailed comment must be reserved, but certain features are obvious. The Assyrian words are transcribed in Latin letters, as in Delitzsch's book, but without the stem-headings in Hebrew characters. They are arranged alphabetically, a method inferior to the arrangement by stems, which Delitzsch employs. Some other differences are, however, to the advantage of Muss-Arnolt. It is a clever stroke to give definitions and cited passages in both English and German, although it uses up space. Two most distinctive and valuable characteristics, however, in both of which Delitzsch's work is defective, are the etymological statements and hints, including comparisons with the cognate languages, and the frequent and judicious references to philological discussions bearing on derivation and interpretation. These are exceedingly important features, and more than make up for the fewer and briefer citations of Assyrian texts. It is evident that, except for the necessity of buying two books instead of one, Assyrian students will be much the gainers by the publication of both these works.

BOHEMIA AND THE BOHEMIANS.

History of Bohemia. By Robert H. Vickers. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel Co. 1894.

Pictures from Bohemia, Drawn with Pen and Pencil. By James Baker, F.R.G.S. Fleming H. Revell Co.

The two books above named are the work of Czechophils who feel that they have discovered a new country and a new people, and have a certain duty to perform in imparting their knowledge to the general public. Bohemia is, in truth, a comparatively unknown region to the average American or English student, but we are not yet prepared to recognize it as *terra incognita*, nor can we agree to the proposition that, "to the apprehension of most persons, a Bohemian means a vagabond, a gypsy, a tramp, an anarchist, a conspirator," or to the statement that "the least breath of popular discontent is attributed to Bohemians." Notions of this kind are frequently held by the ignorant, but they can hardly be asserted to be characteristic of the more enlightened portion of the community, of those who travel and read books of history.

Mr. Vickers informs us in the preface to his history that the work is "presented as friendship's sympathetic offering to the Bohemian people," and as their "vindication," which is certainly a very laudable presentation, but we are not sure that we understand on what grounds the "most orderly, industrious, peaceable, and thrifty people" which make up the Bohemian nation require a vindication. Their position in the technical and fine arts, in science, medicine, and literature, has long been recognized, and there are probably not many who associate the stirring compositions of their masters in music with the stridulations of roving bands of gypsies. It may be unfortunate that the word "Bohemian" has been retained as a part of the stock in trade of at least three languages, but it serves a purpose, and its meaning is too well understood to permit it to stand in condemnation of a people who to-day number some five millions or more. Mr. Vickers is throughout a champion of his chosen nation, and he has not been able to accommodate himself to that impartial vision which should be the first possession of an historian. It is therefore not surprising to find in the modern history such statements as (p. 737), "Thus Hungary three times within two years entirely destroyed the efforts of Bohemia," and (p. 739) "America was blinded by the glare of Louis Kossuth, and totally lost sight of the Slavs whom Kossuth had endeavored to subjugate." This unfriendly feeling to the Hungarians is extended to the events of 1867, when not even the brilliant but thoroughly honest statesmanship of Deák saves them from the charge of having "deliberated only for themselves" (p. 745).

In the compilation of his stirring narrative Mr. Vickers has availed himself largely of material derived from native sources, and he deserves the thanks of English-reading students for having compressed so much substance into a single book. On many pages, however, it is only too apparent that the author's own knowledge is largely superficial, and a marked unfamiliarity with his surroundings crops out here and there, noticeable more particularly where absolute dependence is placed upon the form and substance of the writings of historians whom he uses as his guides. Such an instance we find in an extract (not accredited, however) from a well-known French work, which appears as follows on page 737: "Of the provinces seven were named, German, Bohemian, Polish, Italian, Jon[u]go-Slav, Magyar and *Valaque.*" Again, on p. 742, the *Lettre de Majesté* of October 20, 1860, which appears in an English translation, is signed with the letters M. P. (*manu propria*) following the Emperor's name. The author is reckless in the spelling of proper names, and we have an almost indiscriminate commingling of English, German, and Bohemian (and even French) forms, and a barbarous use and elimination of accents. Thus, to mention only a few of the offences, we have Bethle and Bethlehem Gabor, Palacky and Palaçky, Safarik and Szafarik, Windisch-Grätz, and Deak; but possibly some of these sins of omission and commission fall to the very negligent printers rather than to the author himself. So, too, may it be with the date of the battle of Sadowa, July 4 [3], 1861 [6], on p. 744. As is only too often the case with historians, Mr. Vickers is undisguisedly ignorant of the geography of the country whose history he narrates, and his first chapter, "Geographical Conditions," may fairly be considered a literary curiosity. It makes an attempt in both topography and physical geography (or geology), and it fails equally in both. We are informed on p. 11, the opening page, that the "primitive mountains proper occupy chiefly the south and southeast, and include the Böhmerwald, the northern, and the Sumava, the southern portion of the great chain which constitutes in general the southern boundary of the country." These are composed chiefly of "granite, schiste, and mica-schiste." A little further on we are enlightened as to the existence of a "second chain of primitive mountains," protecting the northwest, in the midst of which a "small elevated plateau named Labska Louka (Elbewiese)" gives "rise to the Labe River, or Elbe." Presumably the mountains under consideration are the northeastern Riesengebirge, or Giant Mountains, both of which names are seemingly unfamiliar to the author. We are made acquainted with a "third chain of primitive mountains, called in geography Adlergebirge (Orlicke Hory)," and with still another "third system of mountain elevations," furnishing coal, iron, and *chalk*, and "known under the general title of Stony"; presumably these last correspond to the well-known Erzgebirge, or Ore Mountains. On p. 17 the area of the country is stated in a note, with fair accuracy, to be 20,000 English square miles, but in the text is given as 5,000! Apparently the linear expression has here been used in place of the areal.

The author's unfamiliarity with scientific expression and facts is found in such statements as (p. 12), "In this [Silurian] formation fossils of crustaceans, cephalopods, and marine zeoliths are found in abundance," and (p. 13) "The flora of Bohemia is very diversified, and includes many Alpine plants usually discovered only in a warmer latitude." The "map of Bohemia" (of Bohemia and Moravia, in fact) which accompanies the work is Bohemian in substance, but French in final execution; hence we have Praha for Prague or Prag, Karlovary for Carlsbad or Karlsbad, etc., with surroundings of *Prusse*, *Autriche*, *Bavière*, and *Hongrie*. It is exceedingly commonplace in execution, and forms the basis of the geographical text.

Mr. Baker's 'Pictures from Bohemia' are very nearly what the title indicates, to which it might be added that in most cases the

word-pictures are indifferent and the pencil-pictures often not much better. Here and there Walter Crane gives us a true, facile touch of his pen, but, as is so often the case with the work of English illustrators, his designs are stiff and coldly rendered. The book is part guide-book and part personal narrative, and may be acceptable to the few who have travelled the byways of Bohemia as refreshing the memory, but we doubt if it will stimulate travel in the direction of that very interesting country. The descriptions of scenery are very defective, and centre mainly about the giant sandstone crags of the north and the piney forests below; of the charming mountain recesses of the Böhmerwald and the Riesengebirge we have practically nothing, nor, indeed, does it appear from the narrative that the writer had much acquaintance with those tracts. The people are not treated much bet ter than the landscape, although Mr. Baker warms very noticeably when extolling their many virtues and graces. The following description of the peasantry of Haida may be taken as a sample of the author's style:

"On the left hand are the women, a blaze of color, for every woman wears a head-dress of brilliant hues; every shade and every combination of color is there—red, blue, brown, yellow, black, sky-blue, crimson, green, gray, violet, ultramarine, orange. . . . On the men's side all is dark, gray, and sombre, for they wear here modern costume *sans* bright hues" (p. 23).

A modification of this description, applying to the inhabitants of Pilsen, is found on p. 100: "Around a pile of eggs and butter and fowls were grouped women in mauve, red, light pink, blue, chocolate, dark brown, olive, yellow, a black-gray alternating on one dress with yellow and red, very light blue, pink, purple, and primrose yellow." It could hardly be expected otherwise, after such a kaleidoscopic description, than that the author should state (p. 83) that the Bohemian "dress refutes the statement that picturesque and representative costume is not now to be met with in Europe"!

Mr. Baker, like Mr. Vickers, lacks the quality of acquaintance with his country, and shows a marked unfamiliarity with certain well-known names in history. Thus, adapting his history manifestly from the German Palaçky, we find on p. 77 the statement that the "earliest-known inhabitants of Bohemia were the Bojen, . . . then came the Markomannen," etc. This may in part be a slip, for further on we do find Boii, but Markomannen recurs. A careless adaptation of the German is also found on p. 173, where the Council-house of Eger is identified with the "Burgermeister's House" of Schiller. A most singular termination of the book, and the only touch of science in it, is the enumeration of ten species of plants from the Rip Mountain, which "will prove to the English botanist that he may find in Bohemia plants he might seek for in vain in our own country, and thus add an additional pleasure to his travels."

The Silva of North America. By Charles S. Sargent. Vol. VII. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

THE present volume begins the second half of this invaluable work. As had been expected, it opens with the red bay, and includes our native species of elm, mulberry, walnut, and hickory, besides other more or less related trees. Of the laurel family we have five native trees, the red bay and the swamp bay of the Southern States (species of *Persea*), the Floridian *Ocotea Catesbyana*, the sassafras, and the Californian laurel (*Umbellularia Californica*). Of these spicy trees the sassafras grows to the largest size, being sometimes eighty to ninety feet high, and with a trunk nearly six feet in diameter, though it is probable that these dimensions are rarely attained. The pleasantly aromatic roots were formerly considered an excellent remedy for rheumatism and other diseases, and were gathered and exported in great quantities by the early American colonists. Faith in the remedial power of the plant has now pretty much disappeared; but the roots are still used as flavoring for beer and confectionery, and the young foliage is gathered and dried in the Southern States as a chief ingredient in the mucilaginous soup known as *gumbo*. Linnæus named this tree *Laurus Sassafras*. Nees ab Esenbeck separated it from *Laurus*, and called it *Sassafras officinale*, under which name it has usually been known since 1830. The modern American craze for "reformed nomenclature" has substituted the amphisbæna-like binomial of "*Sassafras Sassafras*." The Californian laurel is a stately evergreen, scarcely smaller than the sassafras. Its dark and polished foliage is persistent for several years, and it is a favorite ornament of parks in California. The berries are rather rounder than an olive, and dark purple when ripe. The wood is strong and durable, of a rich brownish color, and is much used for ornamental wainscoting and for cabinet-work.

The order *Euphorbiaceæ*, besides its many herbaceous species, is represented in southern Florida by four small trees, one of which is the manchineel (*Hippomane Mancinella*), with its pretty but noxious apples. The whole tree is so poisonous that the stories told of it remind one of the legends connected with the upas-tree of Java. Our elms are happily permitted to rest in peace under their well-known names. Chief among them, of course, is the white elm (*Ulmus Americana*), the glory of New England's meadows and roadsides. Our four other elms are less noticeable, though all are occasionally fine trees. The winged bark of the wahoo (*Ulmus alata*) and of the cork-elm (*U. racemosa*) is much like that of the sweetgum (*Liquidambar*), and is sometimes imitated in the cedar-elm of Texas (*U. crassifolia*). The fifth elm is the well-known slippery elm (*U. fulva*), which has such fragrant and mucilaginous inner bark that the author does not recommend it for planting in public places, as it must sooner or later become the prey of boys. Related to the elms are the planera or water-elm (*Planera aquatica*) of the Southern States, and the two species of hackberry (*Celtis occidentalis* and *C. Mississippiensis*). The hackberries have much the look of elms; but the leaves are narrower, and the fruit is a small round inedible berry.

In the order *Moraceæ* we have two native mulberries—the common red mulberry (*Morus rubra*), and a Mexican species which finds its northern limit in Texas. Then there are two kinds of fig-tree in Florida (*Ficus aurea* and *F. populnea*), and in the Southwest the handsome Osage orange, the *bois d'arc* of the French colonists and voyageurs. This tree, with its handsome foliage and its great orange-like but woody and terebinthine fruits, is exceedingly ornamental, and as it is perfectly hardy even in southern New England, it well deserves wider cultivation than it has yet received. The wood is hard, yellowish, slow to decay, and possesses very great elasticity, whence it has been the favorite material for bows among the Western Indians. For many years it has been known to botanists under the name of *Maclura aurantiaca*, a name given by Nuttall in 1818; but it now seems that Rafinesque was a year earlier in calling it *Ioxylon pomiferum*, which it is claimed was a misprint for *Toxylon pomiferum*, the name here adopted. *Toxylon* is said to be the Greek equivalent of the old name *bois d'arc*, but by strict etymological rules the word ought to have had one more syllable, and have been written *Toxoxylon*. Perhaps it is well in this case to let etymology yield to euphony.

Of plane-trees or planes (*Platanus*), commonly known as buttonball and buttonwood, we have three species, the widespread *P. occidentalis*, ranging from New England to Texas, one of our very largest trees, sometimes reaching the height of 170 feet, and with a trunk ten feet in diameter, and two Western kinds—*P. racemosa* of California, scarcely smaller than the Atlantic species, and *P. Wrightii* of New Mexico and Arizona. The name sycamore is so thoroughly appropriated to these trees in the United States that it cannot be displaced; but it should be remembered that in England the name is given to a broad-leaved maple (*Acer Pseudoplatanus*), while the συκόμορος of the ancients was a species of fig-tree (*Ficus Sycomorus*), a common shade-tree in Egypt. The latter was also sometimes called συκάμινος, though this name belonged more especially to the mulberry.

Corkwood (*Leitneria Floridana*) is a small swamp-grown tree of Florida and Missouri, having somewhat the appearance of a willow, but with pointed drupes nearly an inch long for fruit. It seems to stand alone by itself as the sole representative of a natural order, and by common consent is placed between the planes and the walnuts. The wood is the lightest we have, being only about one-fifth the weight of water, and is used for floats by the fishermen of Missouri.

The last order of trees taken up in this volume is the walnut family (*Juglandaceæ*), of which we have two genera, walnut and hickory. Besides some obscurer distinctions, the principal difference between the two is that the husk or involucre of the walnuts is indehiscent, and so breaks up irregularly or not at all, while in the hickories the husk readily cleaves into its four valves. In Dr. Isaac Taylor's book, 'The Origin of the Aryans,' is given a summary of Geiger's argument that the use by the Greeks of the word φηγός, the linguistic equivalent of the Teutonic *beech*, for an edible oak, the beech not growing in Greece south of Dodona, is some evidence that those who thus applied to one tree the name of another must have migrated from the land of beeches in the northwest rather than from Asia, and so the yellow-haired princes of the Homeric poems were really of Teutonic origin. Similarly the early settlers of New England knew the walnut of Europe very well, and, not finding it on our Atlantic coasts, gave its name to the Virginian "pawcohiccora," now altered in our common speech to "hickory." Our true walnuts are the butternut (*Juglans cinerea*), the black-walnut (*J. nigra*), the Texan and Arizonian *J. rupestris*, and the *J. Californica* of the coast region of the State for which it is named. The black-walnut is one of our most valuable timber-trees, its wood having long been most highly valued for decorative work of all kinds. So great has been the demand for it that the supply is now nearly exhausted, and fine trees of native growth are scarcely to be found anywhere. All our walnuts bear edible fruit, but all have the shell so very hard and thick that the nuts are not eaten to any very great extent. The European *J. regia* is beginning to be cultivated in America, and there is no rea-

son why we may not eventually raise its nuts in marketable quantity. The hickories, established as the genus *Carya* by Nuttall in 1818, consist of eight species, the *pecan* of the Mississippi valley, the shell-bark or shag-bark hickory of the wide region from Canada and Maine to Texas, both yielding edible nuts of excellent quality, the "big shell-bark" of the Middle States, with edible but very thick-walled nuts, and five other species, commonly called pignut, bitternut, mockernut, nutmeg-hickory, etc., whose nuts vary from barely edible to decidedly bitter. The wood of most of the hickories is exceedingly tough, fine-grained and durable, and is invaluable for the handles of agricultural implements of all kinds, and for those parts of wagons where lightness and strength are desired. The name given to the genus by Nuttall, and universally recognized for about seventy years, is displaced in this book by a conjectural emendation of a misprinted name found in one of Rafinesque's writings—writings which have done systematic botany much harm, and the recognition of which brings only confusion and chaos to nomenclature.

Next in order to the walnuts and hickories should come the bayberry, which sometimes becomes a low tree, followed by the birches, alders, hazelnuts, and hornbeams. Whether the oaks will be reached in the next volume cannot be clearly foretold; but it may be safely assumed that when they do appear, they will be marshalled under their classical title of *Quercus*, and not under any resurrected Rafinesquian misnomer.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America 1773-1783. Vol. XXII. Nos. 1861 to 1945. London: B. F. Stevens. August, 1894.

In volume xxii. we have the last of Lord Stormont at Paris, and therefore the important features of his closing despatches will not be uninteresting. Much as he burned to make France suffer for her secret policy constantly developing under his very nose and eyes—and both senses were busy—he at first held that she should be forced to a categorical answer in regard to the suspected treaty; but Vergennes soon forestalled him by ordering Noailles to declare it in London, though before this event Stormont had begun to urge his Government to a "sudden blow." He certainly had at times very accurate information as to what was going on, as well he might, considering the presence in Paris of Dr. Bancroft and Paul Wentworth; but he does not seem to have placed final confidence in what came to him, though ready enough to carry general gossip at all times to Vergennes. He confesses to paying well for his news, but how much can probably never be known. In No. 1862, Weymouth authorizes him to give "Mr. James" one hundred guineas. "Mr. Edwards," too, was perhaps comforted by similar remembrances, delicately transferred by the legerdemain of practical diplomacy. As far back as February 18, 1778, Stormont was holding that there were two treaties, "both signed on Friday the 6th Instant," whereas rumor spoke only of one. From some painfully accurate memoranda (No. 1881) in the hand of Wentworth, reproduced from the Auckland MSS., it seems certain that these facts were had from some one who was privy either to the actual signing of the treaties or to the drawing or copying of them. Wentworth's informant was "Mr. Edwards," and who might Edwards have been if not Dr. Edward Bancroft, when he says the "preparing of which [the treaty] kept me very busy for several days"? Edwards also sends an "abstract of the Treaty of Commerce, and such an account of the other Treaty as will be sufficient"; and then he prays and confides, as such persons always do, "that not a sylable respecting them may be permitted to transpire untill accounts of them are obtained from other Quarters, else I shall be ruined." In offering this suggestion as to the probable identity of these men, who are still considered by some writers of authority to have been two distinct persons, it is just to admit that we are not expressing a conviction, but only a reasonable suspicion, based upon the evidence shown in this important document, though we may properly add that this suspicion is shared by so competent a student as Mr. Paul Leicester Ford.

"Mr. James" turns up again (in No. 1866) with a request for a "trifling sum" of twenty-five guineas, and offers, for four hundred guineas and a place on the Island of Jersey at £100 a year, to quote passages of the treaty from one who has seen it! Stormont would gladly have paid this demand for a sight of the treaty, but writes that since "we know so much" the offer is high. That "Mr. James," "Mr. Edwards," and Wentworth were not unacquainted may fairly be inferred from the above, but Stormont was not so ready with his credulity as with his guineas, and was cautious about guineas. While Stormont is thus alive to the condition of affairs, Maurepas takes the pains to assure him that "there is no Treaty between France and the Colonies!" It is true that when Maurepas said this the treaty had not yet passed the seals (concerning which event see Nos. 1929, 1931), which is the only explanation favorable to such an assertion, extraordinary even for Maurepas, and one to which Vergennes would never have descended. Stormont utterly discredits Maurepas, and urges again his favorite "sudden blow" (No. 1873). To Weymouth, doubtful of the existence of the treaty, Stormont (No. 1883) answers that he will pawn his "Honour and Reputation for the actual existence of a Treaty of alliance signed and executed in the usual Manner," and persists in a suggestion, dear to him at that time, that La Motte-Piquet's squadron should be intercepted; but in his next (No. 1890), dated March 11, it is too late, for the squadron has sailed. He speaks of Deane's recall, and, with an Englishman's genius for inaccuracy in things American, says that "Mr. George Adams is to be sent hither in his Room."

At last the long suspense as to the definiteness of the relations between France and the revolted colonies is over. On March 10, 1778 (No. 1888), Noailles is instructed to inform Lord Weymouth of the Treaty of Friendship and Commerce; on March 13 Lord Stormont is ordered by his court to quit Paris without taking leave (No. 1894); on March 17 (No. 1903) Vergennes orders Noailles to withdraw at once, also without taking leave, and to leave some one behind sufficiently intelligent to observe what is taking place in London. Four closing despatches to Weymouth (Nos. 1899-1902) and a request to Vergennes for passports for himself and suite (No. 1898), and Stormont's mission is done. He arrived in London on March 27.

In the protracted struggle wherein Stormont and Vergennes were for a time chief contestants, the unwearied zeal and energy of the former had to yield before the astuteness of the other, who personally was of high honor, but who played to win. That he had no illusions certainly gave Vergennes a great advantage. Especially does he seem throughout his many papers in this collection quite devoid of enthusiasm as to American ideals and aspirations. Not self-seeking, he was a devoted servant to France; all the more valuable because, as Jefferson wrote to Madison, age had "chilled his heart."

Of more than usual interest and value are many of the eighty-one documents of this volume. For the occasional notes of information on the title-pages one is always grateful; in fact, it is desirable that they should be more frequent. In Nos. 1878 and 1879, a healthy curiosity is raised as to the identity of an important passenger expected to embark at Brest. A word of explanation would have been of service, though, to be sure, from No. 1781 it appears that Silas Deane's brother was to sail at once with fresh despatches from the Commissioners. Such corroborative evidence is not always, however, so satisfactory as is positive assertion, in this maze of heterogeneous papers.

Several documents cover a controversy which arose between the officers of the Farmers-General and Capt. Tucker, and which was finally settled by Vergennes, who cut a great deal of red tape, as able men will readily do, to the utter confusion of official machinery. The captain had refused to declare the tobacco which he brought into the port of Bordeaux on his frigate *Boston*. As commander of a vessel of war he held that he was exempt from examination. A procès-verbal and other formidable papers did not blind Vergennes to the fact that French war-vessels were not examined in foreign ports, and Tucker was sustained.

The dissatisfaction of French officers who found themselves less honored than they expected to be in the American army is not a new subject, but it is forcibly illustrated in Nos. 1936, 1937, and 1939, the last of which is by Baron de Kalb in support of two unhappy gentlemen who relieve their wounded feelings in the other papers. It was not all disillusion here, however, to Frenchmen. That America still had its enchantments is seen in a letter (No. 1918) from Cumberland, Virginia, in which a French captain calmly asserts that "coal is from six to eight leagues deep!" With reluctance we pass by some letters of Beaumarchais, vivacious even in his despair, to mention only his excellently tabulated "Incontestable proofs of the enormous expense of the war between America and England" (No. 1892). How sluggish was the English pulse at this juncture appears in figures given by him which show that bank stock in London, in October, 1775, was at 143½, in October, 1776, at 134¼, and in March, 1778, at 116; and that 3 per cents consolidated in October, 1775, were at 89⅝, in October, 1776, at 82⅛, and in March, 1778, at 69. With such facts in his possession, Vergennes may well have felt that it was an auspicious time for France to declare in London the Treaty of Friendship and Commerce.

The Life and Times of James the First, the Conqueror, King of Aragon. By F. Darwin Swift, B.A. 1 vol., 8vo. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

Among the crowd of compilations styling themselves histories it is refreshing to the critic to encounter a genuine product of honest original research such as this. Mr. Swift is evidently a student of the modern historical school, and his work is an encouraging indication that England is at last to follow Ger-

many and France in adopting modern methods —in taking nothing for granted on the authority of a predecessor, and in exhausting all sources of positive information, edited and inedited—in having no preconceived theories to support, and in presenting all the facts from which the reader can draw his own conclusions. Mr. Swift has delved into the Spanish archives, from Barcelona to Simancas. He has collected all attainable facts illustrating the subject and the epoch of his book, and he presents them in orderly sequence without intruding upon the reader his own opinions, theories, or conjectures, and without indulging in the rhetorical declamation and commonplace moralizing with which half-instructed writers are apt to cover their deficiencies.

This reticence is all the more creditable because the subject of the volume is one peculiarly provocative of romantic amplification. In the whole era of the Spanish Reconquest no figure stands out so prominently and so alluringly as that of Jayme el Conquistador. Born in 1208, his father, Pedro II., handed him over in 1211, virtually as a hostage, to De Montfort, the leader of the crusaders against the Albigenses. Two years later, in 1213, Pedro fell at Muret, warring with De Montfort, and it was not without difficulty that in 1214 the child was extracted from the hands of his father's enemy. A long and troublous minority followed, during which, more than once, it seemed as though the royal power would disappear. The hardening experience was not lost on the young king, who in 1229 turned the energies of his rebellious subjects to the conquest of the Balearic Isles, followed in 1235 by that of Valencia, and in 1266 by that of Murcia. Yet to the end of his long reign his strength was wasted in almost perpetual struggles with his great nobles, who scarce recognized him as more than a nominal feudal superior, and the result of his experience is condensed in the six counsels of perfection which he gave to his son-in-law, Alfonso the Wise of Castile: "(1) Always to keep his word when once given; (2) always to consider well before signing a grant; (3) to keep the people in his love; (4) in any case to conciliate the Church and cities, with whose aid he could crush the nobles if necessary; (5) not to infringe the grants made to the settlers in Murcia, and to people it with a hundred men of importance, giving them large allotments, and letting out the rest of the lands to artisans; (6) not to punish any one in secret" (p. 120).

If Jayme failed in his efforts to extend his dominions over the south of France, it was because he undertook the impossible. The house of Barcelona and the house of Toulouse had long struggled for supremacy there, where the possessions of both were enormous. If Pedro II., in 1213, took up the sword to defend Raymond of Toulouse against the Church and its crusaders, it was because he hoped to win for himself the heritage assailed by the men of the North. His death on the disastrous field of Muret, followed by the long minority of Jayme, rendered idle any attempt to follow out the ancestral policy. The Albigensian crusades, ending in the Treaty of Paris in 1229, left Languedoc virtually in the hands of the house of Capet, against which neither the policy nor the arms of Jayme could hope to prevail. The utmost that he could do was to preserve the possessions of his ancestors, and these were eventually lost through the destructive partition which separated the kingdom of Mallorca from that of Aragon and Catalonia. Yet though Jayme was unable to accomplish his designs either on France or on the kingdom of Navarre, he has passed into history as the national hero—the ideal of an adventurous knight and a wise king. So great was the reverence felt for his memory that in the sixteenth century his canonization was earnestly demanded of the Holy See, in spite of the notorious licentiousness of his life.

Mr. Swift has condensed into less than a hundred and fifty pages the account of Jayme's reign of sixty three years, crowded though it was with events. This he follows with a series of most instructive chapters on the governmental and social organization of the kingdom —or rather aggregate of states which formed the kingdom—on legislation, revenues, and commerce, on the Church, the Jews, and the Saracens, and on literature, science, and art. These chapters are well worth perusal by all students of the mediæval period, for they give us a reasonably complete view of the structure of a state which, both in its resemblances to other feudal monarchies and in its peculiar idiosyncrasies, affords an instructive object of study. While within his own field Mr. Swift is manifestly a safe and accurate guide, there is elsewhere an occasional lapse which serves as a warning how minute must be the vigilance in seeking illustrations from foreign sources. Thus in comparing the monarchy of Aragon with those of Castile and France, he says (p. 149), on the authority of the *Siete Partidas*, that "In Castile the Prince was regarded as God's vicar on earth," and he quotes Henri Martin to the effect that "In France the King's pleasure was law; all jurisdiction emanated from him, and all could be cited to his court." Now the *Partidas* represented only the conception of Alfonso the Wise of what the law ought to be; they were not confirmed until after nearly a hundred years by the Córtes of 1348, and how little their doctrines of the royal supremacy were subsequently admitted is seen in the *Seguro de Tordesillas* under Juan II. in 1439, and in the Deposition of Ávila under Enrique IV. in 1465. The foundations of absolute monarchy in Spain were not laid until the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella was well advanced. So in France, under Louis IX., the royal power and jurisdiction were still exceedingly limited. The Ordonnance of 1260 ventured to remove the judicial duel only in the royal domains and did not affect the baronial courts; nor did the feudatories lose the right of *haute et basse justice*—a right at no time enjoyed by the *ricoshombres* of Aragon—until long after Philippe le Bel had succeeded, with the aid of his civil lawyers, in greatly extending the royal jurisdiction.

Trifling errors in *obiter dicta* such as these, however, do not affect the value of Mr. Swift's labors. The present volume, we believe, is his first effort in historical composition, and it holds forth the promise of abundant harvests hereafter if, as we hope, he shall continue to direct his energies to fields which English scholars have thus far been content to abandon to their Continental brethren.

The Peoples and Politics of the Far East. By Henry Norman. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE author of the 'Real Japan' has in this work set forth the results of his travels and observations in that part of his Far East in which Great Britain, France, Russia, Spain, and Portugal are most interested. He ignores utterly one of the fairest and most valuable portions ruled by the Netherlands. Yet as this lies outside of the track of the many storms which he predicts, the loss to the reader is very slight.

Despite its great attractiveness, this encyclopædic volume reminds us of the work of the late Edward A. Freeman, for it has very much the same limitations. Apart from the elements of personal adventure and narrative of travel, it is almost wholly political. It is true that the author, in his title, links the term "peoples" with "politics"; and undoubtedly his discussions of race-characteristics, and the emphasis he lays upon what he calls even the "sacred" element of race, are marked and ample. Yet to our mind it shows a radically false conception of life and of the philosophy of degradation or progression that a book treating of "peoples" should studiously ignore those things which move men most profoundly—religion, ethics, and social principles. To one who wants to know about trade, geographical strategy, the bearing of statistics, the ambitions of nations, the exigencies of politics, this book is of prime value. It is wonderfully like an announcement of weather observations and probabilities. It seems to combine the detailed forecast of a single day, based on actual observation and scientific data, with the general programme of the weather as elaborated by a generalizer from prolonged records.

Mr. Norman's book is on a much larger scale than Mr. Curzon's recent work, 'Problems of the Far East,' and there is delightful and refreshing contrast between the two. Mr. Curzon represents the traditions of Tory England, and his suggestions and prophecies hover on the verge of Jingoism. Furthermore, his brilliant work is already, in all probability, antiquated, because the Corea which he described and partly imagined exists no more, while it is evident that there is to be a China, hereafter, very different from that pictured in the old books. Mr. Norman takes what we imagine to be the Liberal or more rational view of British foreign politics, for he actually believes that it is possible for England and Russia to be friends. From first to last he has exposed the inherent weakness of China, even to demonstrating that there is no such thing as China in the sense of a political entity. He exults with delight in the fact that the Japanese war has done what nothing else has been able to do—made known the truth about this colossal sham. His admiration for Japan borders almost on the sentimental. He thinks Portugal and Spain have practically dropped out of Eastern politics. Portugal will disappear, leaving scarcely so much as a stain of tradition; while as for Spain—well, Japan can wipe her off the map of eastern Asia any morning. In addition to Japan's elongation of her chain of empire so as to include Formosa, she is pretty sure some day to have the Philippine Islands. Mr. Norman thinks that he knows well what the terms of the peace settlement between Japan and China will be. He regards it as certain that Russia will have her railway terminus at that Corean port and bay which the Russians will call nothing else than "Lazareff." At present Russia is quiet though all ready, expecting to be on hand when the China Japanese war is ended and peace-terms declared; yet Russia can afford to wait even longer until her railway approaches completion. As for France, she will always be England's enemy in the East. China is a morass of abomination that needs to be, in the interests of humanity and civilization, partitioned, drained, filled up, and its malaria destroyed by planting abundantly the eucalyptus trees of British soldiers, forts, and

custom-houses. Mr. Norman justifies Japan in her course in Corea, for he shows that Japan, besides bringing the peninsular state into the circle of civilized nations, is the creator of her trade and incipient industries. In his criticisms of Japan he shows knowledge and sympathy, while exposing her dangers as a foreign friend sees them. He holds that beyond doubt Japan's greatest difficulties will be when the war is over. It is easy for a hornet to sting the body of an enemy bigger than itself, but to extract its sting again without danger to its own life—that is the problem for the hornet and for Japan.

The five chapters devoted to Siam give what we believe to be the best discussion of the actual situation to-day. The criticism of the action of France is searching and the indictment is tremendous, but we cannot see that Mr. Norman has in the least exaggerated the facts. It is very doubtful whether the French people will ever succeed in colonization, for thus far French colonies in Asia have meant to the French people more taxation and little else. In his chapters on Malaya our author throws such light as is now possible upon the mysterious Malay race, and feels sure that the peninsula named after it is ultimately to belong to England. In conclusion, he sums up his work in "An Eastern Horoscope," calling attention to the fact that "powerful and jealous nations are plotting for our inheritance." He sees the most hopeful portent in the declaration of a Liberal Prime Minister that "the party of a small England, of a shrunk England, of a degraded England, of a neutral England, of a submissive England, has died."

It is but sheer justice to call attention to the excellent book-making and editing, and to the four maps and the three score illustrations, the latter excellently selected and reproduced from original photographs. The literary arrangement and proportion and the well-made index commend this book, which is of the first order of literary merit; and this we say, even though our copy has missing some illustrations and a duplicate of several others.

Studies in Modern Music. Second Series. By W. H. Hadow. Macmillan. Pp. 312.

When the first series of Mr. Hadow's musical studies appeared, about three years ago, the author was universally commended for his fairness and catholic taste. These qualities may also be affirmed of his new volume, which treats of Chopin, Dvorák, and Brahms, the first having been devoted to Berlioz, Schumann, and Wagner. As that volume was introduced by an essay on Musical Criticism, so this one begins with a long disquisition on the Outlines of Musical Form. This essay is readable, although it is not remarkably luminous or suggestive, and contains some questionable doctrines. But it would be well if the large number of literary men who seem to imagine, with Ruskin, that music is a purely sensuous art, read and pondered the following passage:

"It will thus be seen that the manner in which we are impressed by music is enormously complex. First, there is the sensuous appeal, the different characteristics of *timbre* and tone, of rich harmony and full orchestration, of all those devices which are usually described in metaphors of taste and color; second, and inclusive of the first, is the emotional appeal, the exhilaration of rapid movement, the gravity of stately chords and broad diatonic melody, the restlessness of broken rhythm and frequent modulation, the shades of surprise which follow upon a sudden change or an unexpected crisis; third, and inclusive of the other two, is the intellectual appeal, the exhibition of balance and symmetry in the management of these several effects, the definiteness of plan and design, the vitality and proportion of organic growth."

Of the three biographic papers which make up the bulk of Mr. Hadow's book, the most welcome and valuable is that on Dr. Dvorák. The author took the trouble to visit the Bohemian's birthplace so as to be able to describe the surroundings of his early life at first hand; and he studied in the libraries the scores of such of his works—especially the operas—as cannot be heard on the stage to-day. Mr. Hadow makes the most of the meagre incidents of Dr. Dvorák's life, from the time when he earned $7.50 a month by playing with a small band in inns, to his engagement as director of the National Conservatory in New York at a salary of $15,000 a year. Here are a few of his judgments: "Dvorák is the one solitary instance of a composer who adopts the chromatic scale as a unit, who regards all notes as equally related." "His operas are for the most part essentially undramatic, and if they hold the stage, will survive as displays of pure melody." He pays tribute to the Bohemian's rare mastery of form and his skill in orchestration, unequalled by any of his contemporaries. The opinion of the chamber music expressed on p. 224 would probably be modified had the writer heard Dvorák's last works, composed in America. The distinct influence of "Parsifal" in the "New World" Symphony also shows that Mr. Hadow is utterly wrong in saying (192) that "his Wagner-worship was but a sudden episode, . . . of which little or no effect remains in the record of the later works." We can state on the very best authority that Dvorák worships Wagner as ardently as he ever did, notwithstanding all efforts of his friends Hanslick and Brahms to influence him in an opposite direction.

With the estimate of Brahms expressed by Mr. Hadow we must differ absolutely. He nowhere expressly says so, but he intimates pretty plainly that he considers Brahms, next to Bach and Beethoven, the greatest of all composers! It is not surprising to find a man who holds such an opinion writing of Chopin that "even his melody is never sublime, never at the highest level"; that "a want of virility" appears in his music; and that "he can claim no place among the few greatest masters of the world." In answer to which extraordinary statements we beg to refer Mr. Hadow to what he himself says (p. 81): "There is a special danger in estimating him [Chopin] from a British standpoint. Our bluff, sturdy manhood has little in common with the keenness and mobility which mark one side of the artistic temperament, and we have never been very successful at comprehending alien characters or alien nationalities." Brahms has the bluff, sturdy nature of an Englishman, while Chopin has the keen, mobile, artistic temperament; which may perhaps account for the extraordinary Brahms fad in London, and the lack of poetic appreciation in most English writings on Chopin.

We have admitted Mr. Hadow's catholicity of taste, and must not forget to mention that he says many complimentary things about Chopin and his style. But an author who can write that he hardly thinks of Chopin "as marking a stage in the general course and progress of artistic history," shows that he has no conception of musical evolution. Excepting Bach, Beethoven, Schubert, and Wagner, no composer has exerted so much influence on other composers as Chopin has done, in the treatment of harmony, melody, rhythm, and style. Consequently he must be classed as one of the five greatest composers. Liszt, Rubinstein, and all other writers for the piano adopted his idiom; even Wagner was influenced by him, and Brahms alone stood aloof. When Mr. Hadow says that "Brahms was born to restore the classical traditions in music," he shows again that he has not grasped the spirit of musical history, which nowhere records a restoring of past conditions, but an evolutionary advance to new conditions. Mr. Hadow's weakness lies in this, that he accepts the sonata as the perfection of musical form, instead of seeing that Beethoven and the other "classical" writers were great in spite of that artificial garb of their ideas, not because of it. As Dr. Hubert Parry has remarked in his admirable book, 'The Art of Music' (332): "The aspect of pianoforte music in general seems to indicate that composers are agreed that the day for writing sonatas is past, and that forms of instrumental music must be more closely identified with the thoughts which are expressed in them." If all the critics in the world stood up for the sonata form, it could not be saved; for the fact that all the great composers since Beethoven have turned their backs on it, shows beyond all controversy that it is obsolete. This matter has a practical as well as a theoretical interest; for a clear understanding of the situation will prevent young composers from trying to cast their thoughts into forms which are not natural to our age and will not be accepted as artistically modern.

The Right Honorable W. E. Gladstone: A Study from Life. By Henry W. Lucy. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1895.

The Early Public Life of William Ewart Gladstone. By Alfred F. Robbins. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1894.

The proverb, "It's ill waiting for dead men's shoes," has many applications in the case of Mr. Gladstone. Some of his youthful antagonists, like Lord Randolph Churchill, have quitted the earthly stage altogether, and others have found that while they were waiting for the old man's departure the tide in their own affairs had hopelessly ebbed. We venture to say that not a few writers now dead have left behind them obituary notices, if not regular biographies, of Mr. Gladstone, and that not a few more who have on hand such material will not live to publish it. The authors of the books before us have been perhaps apprehensive of this fate, and have determined that their works should be published during their own lives, even if they had to be brought out in the lifetime of their subject. Possibly Mr. Gladstone is willing to apologize, like Charles II., for being such an unconscionable while in dying; but we have not observed any manifestation of such a disposition upon his part, nor any particular reason why such a disposition should be manifested. His natural strength is so little abated that it may carry him on for an indefinite period, and there are many instances of vigorous health at greater ages than that which he has attained. Nothing is more deceitful than the application of the doctrine of averages to particular cases, and we can all point to individuals of advanced age whose prospect of life is distinctly better than that of others many years younger; and in the Gladstone family longevity is customary.

We believe, with Mr. Webster, that monuments and eulogy are for the dead. Doubtless it happens sometimes that men die without

knowing how much they are admired and how well they are loved; but the very existence of the maxim, *Nil nisi bonum*, proves the untrustworthy nature of human testimonials. In general it is true that biographies should be written of those who have played great parts or performed acts of public importance; and such men are not likely to be ignorant of their own achievements, or of the appreciation which they deserve. But are we to be deprived of information concerning our contemporaries, it may be asked, merely because they are so fortunate as to be alive? It is a sufficient reply to this question to ask if there is the slightest danger that any contemporary will be permitted to enjoy privacy after he has attained distinction. The editors of the periodical press will attend to that. What we are troubled with is a dearth of great men, rather than a dearth of information about those who pass for great. Hence we regard it as more judicious, as it is certainly more decorous, to postpone writing men's lives until they are completed. Many things can then be said that could not so well be said before; some things omitted with advantage that it might before have seemed important to proclaim.

It must be conceded that there are peculiar excuses in Mr. Gladstone's case—extenuating circumstances, in addition to the unforeseen prolongation of his days. As Sydney Smith said of Mrs. Siddons that she was too great to be made love to, as a whole, by any single human being, so, it may be urged, Mr. Gladstone must be surveyed and characterized in separate epochs, in distinct aspects, and in various personalities. We were formerly told by physiologists that the matter of which the human body is composed is entirely changed in the course of seven years, and in the course of sixty years of public life it may well be that a number of different statesmen, by a kind of reversed metempsychosis, have put on a metaphysical unity under the common name of Gladstone. Such a plea may be entered in behalf of Mr. Robbins, who contents himself with tracing Mr. Gladstone's career down to 1841; although, in spite of his title, a quarter of his space is given up to his hero's early private life and family history. Certainly the plea has much apparent justification, since during this period Gladstone's statesmanship was manifested only by his persistent defence of slavery in the British colonies (his father eventually received over £75,000 as compensation for the emancipation of his slaves), by his opposition to the removal of the disabilities of the Jews and the Catholics, and by his strenuous advocacy of the doctrine that it is the sacred duty of Government to instil correct religious views into the minds of its subjects. We cannot say that Mr. Robbins has made an interesting book, but he has evidently taken great pains to make it accurate, and thoroughgoing hero-worshippers will doubtless enjoy what to others seem trifling and tedious details.

Mr. Lucy is well known as the author of some clever books about the English Parliament, and he shows the knack of a practised writer in this "Study from Life." He gives us the House of Commons view of Mr. Gladstone—a view at once penetrating and superficial. Like an experienced jockey holding forth upon the abilities and exploits of a famous racehorse, Mr. Lucy can describe, in picturesquely brilliant style, the manners and moods, the fortes and foibles of the great statesman. To say the truth, the dignity of the subject raises the work above the level of gossip, and in its way nothing could be better done. Perhaps it is more appropriate that these personal reminiscences should be made sure of while they are fresh, and we should have been very sorry if Mr. Lucy had never made use of his powers and opportunities; but should he outlive Mr. Gladstone he will be tempted to write again—and he will yield to the temptation. Nevertheless, we must praise his well-proportioned sketch of Mr. Gladstone's public career, and those who are in haste to acquaint themselves with it will find Mr. Lucy a capital guide. But when the inevitable hour shall have come, "monuments and eulogy" will appear which will supersede these premature efforts.

Atlas of Classical Antiquities. By Th. Schreiber. Edited for English use by W. C. F. Anderson. With a preface by Percy Gardner. Macmillan. 1895.

"It seems scarcely possible," wrote an old schoolfellow from Rome the other day, "that this Forum can be the thing which we used to read about at ——, wishing with all our hearts that the Romans had never built it." And natural enough the wish was, for we knew *forum* only as a noun to be parsed; of the place itself, its looks, its uses, and its associations, we heard next to nothing. But we are the tottering relics of a time when the written word, bare of any outward illustration, was all that schoolboys could get. Since our day the whole system has been changed, and now it is held, and rightly, that a knowledge of the ancients, as real living men, is, in itself, and aside from the light thus thrown upon the literature, one of the most important items in classical study. There is no better way to arouse a boy's interest in this study than by teaching him something of the every-day life of the Greeks and Romans—about their houses, temples, markets, and theatres, and what they saw and did in them, about their customs, dress, religion, sports, art, and their business on sea and land. There have always been books (ponderous tomes and close-printed most of them) on classical antiquities; but it is only recently, since the employment of various "processes" by which illustrations can be reproduced with exactness and yet without great cost, that it has been possible to show a boy pictures of the very things about which you wish him to learn. Once arouse his curiosity by the eye, and you are on the straight road to work upon his brain. To take the simplest possible instance: how we marvelled at the extraordinary choice of "golden flesh-scrapers" for prizes in the athletic sports of the 'Anabasis.' What under the sun was a "flesh-scraper"? The clearest answer is to show a picture of an actual existing *strigil*, printing on the opposite page the briefest possible description of the thing and its use, stating also the place where the *strigil* in question was found, and where it is to be seen today; then show a vase-painting of an athlete using one, add a similar description, and the thing is done for ever.

This simple method of teaching is the method of Prof. Anderson in his edition of Schreiber. The hundred plates, containing ten times as many pictures on all sorts of topics, are reprinted as they stood in the German work (second edition). In the original the descriptions of the pictures appeared in a separate volume—an inconvenience which is avoided by the English reviser. We say "reviser" purposely; for the descriptions are almost entirely rewritten, with great improvement in clearness and arrangement, while in many cases the interpretation of Prof. Anderson differs from that of the German. His work is done in a thoroughly scholarly fashion. He gives references to the books from which his pictures are selected, and when the original is to be found in a museum, the catalogue number is usually added. He sets forth both sides of disputed questions, and it is remarkable how well he does this in a few words. He is careful to mention restorations whenever they have been made. On the famous "Praying Boy" of Berlin, however, though he notes the often ignored fact that the arms are restored, he seems to be unacquainted with Voullième's dissertation which goes far to show that an error was made in the position of the hands. In the pictures of theatrical costume the omission to comment on the σωμάτιον is unfortunate; so, too, is the neglect of the Romans in the plate on marriage, where a picture of the *dextrarum junctio* would have been easy to find. But this is a criticism on Schreiber himself. It is hard to see why the Aderno vase-painting should be called a "Lady Visiting" rather than a "Lady Going Out," and perhaps after all we have here a bridal scene. It is far from certain that it is a necklace which the young man is brandishing in the well-known Naples relief of a scene from comedy; he may, indeed, be a *lorarius*. The idea, too, that this is an indoor scene, is, to say the least, unique; and it may be that what Prof. Anderson calls the *aulaea* is really the *siparium*. The Pompeian fresco of Medea with her children and the pedagogue cannot possibly be an exact representation of Eur. *Med.*, 1002 ff.; for it is not until much later in this play that Medea should be seen with the sword drawn. It must be either a fancy painting or a scene from some lost tragedy, perhaps a Roman one.

We have mentioned a few points wherein we disagree with Prof. Anderson, and now offer him our hearty congratulations on a work well done. The book will be as welcome and as useful as his edition of Engelmann's Atlas to Homer.

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Appleton, Robert. The Rise of Mrs. Simpson. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Bangs, J. K. Mr. Bonaparte of Corsica. Harpers. $1.25.
Beach, Rev. D. N. How We Rose. Boston: Roberts Bros. 60 cents.
Bigelow, John. The Life of Samuel J. Tilden. 2 vols. Harpers. $6.
Blair, Eliza N. Lisbeth Wilson. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Bolton, Henrietta L. The Madonna of St. Luke: The Story of a Portrait. Putnams. $1.25.
Bourget, Paul. Outre-Mer: Impressions of America. Scribners. $1.75.
Brobst, Rev. F. J. Make Way for the King. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Clark, Rev. T. M. Reminiscences. Whittaker. $1.25.
Clark, V. S. Erasmus's Convivia e Conloquiis Familiaribus Selecta. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55 cents.
Cohn, Prof. Gustav. The Science of Finance. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. $3.50.
Corelli, Marie. The Silence of the Maharajah. Merriam Co. 40 cents.
Cruppi, Jean. Un Avocat Journaliste au XVIIIe Siècle: Linguet. Paris: Hachette.
Dana, Mrs. W. S. How to Know the Wild Flowers. Revised and enlarged edition. Scribners. $1.75.
Dyer, Henry. The Evolution of Industry. Macmillan. $1.50.
Falkner, W. C. Lady Olivia. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Francis, M. E. A Daughter of the Soil. Harpers. $1.25.
Freer, Martha W. The Life of Marguerite d'Angoulême. 2 vols. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co. $7.50.
Gaëlyn, Henry. The Mummer, and Other Poems. London: Elliot Stock.
Gannett, Henry. The Building of a Nation. H. T. Thomas Co. $2.50.
Gerard, Dorothea. An Arranged Marriage. Appletons. $1.
Gill, William. The Woman Who Didn't. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Gissing, George. Eve's Ransom. Appletons.
God's Light as It Came to Me. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.00.
Haedicke, Paul. The Equalites of Para-Para. Chicago: The Schuldt-Gathmann Co.
Hallam, Rev. Frank. The Breath of God: A Sketch of the Doctrine of Inspiration. Whittaker. 75 cents.
Hapgood, Miss Isabel F. Russian Rambles. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Harnack, Prof. Adolf. Monasticism: Its Ideals and Its History. Christian Literature Co.
Hazel, H., and Lewis, S. Z. The Divorce Mill: Realistic Sketches of the South Dakota Divorce Colony. Mascot Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Helbig, Wolfgang. Guide to the Public Collections of Classical Antiquities in Rome. Vol. I. Leipzig: Karl Baedeker.

Heatley, G. S. The Stock-Owners' Guide. W. R. Jenkins. $1.25.
Heaven the Country, Christ the Way. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Herron, Rev. G. D. The Christian State. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Hervieu, Paul. L'Armature. Paris: Alphonse Lemerre.
Heyse, Paul. Kalberg: Historisches Schauspiel. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 40 cents.
Holbrook, Z. S. The American Republic and the Debs Insurrection. Oberlin, O.: *Bibliotheca Sacra* Co.
Holcombe, Chester. The Real Chinaman. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Homeward Songs by the Way. Portland, Me.: Thomas B. Mosher. $1.
Hope, Anthony. Mr. Witt's Widow. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Horton, S. D. Silver and Gold, and their Relation to the Problem of Resumption. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.50.
Hull-House Maps and Papers: A Presentation of Nationalities and Wages in a Congested District of Chicago. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.50.
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Hyde, W. De W. Outlines of Social Theology. Macmillan. $1.50.
Irving, Washington. The Alhambra. Students' Edition. Putnams, $1.
Jeune, Lady. Lesser Questions. 2d ed. London: Remington & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
Karpeles, Gustav. Jewish Literature, and Other Essays. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year-Book. 1895. Macmillan. $3.
Kernahan, Coulson. God and the Ant. Ward, Lock & Bowden.
Kidd, Benjamin. Social Evolution. New edition with a new preface. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Larivière, Ch. de. Catherine II. et la Révolution Française. Paris: H. Le Soudier: New York: Brentanos. $1.
Larned, W. C. Churches and Castles of Mediæval France. Scribners. $1.50.
Long, J. D. After-Dinner and Other Speeches. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Lowe, Charles. Prince Bismarck. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Madame Sans-Gêne. Boston: Charles E. Brown & Co.
Malone, Walter. Songs of Dusk and Dawn. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton.
Mark, John. Saint and Devil. London: William Reeves.
Martin, Jules. Nos Artistes: Portraits et Biographies. Paris: *L'Annuaire Universel*; New York: Brentanos. 60 cents.
Miller, G. N. After the Sex Struck. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Miller, Prof. Konrad. Die Aeltesten Weltkarten. Heft I. Die Weltkarte des Beatus (776). Stuttgart: J. Roth; New York: Westermann.
Mivart, St George. The Helpful Science. Harpers. $1.25.
Molluses, etc. [Cambridge Natural History. Vol. III.] Macmillan. $2.60.
Morrison, Arthur. Tales of Mean Streets. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Murrey, T. J. The Murrey Collection of Cookery Books. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Muss-Arnolt, W. A Concise Dictionary of the Assyrian Language (Assyrian—English—German). Part I. Berlin: Reuther & Reichard: New York: Westermann.
Oman, Charles. A History of England. London: Edward Arnold.
Pavlovsky, I. Etudes et Croquis Parisiens: Crime et Misère. Paris: Albert Langen; New York: Brentanos. $1.
Rice, Katharine McD. Stories for All the Year for Boys and Girls F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 25, 1895.

The Week.

WHILE Senators Harris and Blackburn are proclaiming their subserviency to silver monometallism, a movement is on foot in the South for a sound-money convention to be held at Memphis on the 23d of May. The first steps for this meeting were taken by the commercial organizations of Memphis—the Cotton Exchange, Merchants' and Lumber Exchanges, the Manufacturers' Association, and the Young Men's Business League—which held a joint meeting and adopted a call for "a convention to be composed of delegates to be chosen by the people of the Southern States who believe in the necessity of a sound and stable currency and better banking facilities, in order to fully restore and in the future to maintain prosperity among the people." The meeting was addressed by the Hon. Josiah Patterson of the Memphis district, whose services in the cause of sound currency have been recognized and welcomed throughout the country and rewarded by a reëlection to Congress. Many letters have been received from Southern cities and towns promising hearty coöperation; so there is no doubt of the success of the convention. The movement cannot be too warmly commended. The idea has been widely promulgated that the interests of the West and South as regards the currency are different from those of the East. This notion has received vulgar pictorial illustration in a widely circulated pamphlet, representing the West as a Sioux Indian, with war-paint and feathers, and a Southern planter with their arms around each other's necks in league against the East and drinking champagne together. Such attempts to breed sectional strife will no doubt receive an effectual quietus at the hands of the Memphis convention. There is no more reason why the South and the West, or even the Ogalalla Sioux, should have an inferior currency than there is for their having flint-lock muskets, worthless gunpowder, or bad medicine-men. Senators Harris and Blackburn are decidedly "bad medicine."

At last we have got what we have long and in vain asked the Jingoes to give us, a definition of "Americanism." It is furnished by the speech of Ambassador Eustis made in London on Friday, and the correspondence of Secretary Gresham with Minister Terrell, both published in Saturday morning's papers. That Eustis's speech was "ringing with Americanism" is kindly guaranteed to us by the *Tribune*, and Terrell's remarks to the Turkish minister of foreign affairs are of the same metal. From the two men we learn that "intense Americanism" is made up of ignorance, impudence, and lies in about equal parts. Mr. Eustis declared that "we can truthfully say that no weaker nation ever suffered from aggression on the part of the United States." Is not our minister to France old enough to remember the Mexican war? That is the war which Gen. Grant called repeatedly a "war of conquest," and said of it that "even if the annexation [of Texas] itself could be justified, the manner in which the subsequent war was forced upon Mexico cannot." We say nothing about the bullying attack upon Chili, the bombardment of Greytown, the joint resolution of Congress to collect a claim from Venezuela by force. But Terrell was a much more ringing American than Eustis. He stood boldly up in the palace at Constantinople and demanded access to the Sultan in order to tell him that he must "save the country from the devil," or it would be "bad for Turkey." He also took occasion to enlighten the Turk about the English Constitution, and reminded him that "the Queen, and not the Constitution, is sovereign" in England. This heroic Texan, whose education at the University of Missouri was "supplemented," as it evidently needed to be, "by a special course at Heidelberg," is clearly the spiritual descendant of General Choke, who insisted that the Queen *did* reside in the Tower of London, as "nat'rally the place for holding a luxurious and thoughtless court."

Gen. Edward McGrady of Charleston, a leading lawyer and old Confederate soldier, has openly joined the ranks of those South Carolinians who "confess to a sense of humiliation in endeavoring to find a means of evading for the white man a test of intelligence which we propose to require of the black." Accordingly, he declines to be considered a candidate for the Constitutional Convention under the pledge of the late Conference to disfranchise no white man except for crime, while contriving such "purification" of the suffrage as shall prevent negro domination. What, he asks, does this mean? "Simply a qualification of the ballot for colored people, which qualification shall not apply to white men." He declares this to be opposed to the Constitution of the United States, and sure to invite federal interference. Gen. McGrady's attitude is the more remarkable because he was the author of the present so-called "eight-box" election law, which, he says, has warded off negro supremacy for twelve years, but may now have to be abandoned because of the "fraudulent practices" that have grown up under it. The Charleston *News and Courier* more bluntly affirms that "the frauds which have been committed under the color of its provisions have been sufficient almost to sink the State." Gen. McGrady's letter does not leave a very clear impression of the measure he would substitute for this law (based partly, by the way, on the Australian system). He would not embody any plan in the Constitution. On the other hand, he holds that "the supremacy of the white race cannot be maintained by any legislative trickery. The sole basis of its supremacy is its superior intelligence. The only way of maintaining that superiority is by raising high the standard of citizenship, and applying that standard to all, whether white or black."

Gen. McGrady's apprehension of federal interference in the South Carolina juggle has been promptly realized. Judge Goff of the United States Circuit Court has issued two injunctions, one directed against a county supervisor of registration, the other against Gov. Evans and the State commissioner of elections, and both together blocking the preparations for the Constitutional Convention. The second petition attacked the validity of the vote by which the Constitutional Convention was ordered, and charged the Tillmanites with a conspiracy to defraud the negro of his right of suffrage. The hearing in the first instance is set down for May 2 at Columbia, and will be awaited with the greatest interest. Gov. Evans is already hurling defiance at the court in the name of State sovereignty, and assuming an attitude of contempt. The Columbia *State* (Conservative Democratic) anticipates the overthrow of the registration laws of 1882, whose character, it says, is "only less odious to the principles of liberty and justice than the administration of them has been"; while "the combination of the two has been of surpassing iniquity," disfranchising thousands of whites as fully as any negroes. Oddly enough, it sees the ark of safety, after the decision, in the Peace Conference and its pledge of "white unity" through white disfranchisement solely for crime; whereas, precisely here is the source of Gen. McGrady's assurance of federal interference.

The point in the income-tax case which the public is desirous of having cleared up, is whether or not the income-tax law has created the conditions against which the proportional clause of the Constitution was intended to guard. When that clause was put in, it was not done for fun, or as a contribution to literature. It was done to guard against a danger which some of the framers saw, or thought they saw. That danger was, as is easily seen from all contemporary comments, that one part of the country might saddle another part of the country with an excessive share of taxation. This is explicitly recognized in

Hylton agst. the United States decision. What we want to know from the court now is whether this has come to pass, whether a tax has been imposed which operates, and was meant to operate, unequally. As long as the court has not spoken out its mind on this point, it has not done its duty, or, at all events, it has not satisfied popular expectations. People do not care so much to know what kinds of direct taxation were familiar to George Washington and Benjamin Franklin as whether the particular kind of oppression against which the constitutional provision was meant to guard them is being attempted. All that we have got as yet from the court is a declaration that income derived from land is legally land, and that if you cannot tax land, you cannot tax the rent of land. What we want to know now is whether when you tax a man's income you tax the man—that is, if you take a portion of his earnings you do not levy a capitation tax. It is admitted that under the Constitution a capitation tax is a direct tax, and must be apportioned. Now, what we want to know is, where a capitation tax comes from. Does the taxpayer coin it, or does he give his note, or does the collector issue his own note for it and "base" it on the man? Where does the man, in short, get the money he pays the tax with? It will not do to say he derives it from income, for the framers of the Constitution, we are told, knew nothing about income except income from land. What is the mysterious source, then, from which a capitation tax would come? We want to hear the deliverance of modern judges on this most important question. A new financial world has come into existence since Alexander Hamilton's day, and we want to have the Constitution applied to it, not by the judges of 1795, but by the judges of 1895.

On the first day of March an act was approved creating two additional judges of the United States Court in the Indian Territory. These judges had to be appointed by the President, with the concurrence of the Senate. It was the opinion of Judge Story that if the Senate is in session when offices are created which have not yet been filled, and nominations are not then made to it by the President, he cannot appoint to such offices during the recess, because the vacancy does not happen during the recess. Ordinarily, if a vacancy exists while the Senate is in session, and is not filled, either because no nomination is made or because the Senate fails to act upon it, or in the last hours of the session rejects the nominee, the President has the same right to make a temporary appointment during the recess as he has when the vacancy actually occurs after the adjournment of Congress. This, at least, is the view of Attorney-General Wirt and his successors, but the question has never been determined, we believe, by the courts. In 1863, during the debate in the Senate on the army appropriation bill, Mr. Trumbull introduced an amendment which forbade the Treasury to pay any salary in such a case until the appointee should be confirmed. The debate shows that the Senate considered the President not authorized to make an appointment during the recess of the Senate if the vacancy existed while the Senate was in session. As they had no power actually to prevent the appointment, they passed an act forbidding payment of the officer's salary, which, as was then said, would "probably put an end to the habit of making such appointments." This view was combated by only one member, who referred the Senate to Mr. Wirt's opinion, and added, "However we may read the Constitution, for forty years the precedents have been against that theory."

This act has just been construed by the comptroller of the treasury in the cases of these judges. His decision is a singular one in that it upholds the constitutional right of the President to make the appointments during the recess of the Senate, but at the same time sustains the act of 1863, which withholds the salary of the appointees. In short, he decides that Messrs. Springer and Kilgore hold their offices by a valid title, and that an appropriation is provided for the payment of their salary, but that they cannot be allowed a cent until their nomination is confirmed. As the salary of an office is a mere incident to the title, it is to be hoped that this case will be brought before the courts, that it may be determined whether the act of 1863 is not another evidence of that propensity, against which the *Federalist* warns us, of the legislative department "to intrude upon the rights and to absorb the powers of the other departments."

One of the unfortunate results of the excessive attention bestowed in our legislatures upon personal considerations is that really important laws come to be enacted without proper advertisement. Every one is watching for some new political combination, some mischievous trick, or some disguised job, and fundamental changes in the law are made without attracting attention. Such is the passage of an act by the New York Legislature which materially alters the law of inheritance. Under the law as it stood, a widow was entitled to dower in her husband's real estate, whether he died testate or intestate. As the law now stands, in case of intestacy, the widow is treated as a lineal descendant. Where there are lineal descendants all of equal degree of consanguinity, the widow receives her equal share; where they are of different degrees, the widow receives the share of the descendant of the nearest degree. If there are no lineal descendants, the widow inherits the whole real estate, to the exclusion of parents and collateral relatives. While there is much to be said in favor of this change in the law, it is evident that very serious complications might arise in the case of improvident matches. The stake to be played for by the class of women who make "common-law" marriages is much increased, and as the right of dower is still preserved, subject to election, dangerous uncertainties as to title may arise. In such a community as New York city it is at present frequently very embarrassing to the conveyancer when property descends through intestate succession. Unless the decedent was a well-known citizen leaving a family, there may be trouble from claims for dower which cannot possibly be guarded against. Frequently the circumstances are such as to make the risk a very slight one, the value of any possible life estate being inconsiderable. But now it is no longer the possibility of a charge for a term of years upon one-third of the property that is to be considered; it is the possibility of an entire failure of title, the hopeless loss of the whole property. Whether the changes in the law were on the whole desirable or not, it is obvious that the public ought to have an opportunity of being heard before such changes are adopted.

The policy of introducing and discussing bills, not for the sake of passing them, but in order to make a good party platform for the next election, is one of which the English ministry are now accused by their opponents. In the last ten weeks of Parliament they have got the Welsh disestablishment bill and the Irish land bill past the second reading, and the local veto bill past the first; but neither of them has been discussed in committee, where all the real shaping of legislation is done. With the time necessarily to be taken up by voting supply, it is alleged that not more than one of these bills can possibly pass the House, yet the Government insists upon driving them three abreast, not because it expects to pass them, but in order to show the electors the kind of legislation it favors. Whether such work is shrewd politics must always be considered a moot question. It is a question which the Republicans will have to confront in the next Congress. Ex-Speaker Reed, for his part, has already declared against passing a Republican tariff bill in the House, simply for making a "record"; as nothing of the kind can be made law, he would leave the whole matter severely alone. This looks like disinterested devotion to business methods and the practicable, but Mr. Reed's enemies are not slow to say that he is really not sound on the tariff, and opposes agitating it now because he does not want to agitate it at all. Here, for example, is Mr. James Dobson of the Philadelphia Manufacturers' Club asserting:

"I do not think it will be wise for the next Congress to say that we cannot pass any laws because the present executive is so much at variance with the policy of the Republican party that it would be a waste of time and

labor lost, for the executive would veto any measure not meeting his views on political economy. Any party who would take a position of this kind, in my judgment, would meet the condemnation of the people, and very justly so."

But Dobson ought to remember that what Reed is afraid of is, that any party which now went to work to disturb business by tariff agitation, merely for the sake of agitation and making a record, would be condemned by the people, and justly so. As Reed, not Dobson, is to organize the House, we presume it is safe to say there will be no tariff bill in the next Congress.

The rather Jingoish remarks of Sir Edward Grey, on March 28, about the French in Africa, and the rejoinder of the French minister of foreign affairs, a week later, were not without those ludicrous features which sometimes enliven diplomatic encounters. Sir Edward had heard that two French expeditions had entered the British protectorate on the Niger, and also had knowledge of rumors that a secret French expedition was headed for the Nile valley. He could only say that it must be well known to the Government of France that such acts would be unfriendly, and would be so viewed by England. Loud cries of "Hear, hear," followed, with praise of the Government's firm and patriotic attitude. Excitement reigned in the Stock Exchange and on the Paris Bourse, and all the talk was of war. All this was in entire oversight of Sir Edward's qualification, that he did not for a moment credit the rumors about the Nile expedition, and that it was not wise to attach any importance to the Niger business until the reply of the French Government was had. In other words, it was defiance, patriotic firmness, war—all with an *if*. But M. Hanotaux, on April 5, showed what a peacemaker your *if* is. He was blessedly ignorant of any French expeditions to the British Niger. He had heard, he admitted, that the Niger Company, a purely private corporation, was endeavoring to monopolize trade, in violation of articles 26, 27, and 30 of the Treaty of Berlin. But he had no doubt England would remedy that, and make ample amends for the illegal confiscation of a French vessel on the Niger. In fact, with a tact and grace which put him at a great advantage compared with Sir Edward Grey, the French minister of foreign affairs removed the whole matter from the realm of angry parliamentary discussion, and reserved it for that of calm and good-natured diplomatic negotiation. Thus ended another newspaper war, brief, but, while it lasted, fearless and glorious.

That the influence in the East of the several Powers having possessions in the North Pacific must soon undergo a readjustment, is clearly foreshadowed by the conditions of peace exacted by Japan from China. Ostensibly Japan declared war in order to obtain the complete independence and needed internal improvement of Corea. But, having won the fight, she not only demands this and the payment of a sum of money as indemnity more than equalling the utmost of her expenditure upon the war; she insists also upon the transfer to her jurisdiction of a considerable portion of Chinese territory. With the independence of Corea and the payment of the indemnity the rest of the world has only a moderate concern, but the affair takes on a different aspect when it is proposed to add to Japan's territory a portion of the province of Mantchuria and the Island of Formosa. The acquisition of the former especially affects Russia's projects of Asiatic expansion, and it is already predicted that her Government will not permit the contemplated transfer. Under the treaty just concluded, Formosa will indisputably become a part of the Japanese Empire, which with this acquisition will have what has been appropriately termed "the Malta of the North Pacific." Five years ago Manjiro Inagaki, a Japanese student at Cambridge University, England, in a monograph on "Japan and the Pacific," pointed out that, "if the occupier [Japan] of the Loo Choo Islands also occupied Formosa on a military basis, she again would have nearly absolute control of the North Pacific." This may be an exaggerated statement, but the international importance of the contemplated acquisition has thus far hardly been appreciated. The island is almost directly in the pathway of the steamship lines from Hong Kong to Australia, Panama, Nicaragua, San Francisco, Vancouver, and Japan. Steamers from Hong Kong to Shanghai run between the island and the mainland. As a military basis for attacking China, its advantages are inestimable, and Japanese authorities, before the present war, prophesied that the power acquiring it could make it a rival in commercial, as well as strategical, importance to Hong Kong itself.

The grumbling of the Russian press over the terms of the treaty between Japan and China probably signifies that the Government will use all means short of war to prevent Japan from getting a lodgment on the mainland of Asia. Such lodgment would mean for Russia a civilized and strong neighbor on her eastern frontier. As matters stand now, she has only China to deal with, whose consistency is scarcely that of a jelly-fish. When the Siberian railway is completed, so that Russia can bring her resources to bear on the Chinese frontier, she can absorb territory as easily as she absorbed that of the Turcomans in her march to Afghanistan. Not so if Japan is her rival. Russia is a much stronger power than Japan, but to fight at a distance of 4,000 miles from her capital requires an expenditure of strength out of all proportion to the expected results. The French newspapers, eager to find an ally for other purposes, side with Russia in this paper war against Japan. The German press is divided, some denouncing European interference as outrageous, while others, in the Russian interest, hold that Corea is a part of the European balance of power. England is silent so far, but there is little doubt that her influence will be cast on the side of Japan, both because it is her interest to have Russia curbed on the Pacific, and because fair-minded men object to having Japan cheated out of her victory.

While the German Government is cudgelling its brains to devise some form of international silver conference that will fool the Agrarians and yet do no great harm, the trade and banking of the Empire are not idle. Already a "Union for the Defence of the Gold Standard" has been formed, embracing representatives of all the leading chambers of commerce and of the more important banks and banking centres, together with members of the Reichstag, eminent professional men, and university professors. An active and intelligent propaganda has been begun and will be sustained by this organization, for the purpose of spreading sound ideas of finance among the people. An effective pamphlet by Dr. Karl Helfferich, "Gegen den Währungs-Umsturz," is one of the first shots in this German campaign for sound money, and a telling one it is. For outsiders its most striking pages are those which show how German bimetallism passed its flood in 1880 and the two or three subsequent years, and how both the political strength and the business strength of the gold standard have since been steadily waxing. In 1884 the Reichsbank took in only about $3,000,000 in gold, but by 1888 its gold receipts were $60,000,000, and now it has a total gold holding of more than $200,000,000. Ability to sustain gold payments, therefore, which in 1880–'84 might fairly have been questioned, is now placed beyond cavil, while the gold standard has year by year so made itself a more and more vital part of the entire commercial life of Germany that its abandonment now is simply unthinkable.

The low price of grain has had the same effect in France as in Germany on the landowning class. M. Léon Say has written three articles in the *Journal des Débats* to show that the troubles of the landowners have no relation to the currency question at all, but are due to a temporary oversupply of cereals. M. Say tells his readers also that France cannot change her system without losing her gold. In England the bimetallists have made just sufficient gains to warm their opponents up to battle. There is not the slightest reason to suppose that the conference, if it is held, will do anything more than "talkee-talkee." In fact, the impossibility of coming to an agreement is, in the last resort, the sure protection of the business world against disastrous tinkering with the standard of value.

THE BIMETALLIC KERNEL.

MR. HARVEY, the secretary of the Bimetallic League, and author of 'Coin's Financial School,' has written an "open letter" in answer to President Cleveland's letter to the business men's committee. In this he has set out the whole bimetallic theory of the nature of debts and of the nature of contracts, and it is the queerest confession ever made by any man called a "secretary" in a commercial country. There is a great deal of mere fustian in the letter, but we shall quote the very words in which he sets out his view of the relation of money to debts:

"Money, and these debts payable in money, have been steadily increasing in exchangeable value with the property of the people. A debt for $1,000 that 1,000 bushels of wheat would have paid ten years ago, now requires the farmer to give up 2,000 bushels of wheat, in exchange for these dollars, with which to pay the same debt. The debts now in existence are principally old debts, or renewed or refunded debts, or new debts contracted to pay old debts, or debts which the people have been forced to contract by reason of the continued decline in prices. The owners of products must now give up twice as much property to pay their taxes as in 1873. Seventeen thousand bushels of wheat would have paid the President's salary of $25,000 in 1873, and it now requires 100,000 bushels of wheat to pay your annual salary of $50,000. Taxes have been increased, as expressed in dollars, and have doubled and quadrupled, as measured in the property which the people surrender with which to pay them since 1873. We have constantly pointed the people to the ever-increasing exchangeable value of the creditor's dollar, and to the reason why it was increasing, but the influence of these creditors has dominated your administration, and you insist on such a currency as they have established as a sound currency. It means the confiscation of the property of the people by the sale of property under mortgages, judgments, and executions. It means that fixed income will wipe out the interests of stockholders in our railways and corporations."

Now, one of the great uses of money is to enable men to lend without agreeing to share the debtor's fortunes—without, that is to say, becoming a partner in his business. When a farmer asks me to lend him $10,000 on the security of his farm, payable at a certain date, if he proposes that the amount he is to return to me shall depend on his success—that is, on his crops being good and the prices of his produce keeping up—I unhesitatingly refuse. I say, No. I do not want to become a farmer or to share in the profits and losses of a farm, or stake my savings in any manner on his industry, or capacity, or foresight. I have no idea how he may manage his affairs. I am willing to lend him the money if I can do so without much risk of its diminution from *any* cause, but I will not go shares with him in his ventures. I will not take pay in corn or wheat. I prefer money, because money fixes the value of my loan from the day I make it. That is what money is for. It is a measure of value, and when he promises me $10,000 I shall expect to get back what I gave him without having to listen to his stories about hard times and low prices, sickness in his family, and the water on his knee, or the high price of whiskey.

In like manner when a dry-goods dealer comes to a bank to get a bill discounted, he does not say, "Now mind, the payment of this bill in full will depend on my own account of the times. If I say that trade has been slack, or the competition has been very keen, or the fashion of goods has changed, you must make me a heavy discount. I am not going to pay you back $5,000 when the goods I buy with it have not gone off or have depreciated 10 per cent. No, no; I'm not the man to practise that sort of extortion on." Of course if any dealer talked in that way, he would not get his bill discounted. The banker would say promptly, "We are not going into business with you. If that is the way you understand trade, you must go elsewhere with your paper."

It is not an exaggeration to say that all, or nearly all, the debts of the world which are the result of loans, have been contracted on the understanding that the creditor shall not share the debtor's risks. They could not have been contracted on any other basis. Nobody but a fool would lend money to Harvey, for instance, on the understanding that if Harvey's enterprises did not prosper according to Harvey's own account, the debt should be scaled. This scaling of debts on the debtor's own statement of his affairs is, in fact, what is generally known as "fraudulent bankruptcy." It is only under that name that people are familiar with it. When a debtor comes in and says, "I am not doing well, and this is all you're going to get," the world says he is a rascal. But this is what Harvey proposes all the farmers of the United States shall say. He demands that every lender of money shall take all the risks of the debtor's business, and, worst of all, of his character.

Moreover, this plan of finance would involve a radical change in the manner of doing business of the whole civilized world. It would take us back to barter everywhere. What would be the use, for instance, of putting $10,000 in a bond, when a fall in prices might make it worth only half that amount, as is now proposed, when Harvey could step in, ask for the bond, and say that on a calm review of the whole situation the debtor was satisfied that $10,000 ought to be only $5,000, and that the $10,000 must be scratched out and $5,000 written in accordingly? Bonds would not be drawn in the present way any longer. Debtors would be made liable for so many bushels of grain, or so many head of cattle or barrels of pork; but even this form would not do. Grain might rise, and so might cattle or pork. So there would have to be a provision also in the bond that the debtor was to be allowed in that case to give the creditor smaller quantities than he stipulated for, as common justice. In fact, the settlement of debts when bonds fell due would be very like Donnybrook Fair. Only half the transaction would consist in valuation; the rest would be fighting, and the biggest creditors would get the heaviest returns. It was to prevent this confusion that money was invented—to afford a measure of value which should not be affected by ups and downs in the value of other commodities, or only in a small degree, or which, at all events, would measure men's promises in ways from which they could not depart.

As to Harvey's estimate of the fall in produce, Mr. Upton, the former assistant secretary of the treasury, a very careful statistician, says that Harvey has been departing from the truth about the price of wheat, as about so many other things. He says and shows that wheat has in ten years fallen only 26 per cent., so that a farmer who could pay a debt ten years ago with 1,000 bushels of wheat, would now have to pay only 1,360 bushels, not 2,000. So that if he cut down his debt 50 per cent., as proposed by Harvey, he would, on the Harvey plan, cheat his creditor out of 24 per cent. of his debt. But this is not all. All farmers are not dependent on wheat alone. They pay, or help to pay, their debts with other crops. Take corn, for instance. The total product of the United States is one-half more valuable than the wheat crop. It was quoted in January, 1885, on the Chicago Board of Trade at 35 cents a bushel, a few days ago at 45 cents a bushel, an increase of 28 per cent. Consequently, the debtor would be able to make up with his corn the loss on his wheat.

Mr. Upton has also examined the report on prices and wages made by a sub-committee of the finance committee of the Senate in 1893, with the following result:

"The committee carefully computed the average prices per annum of the nine principal agricultural products, barley, corn, cotton, hemp, oats, meats, rye, tobacco, and wheat, since 1860, and, after giving to each product its weight in proportion to its yield, combined and tabulated the average values in gold of these nine products for every year from 1860 to 1891, that of 1860 being represented by 100. Below will be found this tabulation for every fifth year, to which I have added the gold value of the bullion in a silver dollar, that the depreciation in the value of silver may be strikingly shown:

Year.	Relative average value of the nine products in gold.	Gold value of bullion in the silver dollar.
1860	100.0	104.6
1865	97.3	103.7
1870	107.7	102.3
1875	116.8	98.4
1880	102.9	85.2
1885	87.9	79.9
1891	98.4	74.1

"It will be seen that during the thirty-one years under consideration the exchange power of gold for the principal agricultural products, taken together, has remained substantially uniform, while the same power of silver has meanwhile decreased 30 per cent. If one can understand this statement, he will infer very properly that gold has not appreciated in its purchasing power to any considerable extent since the discontinuance of the use of silver, and that any assumption to the contrary is a fallacy derived from the imagination, or a misstatement of facts."

Similar calculations in Europe have produced results still more striking. M. Pierson is a Dutch economist of great distinction. Moreover, he is or has been a bimetallist; his difficulty is with "the ratio," which he does not see his way to fixing. He has been writing on

the alleged scarcity of gold, and consequent fall of prices, and he takes three tables of prices computed by Continental statisticians, Messrs. Sauerbeck, Soetbeer, and Kral, and presents the rise or fall as follows:

	Sauerbeck 44 articles.	Soetbeer and Heintz 141 articles.	Kral 265 articles.
1847-1850	100	100	100
1851-1860	116	116	114
1861-1870	124	123	110
1871-1875	128	133	122
1876-1880	110	123	112
1881-1883	103	122	109
1884	94	114	101
1885-1891	87	105	101

The three calculations show a rise in prices from 1851 to 1860, another from 1871 to 1875, then a fall, according to Sauerbeck, of 18 per cent., according to the other two of 10 per cent. All three give a heavy fall in 1884. From 1885 to 1891, compared to the period from 1881 to 1883, there was, according to Sauerbeck, a fall of 16 per cent.; according to Soetbeer, of 17 per cent. The general result is, that prices did not alter sensibly between 1861 and 1883, except in the years of speculation, 1872-'3. It was only in 1884 they began to fall, and the fall from that year to 1894 was about 16 per cent.

Now, when one considers the enormous amount of new land brought within reach of the market during that period, the improvements in transportation, and the progress of invention, and the possible effects of these things on production, the wonder is that prices have not varied more than they have, no matter how steady the price of gold and silver might be. It can be easily seen, too, that if there had every four or five years to be an investigation, such as is now going on, into the causes of the variation in prices, before men could settle the value of their debts, or if the standard of value had to be changed every time that debtors were dissatisfied with the state of their trade, there would soon be an end of lending. Nay, there would soon be an end to exchange of every description. Whatever be the rights or wrongs of currency, men will never lend money on a standard of value which the debtor can change at pleasure. They will hoard or spend or buy land, but they will not lend. Harvey may, therefore, cheat, but he will never cheat the same man twice.

LOYALTY TO PARTY PRINCIPLES.

It is the habit of the Democrats in the Massachusetts Legislature to dine together in the course of the session, and to ask some prominent party leaders to share their hospitality. We are informed by the Boston papers that at their dinner last week the Hon. Geo. Fred. Williams was one of the guests of honor; that he replied to the toast "Loyalty to Party Principles," and that in opening he said: "What higher and nobler sentiment could a man be asked to respond to? Parties may change, but if a party's principles are true, they will withstand all defeats."

This last statement is fair enough; or, rather, the converse of it is the important fact, that if a party's principles are not true, they are sure to break down in spite of all victories. But his first assertion, assuming him to be correctly reported, is one of the emphatic sayings which he, a very enthusiastic man, loves to deal in, and certainly believes in honestly at the time; and which more deliberate and cooler men are very apt to get off, not exactly believing in them, but knowing they will excite great applause from unreflective followers.

To ask, however, in cold blood, what nobler sentiment a man could respond to than loyalty to party principles, is assuming for those peculiar articles an exceedingly exalted position, to which they must show pretty strong credentials to entitle them. They must show that they are entirely consonant with the truest patriotism, the broadest humanity, the stanchest personal honesty, to say nothing of abstract morality and humility before God. Exactly this has more than once been claimed for Republican principles, notably in an exposition of them by Senator Hoar in the *North American Review* some years ago. But if a man's party principles can claim this station—that loyalty to them is the noblest public sentiment he can feel—they become confounded or absorbed in the general principles of public duty which are claimed by all parties and distinguish none. Such principles resemble the "maxims" which Patrick Henry declared were so essential to a constitution, but which are really nothing but a reassertion of the fundamental ideas of Anglo-Saxon liberty, which everybody in America accepts; and in this view Mr. Jefferson's statement in his first inaugural is true—"We are all Republicans; we are all Federalists." The Democrats claim—Mr. Williams claimed it in the course of the speech we are referring to—to be the party of the people; but so do the Republicans; so still more emphatically do the Populists; so, as far as they are a party, do the Mugwumps. It is when we come to the specific interpretation of these general notions of government, on which all in America are agreed, that parties separate, and here party principles must declare themselves, or they are nothing better than glittering generalities.

If, then, we ask Mr. Williams or any other Democrat, new or old, what are the abiding principles of the Democratic party traceable to Thomas Jefferson and George Clinton, and never lost sight of by all its great leaders, no specific answer has ever been received. We can hardly say free trade is one, when we remember Jefferson's distrust of all commercial pursuits, when we remember that free trade was the cry of the Federalists in 1807, when we know how Randall blocked every approach to a freer system. There certainly is no agreement on the incidence of taxation, in view of the divisions of the Democratic majority in this last Congress. The money question forms and has formed a bone of contention between the two ends of the Democracy; silver-men and gold-men and bimetallists, whoever they are, each confidently claiming that he is the real Simon Pure. As things look now, it threatens to split the party across in 1896. The Democratic policy towards foreign nations has swung half round the compass, the Jingoism of Soulé and Buchanan and Mason in 1855 being exactly that of Lodge and Frye in 1895, so that Senator Morgan stands like an ichthyosaurus of the ancient seas. The relations of the Representatives to the Executive in 1805, 1835, 1865, and 1895 have borne entirely different characters in the view of the Democratic party and its leaders. The speeches of the untainted Democrats in the last Congress on executive usurpation and meddling with the currency sounded like the echoes of Webster and Clay against Jackson and Taney. Even the well-worn assertions that it is the party of the masses against the aristocracy read queerly in the light of the stiff educational qualification established by the Democrats of Mississippi.

The trouble is, that neither of the two great parties is agreed on any definite theory of government or any definite plans for the future. As far as they seem to have anything of the kind, these are made utterly nugatory by local issues, local traditions, local needs. Democracy is one thing in Massachusetts and another thing in Georgia; Republicanism is one thing in Pennsylvania and another in Iowa. The solid vote of New England in the Fifty-third Congress on the great currency questions, absolutely defying what Republicans or Democrats from other States might say, proves this beyond question. There are those in the Democratic party who will attempt at the next Presidential convention to force the delegates into an uncompromising declaration of views on the great money issue. They will not be satisfied with such a currency plank as the last platform contained, which leaders of diametrically opposite views each declared meant what they said, but which all agreed was thoroughly Democratic in principle. It would not be at all strange if a similar fight were made on the classified service in behalf of the spoils system—possibly on other issues still, where the party, as soon as one leaves high-sounding general maxims and comes to a definite policy, is divided. What may emerge from the strife it would be rash to prophesy. But one thing is certain, that if loyalty to party principle is indeed one of the noblest of watchwords, party principle must have some definite meaning which can be explained to the voters who vote for the first time in 1896; and if it shall have, no one can explain it more clearly than Mr. Williams.

PARTISAN VIRTUE.

MR. W. R. GRACE, in withdrawing from the chairmanship of the State Democracy, will, we fear, let the bottom drop out of that institution. He was its main support in both money and brains. We do not mean to say it did not do good work at the last election, but no such organization can ever in city politics do good work that will be permanent. Mr. Grace delivers as he retires a parting fling at "the fad of the day, the government of cities by non-partisan bodies of citizens getting together from time to time for such purposes." "But in my opinion," says he, "the efforts in this direction will fail; and partisan politics, elevated by true patriotism, self-sacrifice, and relentless, persistent activity against evil influences, must be accepted as the only road to permanent success."

We do not mean to compare Mr. Grace to or to class him with Hugh J. Grant, but this deliverance has about as much value for practical purposes as Grant's proposal that selfish men and men with selfish motives should be rigidly excluded from Tammany Hall. The wave of reform has at least had the effect of acquainting the practical politicians with the terminology of altruistic ethics. They now describe their aims and processes in the language of Seneca or Spinoza. They apparently live in the pure upper air of duty and principle, and pass their leisure hours in contriving plans for the elevation of mankind. But one thing they will not give up, and that is partisanship in city affairs. Purity and good government they are ready for, but it is only to be had, as Mr. Grace says, through "true patriotism, self-sacrifice, and relentless, persistent activity against evil influences in organization." One cannot help asking, however, where a man was born and where has he lived who supposes that "true patriotism, self-sacrifice, and relentless, persistent activity against evil influences" are easier to be had in city politics than non-partisanship. If we could get these virtues in partisan organizations, we should not need organizations at all. It would show that the citizens were so good that they would go to the polls and elect good men without as much as a hint from anybody. We should no more have to organize to elect good mayors than to get men not to beat their wives. It is because the experience of this city and of all cities shows that partisan organizations are invariably selfish, corrupt, irrational, jobbing, that the "non-partisan fad" has taken possession of the public mind.

Mr. Grace talks about partisanship in city affairs very much as Platt talks about bi-partisanship in police affairs. No one would suppose from his language that we had tried partisanship at all. The fact is we have never tried anything else. Every city in America has tried for fifty years to get good government through partisanship, and has failed. Not only has it failed, but it has got the opposite of good government. It has got the worst government the world ever saw. We got a government in this city which was a disgrace to our civilization. To make our case all the worse, the only cities in the world which are successfully governed are governed on the non-partisan or business plan. So that it is the non-partisans who are the practical men, the partisans who are the windy theorists, "talking," as the slang phrase is, "through their hats."

The only answer they have to make to us is that we have not tried virtuous partisanship, which is true; but it is not true that we have not sought for it. We have waited for it for fifty years, and have never seen the smallest sign of it. The partisans are always selfish, self-seeking, and often mendacious and corrupt. Mr. Grace knows very well that admonitions to them to be good and pure are generally taken as jokes. In a city there is nothing, any more than in a bank, to divide about honestly. Every resident wants the same things, as every stockholder wants dividends. The division is always over the question who shall get most plunder—that is, most places—without reference to fitness. There is no other line of division among city politicians. There never has been, and the practice which citizens have long pursued of voting on their quarrels—that is, voting to decide which set of drones shall have the salaried offices—grossly discredits the intelligence of the community.

We do not say that non-partisan government is within our reach to-day. The outlook for it just now we admit to be discouraging. But that we are making some progress towards it is shown by the fact that two organizations have blown a call for virtue and unselfishness on their respective horns. Five or six years ago they would never have thought of such a thing. They would not have pandered to the "hightoners" so far as to say that a city politician should have no selfish ends in view. They would have said that their business was to win the elections and get the offices for their respective "men," and that righteousness in city government was an iridescent dream. Now they say all city politicians must be good men, living altruistic lives, and presumably forcing offices on other men whom they think better fitted for them than themselves. Their idea is, we presume, that the Stecklerites should pursue the O'Brienites with offers of commissionerships, and the State Democrats should insist on the Plattites taking half the Public Works and two-thirds of the corporation counsel's office, solely for the good of the city. This is a great movement, full of promise for America. It may not bear fruit this year, but the seed is sown, and the harvest will come in due season. Fear not, little flock, we say to the reformers.

THE SANCTITY OF THE GRAND ARMY.

THE little skirmish Col. Waring has had with the "Grand Army of the Republic" is very useful, as furnishing a good illustration of one of the difficulties we have to contend with in establishing non-partisan administration of city affairs. The chief of these difficulties is now, and has always been, the disposition to establish qualifications for office which have no relation to the duties to be performed. A city officer has had, as a rule, to be a Tammany man, or a Republican, or a State Democrat, or an old soldier, or a "worker" of some kind, in order to get a place for which these things were no sort of preparation. We might furnish numerous examples of this sort of absurdity from the municipal history of the last twenty-five years. In Col. Waring's case, however, a new test has been set up. In order to be allowed to clean streets a man must think well of the Grand Army. He must not touch a broom if he thinks there are plenty of "bummers" in the Army. This is about as sensible as insisting that no man shall clean the city who does not think ill of Martin Luther, or who believes that silver was secretly demonetized. Now, reformers may talk till they are tired about improvements in city government, but permanent and radical improvement we shall never have until the practice of judging a man's fitness for city offices by his opinions on other subjects than city work shall be generally recognized as supremely ridiculous. There is nothing sacrosanct about the Grand Army. Even if it were all composed of good and pure men, every American would have the right to express his opinion, favorable or unfavorable, about it freely. To say that a man shall not clean streets unless he admires the Grand Army, is about as sane as the old custom in England of compelling people to qualify for office by taking the sacrament.

The trouble is aggravated in the present case by the fact that tens, nay hundreds, of thousands of good Americans agree with Col. Waring about the Grand Army. We have, in fact, never known an old soldier of undoubted record for valor and constancy and of spotless private character, who did not look down on the Grand Army. We have heard from such men within the last two days loud rejoicings over Col. Waring's courage in facing the bummers in the gate. The reason of this is plain. No one denies that there are in it a large body of as good men as ever stood in battle line. But the Grand Army has been known to the public ever since 1878 mainly as a trade union existing for the purpose of getting money out of the public.

Now what is the chief object of a trade union? It is the putting of men of every grade on an equality in the matter of wages and hours, the protection of the drones and incompetents against the ordinary consequences

of their laziness or incapacity. One object of the Grand Army is in like manner to see that the skulkers, deserters, bounty-jumpers shall be on the same footing as the good soldiers who never shirked. One of the bravest generals of the Union army has told us, nay, has published the fact, that when he was carried off the field at Antietam badly wounded, he found in the fields in the rear, out of fire, as many men, on a moderate computation, as he had left behind in the fighting line. These men were skulkers from their duty, and they were making coffee, dancing, fiddling, and even holding prayer-meetings. We believe it is the general testimony that similar scenes might have been witnessed in the rear at every great battle during the war. These skulkers are now in the Grand Army just as well as the good soldiers. We even venture to assert that they are much more numerous than the good soldiers. The organization, too, has set up a code of morality which makes neither cowardice, nor desertion, nor lying a disqualification for pensions. It may be taken as a general rule, that the poorer soldier a man was, the more vociferous and active he is as a Grand Army man.

Take as an illustration of this the case of "Corp" Tanner. It is safe to say that from the close of the war till Gen. Harrison came into office, no Grand Army man was half as uproarious as this Corp. He was so uproarious that he at last came to appear in the public eye as, *par excellence*, the representative of the veterans of the Union Army. Under this impression of him President Harrison actually appointed him commissioner of pensions. The minute he got the office he dashed at the surplus, and began to distribute pensions with such recklessness and disregard of law that the President, Grand Army man as he was himself, had to remove him promptly. The Grand Army, however, supported him through thick and thin, and Tanner denounced his critics as "whelps." The affair led, nevertheless, to an inquiry into the Corp's record which was very useful. It showed that he was only one year in the army, and of this only a very brief period with his regiment. During the rest of his active service he "straggled" with other regiments, and was never under fire till he lost his legs. The way he lost his legs was this: He was in an orchard, lying under a tree eating an apple and reading a book, with some others, when the Confederates, spying them from a distance, dropped a shell among them, which disabled the Corp. Since his retirement from office he has subsided into silence and obscurity. If all the pensioners and veterans were examined, probably hundreds and thousands of such cases would be discovered. The great sin of the Grand Army is that it covers them up with a mantle taken from the shoulders of good men and true, and resents on their behalf the stern criticism which is their just due. In this, too, is the organization's greatest offence against morality. The worst enemy of mankind is he who makes it appear on a great scale that it is no more meritorious to die for man than to make a mutton stew with a stolen sheep.

This is not all, however, that a disgusted public has against the Grand Army. The pensions amounted in 1878 to $27,000,000, and probably reached nearly every deserving and disabled man. In two years, under the clamor of the Grand Army, they reached $56,000,000, and under the same instigation they are today $160,000,000 a year! For fifteen years these men, who professed to have fought for pure love of the Union, have devoted all the energies of a great organization to the extracting of money from the public treasury, without the smallest regard to truth, honor, or decency. The result has been to throw our finances into a disorder of which no man can yet foresee the outcome, to sprinkle knaves and loafers through our villages, to make fraud, and perjury, and malingering seem harmless and even soldierly, and to turn the infinite pathos of the civil war, the widow's and the orphan's sorrow and the patriot's agony, into materials for a claim-agent's speculation. That one man in office—Col. Waring—has had the courage to say what millions out of office have felt for years, and longed to say with a thousand tongues, shows that we are at least on the edge of a better era. All this time, too, not one word has come from the G. A. R., in spite of its political power, in behalf of any good cause, in furtherance of any reform or any attempt to improve the Government. In fact, not content with their pensions, the legislation which the veterans have secured, giving them preference in the public service, works daily injury to the city. Veterans are dreaded by appointing powers as a distinct detriment to the public, but we have yet to hear of a G. A. R. veteran who proposed to "let up" on his unfortunate country. Some sign of interest in public affairs apart from their own drafts on the treasury would now be very grateful.

SPAIN AND CUBA.

THE commonest idea in this country about Spanish administration of Cuba is that it is one of monstrous oppression and tyranny. Let it be said at once that there is much to justify this idea. There is no doubt that the Government of Spain has consistently looked upon all its colonial possessions as so many oranges to be squeezed for the benefit of the mother country. Taxes are levied and customs duties laid and navigation laws passed almost purely in the ingenious endeavor to get as much as possible out of the colonists in the way of both revenue and exclusive trade. All this is, no doubt, repugnant to Anglo-Saxon theories of good government. Especially to Americans must it seem a horrible thing to lay tariff taxes in a way to burden both consumer and producer for the benefit of some third party. But this is scarcely a fair way of judging Spain. In estimating the beneficence or wickedness of her rule in Cuba we must inquire as to the characteristics of her rule at home. If we find there, as we do, a system of frightful taxation, public jobbery, political favoritism, and perpetual shivering on the verge of national bankruptcy, then we cannot justly attribute bad government in Cuba to a malevolent intention to worry and oppress the colonists.

Quite the contrary, it is a fact that the administration of Cuba has distinctly improved in the last thirty years. There was a revolution in Spain in 1868, as well as a rebellion in Cuba; and the political reforms which were secured at home by the former event have been extended, in their proper measure, to the colony. The old press laws have been suspended or abolished; access to the courts is free; representation and suffrage have been steadily extended; measures of thoroughgoing political reform, in accordance with the desires of the Cuban Deputies in the Cortes, were on the point of adoption on the eve of the present rebellion. It is, in fact, the testimony of a hostile observer in the island that there has been, for the past score of years, on the part of the Government of Spain and the Governor-General of Cuba, "a deliberate effort to reconcile the people to Spanish rule, and to efface the terrible memories of a civil war conspicuous for atrocity and savagery."

Such being the unquestioned facts—Spanish government being practically all of a piece at home and in the colonies—how has the idea become so prevalent that Cuba is writhing under the oppressor's heel? A reason, good as far as it goes, is to be found, as we have said, in the tariff and navigation laws, which are certainly bad in conception and oppressive in execution. But the greatest outcries, curiously enough, come from people who are not at all affected by these laws—the Cuban "patriots" in exile in this country. The real owners of the sugar and tobacco plantations complain a good deal, it is true, but they address their complaints to the home government, through their chosen representatives, and get the evils remedied in a measure. But the men who are chiefly responsible for the notion that Spain is a cruel monster, preying upon her own children in Cuba, have neither home nor possessions in the island. Some of them are most estimable gentlemen, like the Cuban poet Francisco Sellén, who publishes his patriotic verse in this city. One of his poems, "To Cuba in the Days of her Humiliation," winds up with the pious wish that "the steel may again flash in the air and make thy oppressor tremble." Others, like him, lost property and citizenship as a result of the unsuccessful revolution of 1868, and

naturally carry about with them a sense of having suffered a great wrong. But we believe it is true that the larger part of the Cuban patriots in this country are reckless and restless agitators who want to impose their rule on the island in the room of that of Spain.

This it is which explains the fact that the present revolution seems to be fed almost wholly from the outside. Some "general" has to make a landing with a body of adventurers before real war breaks out in any part of the country. No trustworthy signs of widespread popular approval of the revolution have been reported. There is nothing strange about this, as one result of the long revolutionary struggle from 1868 onward was the confiscation and sale of the property of the revolutionists. It passed into the hands of Spaniards and of foreigners. Mr. Froude estimated that there are ten times as many Spaniards in Cuba as there are English and Scotch in all the West Indies. This explains why it is that the present revolution can show so little native support. Of course there are many discontented inhabitants ready to join the guerillas, but the great mass of property owners and business men see their truest interest in the continuance of Spanish control.

How easy it is for Spain—how easy it would be for the United States if Lodge and Frye had their piratical way—to make Cuba a model of self-government and political purity, may be seen by a glance at the nature of the population. According to the census of 1887, it numbered 1,631,687 souls. In 1877 the figures were 1,521,684, thus showing a gain of but 7 per cent. in the decade. Of the total, 492,294 were negroes, and 43,811 Chinese. Illiteracy mounts up to alarming proportions: 76 per cent. of the population can neither read nor write. Nor is this wholly due to the colored element: the illiteracy among the whites alone is 64.89 per cent. The number of schools in the island is one for every 2,105 inhabitants. From all this it can be inferred how ripe Cuba is for independence and republican institutions, especially how ready to become a State in our Union. What delightful colleagues for Lodge and Morgan in the Senate would Cuba furnish! How patriotic they would be, how intense in their Americanism! With hearts beating true to sugar and tobacco and all other "good things" in sight, they would seem to be foreordained to seats in the Senate; and Senator Proctor's objections to receiving them must be set down to advancing age, the pharisaic spirit, and blindness to manifest destiny.

THE CHICAGO DRAINAGE-CANAL.

OBERLIN, O., April 16, 1895.

FEW people seem to be aware of the magnitude or of the far-reaching consequences of the enterprise upon which Chicago has embarked for the disposition of its sewer-filth. During the past three years the city has already spent more than ten million dollars in the construction of a canal which is to turn a portion of the water of the Great Lakes along an old glacial outlet into the Mississippi valley, and carry the sewage with it so diluted that it will not be a menace to the health of the Illinois valley through which it is to flow. Ten million more dollars will have to be spent before the canal is in active operation; but the work is prosecuted with such energy that its completion is looked for within the next two years.

This is not to be a canal with locks to regulate the flow of water, but an open channel one hundred and sixty feet wide at the bottom, and eighteen feet deep, with plans for deepening it still more in the future. When first opened it is to discharge 10,000 cubic feet of water per second, which is about five per cent. of the amount now flowing through Niagara River. The quantity of water to be discharged is fixed by the Legislature of the State with a view to protecting the valley of the Illinois from contamination. When the population of the city shall exceed 3,0 0,000, the quantity of the discharge is to be increased in proportion to the excess. The amount of the original discharge is so great that the engineers estimate that it will raise the low-water mark of the Mississippi one foot at St. Louis.

The accomplishing of such an enormous enterprise is rendered possible by the peculiar physical geography of the Great Lakes. Lakes Michigan and Huron are practically on the same water-level, about 580 feet above the sea, while Lake Erie is only eight feet lower. Lake Superior is in an independent basin twenty feet higher. The basin of the lower three of these lakes is so delicately poised that only four feet of rock and two of gravel at Chicago prevent them from spilling over into the Mississippi valley at high water. The rock-bottom of the Niagara, where it leaves Lake Erie, is only thirty feet lower than the rock shelf which forms the barrier west of Chicago. An elevation of fifty feet at Buffalo, or a depression of the same amount at Chicago, would reverse the drainage and make the four upper lakes tributary to the Mississippi. What nature could do so easily, the engineers of Chicago are to do in part by the expenditure of the vast sums put at their service by the city.

This plan for the disposal of Chicago's sewage has been devised by the city and the State without formal consultation with the other parties whose interests may be affected by it. It seems to be assumed that, since the canal is wholly within the territory of Illinois, it is not necessary to consider the other interests involved. But the cities along the lower lakes are just beginning to be aroused to a consideration of the possible effect of this scheme upon the level of the lakes, and upon the depth of the water in their harbors and in the channels which have been deepened at great expense to facilitate commerce to their ports. The Cleveland Chamber of Commerce has just petitioned the Secretary of War to investigate the matter at once, and ascertain what effect the canal will really have, so that proper measures may be instituted for the protection of all the interests at stake. In response to this action of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce, other cities on the lakes have joined in the request, so that public attention will be occupied with the question to a large extent for some years to come. A few words, therefore, with reference to the elements involved will not be amiss.

The total drainage area of the four upper lakes is 250,000 square miles, with a rainfall of about thirty-one inches. If we reckon that from 35 to 40 per cent. of this is now discharged through Niagara River (which is a liberal estimate), it would make the amount to be about 200,000 cubic feet per second. This accords very closely with the estimate made by Major Ruffner, the United States engineer in charge of the survey of the lower part of Lake Erie. In 1893 he was set to gauge the flow at Black Rock, near the head of Niagara River. As a result of this investigation he concluded that the average discharge of the river was a little over 200,000 cubic feet per second. It is not, however, an easy matter to determine how much the diversion of 10,000 cubic feet, or 5 per cent., will reduce the level of the discharging stream, and so of the lake. As the channel at Black Rock is only about 2,000 feet wide and twenty feet deep, Major Ruffner estimated that the diversion of 5 per cent. of the water flowing into Lake Erie will probably reduce its level nine inches. The Chicago engineers, basing their calculations on earlier and less perfect data, have been reckoning on a lowering of the level of from three to five inches only. But in view of the shallowness of all the harbors on Lake Erie, and of the fact that the United States has but just completed its work of deepening the navigable channel two feet at a cost of $2,000,000, even the lesser estimate is by no means an insignificant item. Especially does this appear in view of the future increase of the amount of the discharge upon the growth of the city to its possible extent.

Furthermore, it should be kept in mind that while the tax levy upon Chicago is made upon the substantial ground of promoting the sanitary interests of the city, the ulterior object of insuring a ship-canal through which the largest ocean steamers shall reach the port of the city is prominently kept in view. The completion of the drainage-canal will mark the practical accomplishment of that long-cherished dream. The engineers in charge freely talk of diverting fifteen or twenty per cent. of the water of the great lakes into the Illinois, so as to give such continuous volume to both that stream and the Mississippi as to make both navigable at all times to the largest steamers. Locks, of course, are contemplated to carry ships past the rapids which will be created at various places.

If this canal shall be adopted by the United States as a part of its system of internal navigation, it seems evident that the general Government will be called upon to protect the other interests involved from injury. This will include the maintenance of the normal depth of water in the harbors of the lower lakes and in the navigable channel to which commerce has already adjusted itself. International questions may also arise. If it is not adopted as a national waterway, it will be an interesting question whether the cost of repairing damages can be assessed upon the city of Chicago, which is to receive the direct benefit from this diversion of a public waterway.

The most feasible way spoken of to keep the level of the lower lakes up to its normal stage is to store water in Lake Superior during the early part of the season and let it down in the dryer parts of the year, thus equalizing the flow. But this involves unknown interference with vested rights on both the Canadian and the American shores of the lake, which would have to be adjusted by an international commission. The level of Lakes Erie and Ontario could be maintained by slightly constricting the outlets so as to diminish the cross-section of the discharging streams.

It must be confessed that the boldness of the Chicago engineers, and the promptness with which the city is proceeding to carry out their plans, are scarcely less than sublime. In olden times this project of Chicago might easily have become the occasion of a war between the East and the West, or between Canada and the United States. But, happily, the age of arbitration has already come, and there will be ample time to prepare for the remedy of incidental evils before the canal shall become a fixed fact; for so vast are the stores of water in the great lakes that four or five years would elapse before the full effect of such a diversion as is contemplated would be felt upon the lake-level. Still, even the vast reservoirs of the great lakes are not exhaustless; and now is the time to forecast the results of such a far-reaching interference with the natural waterways as the Chicago canal will be when, a few years hence, it is in full operation. It certainly is remarkable that the solution of a most difficult problem in disposing of a city's sewage should render financially practicable one of the boldest schemes for the improvement of internal navigation which have ever been entertained by engineers anywhere in the world.

G. Frederick Wright.

SOSHI-ISM IN JAPAN.

Tokyo, March 30, 1895.

The attempted assassination of the Chinese ambassador, the aged Li Hung Chang, by a Japanese *soshi*, has produced a widespread feeling of shame and disgrace in Japan. The general sense of satisfaction in all classes at the conduct of the war has, to a great extent, passed away. Even schoolboys and students have a subdued air, and the noise of tin trumpets from the numberless children in the streets of Tokyo has given way to a silence all the more pronounced because of its suddenness. It is to the credit of the Japanese of every sort and condition that they feel the breach of courtesy and hospitality, not to mention the moral shortcomings of this act, so keenly. To a great extent it disarms one's power of criticism where regret is so spontaneous and immediate as it is in the present instance.

The facts of the case are probably as well known in America as they are in Tokyo. Li Hung Chang was proceeding in his palanquin, borne by Chinese, from the conference hall to his quarters, through a narrow street, when a young *soshi*, Koyama Rokunosuke, of about twenty-five years of age, rushed at him and shot him in the face. The bullet seems to have entered below the left eye, and is lodged somewhere in the upper jaw, but on this point there may be some doubt, as the Chinese attendants of Li object to the removal of the bullet by the Japanese surgeons. There is also some doubt as to whether the wound is serious or not. The latest telegrams are, however, reassuring, stating that the ambassador is rapidly recovering and will soon be able to resume negotiations.

It is not very difficult to get at the motive of Koyama's action if one has any knowledge of *soshi* character and conduct. These pests of Japan have been defined as "irresponsible political toughs," whose conduct in life is determined chiefly by two motives—an inordinate vanity and an absurd principle of loyalty to those they serve. This last virtue is supposed to be the survival of the ancient samurai spirit, but is as out of place in the present life of Japan as was mediæval chivalry in the time of Cervantes. There is this difference, however, between chivalry and soshi-ism, that the former was harmless, while the latter is extremely dangerous. Like the old soldiers of fortune, the *soshi* are willing to hire themselves to any one who is ready to support them. They have, as a rule, a certain amount of superficial education, and are above manual labor of any kind. They profess a vast amount of patriotism and cultivate the virtues of swashbucklers. Their courage, I suppose, is undoubted, and is supported by their vanity, which is all the more powerful as it takes the guise of patriotism. There is not one of them but will risk his life in any enterprise where he will be brought into public notice. Killing a prominent minister of state or foreign ambassador like Li Hung Chang is a positive luxury to the imaginations of these fellows. They utterly refuse to do honest work of any kind, and spend their days in idling, gambling, and devising endless schemes for their own advantage or for those who employ them. They are generally armed with canes which conceal sword-blades—dangerous instruments, in the use of which they are very expert.

The youth Koyama, no doubt, thought he was achieving everlasting fame in doing so exceptional a deed as killing the great minister of China. A dramatic act, in which one loses his life, or imperils it, is the very *summum bonum* of a *soshi's* existence; and, curiously enough, in certain cases, though not in the present one, a *soshi* gets both fame and honor in Japan when he would be execrated in other countries. Nishina Buntaro, the murderer of Mori, minister of education, is fairly a hero among certain classes of Japanese, and at his grave worshippers still adore his memory by offering incense. Such was the glory, probably, to which Koyama Rokunosuke looked forward, though, unfortunately for him in the present instance, he overshot the mark.

It is a curious commentary on the present state of civilization in Japan that a class of reckless heelers who at any time may develop into assassins should be allowed to exist. Even when they are taken *in flagrante delicto*, the Government, so far from using the utmost authority of the law to put a stop to them, is conspicuously lenient in its treatment of them. Crimes and misdemeanors which in Europe or America would be punished with long imprisonment are either passed over or visited with light penalties. The reason for this is, either that the Government lacks courage to encounter the hostility of the *soshi* and their employers, or that every Japanese, including the Government officials, has an element of the *soshi* spirit in him and feels a bit of sympathy, or at least of tolerance, towards the class. It is a fact that many Government officials, even of the highest rank, have at a certain stage of their careers employed *soshi*, either to defend themselves or to attack their opponents. At every parliamentary election when the voting is close in a particular district, or party feeling runs high, there are swarms of *soshi* employed on both sides, and not a few of them are killed or wounded in these encounters. Hoshi Toru, a man of ability and character, one of the leaders of the Radical party, who is spoken of as the probable successor of Count Inouye in Corea, had a large number of *soshi* engaged on his side in the last election, and the Government stood nerveless except so far as to prevent intimidation of voters at the polls.

Some time ago a foreigner, whose nationality we need not mention, encountered the hostility of a body of these hirelings. His offence was that he had dismissed a servant who in revenge joined a well-known band of *soshi* who took up his cause. The foreigner was pestered with threatening letters and visits until he could endure it no longer. He laid the case before the minister of his country, who at once proceeded to call on the Japanese minister of foreign affairs. The former represented in vigorous language that he expected the citizens of his country to receive the protection of the Japanese Government, and gave warning that he should hold the Government responsible in case the completest protection was not given. The result was that the foreigner was strictly guarded by the police, the guilty *soshi* were ferreted out, ordered to leave Tokyo, and were put under police surveillance. The foreigner was no longer annoyed by either threats or visitations. The most significant point, however, of the whole affair is that when the foreign representative urged upon the Japanese minister the necessity of crushing soshi-ism, the latter confessed that the Government was powerless to do it. The Government might give warning or give orders for some or all of them to leave Tokyo, or in various other ways to restrain them, but to abolish the system was impossible.

It is one of the weakest spots in Japanese civilization that these fellows are permitted to pursue their course without serious interference. There have been warnings time and again that they would bring Japan into serious trouble, but the warnings have been unheeded. Already three Japanese ministers have been killed, if not all by *soshi*, yet by men who derived their reckless courage entirely from the *soshi* class. Count Okuma escaped death from one of them, but was maimed for life. Here and there a voice, particularly Mr. Fukuzawa's, is heard in ringing tones calling upon the Government to stop the whole system of soshi-ism, but for the most part the public is silent about the wretched business. Japan professes to stand as the representative of Western civilization in the East. This is part of her ambition in the present war; and as compared with Corea, China, or India she no doubt deserves the place she covets. But can she preach the gospel of civilization to these people for any length of time when her Government confesses itself unable to crush an institution (for it is nothing less) which permits large numbers of men to go about with concealed weapons, intimidating whoever encounters their ill will or that of their employers? Every one in Japan knows, and the Govment knows, that sword-canes can be purchased in almost every part of Tokyo for 50 cents. In going by the houses of parliament I have seen dozens of these fellows lying about on the grass outside of the compound armed with these deadly weapons, yet they were unmolested by the police.

The Government must also be blamed in another respect. It guaranteed the safety of Li Hung Chang and his suite in the most explicit terms. It wished not only to make peace under favorable conditions—it wished to show the Chinese what international usage should be. Count Ito's remarks to the previous Chinese embassy were as severe and deserved a lecture to the Chinese Government as it has probably ever received. He stated that it was notorious that the Government of China had broken the most solemn promises and used unworthy subterfuges in its dealings with foreign nations. Now, no government in the world probably has larger police powers than that of Japan. A half-dozen gendarmes stationed on each side of the palanquin of Li Hung Chang would have put all danger of as-

sassination out of the question. Yet this simple precautionary measure was not taken.

G. D.

Correspondence.

THE CHICAGO LETTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Cleveland's Chicago letter has, from the financial point of view, a characteristic ring of honesty and sound sense, but there is also a political side which is worth attention. Being asked to address a public meeting, he replies:

"My personal inclination is strongly in favor of accepting your flattering invitation, but my judgment and my estimate of the proprieties of my official place oblige me to forego the enjoyment of participating in the occasion you contemplate."

So he proceeds to write a letter covering almost exactly the same ground as his speech would have done. The distinction is not very obvious, but there is a great difference, as his action implies. A speech from Mr. Cleveland in person at a public meeting in Chicago would have vastly more effect upon the country than any letter he could write, and the question arises, If it would promote the cause of sound money, why should he not make it?

The reason seems to lie in the tacit understanding which has grown up, that all the talking is to be reserved for Senators and members of Congress, while the President must confine himself to written communications, mostly addressed to Congress, while the members of his Cabinet are never to open their mouths at all. The effects are apparent from Mr. Cleveland's letter: "It is time for the American people to reason together as members of a great nation." Sixty millions of people to reason together upon questions of finance! "I will not believe that if our people are afforded an intelligent opportunity for sober second thought they will sanction schemes that, however cloaked, mean disaster and confusion," etc. It is precisely because we look to the "sober second thought" of the people to defeat the intrigues and manipulations which control the anarchy of Congress that our currency is in its present confused condition, and that we have two hundred millions (more or less) of silver in the Treasury which could not be sold for half its cost. If the strength of the American people is to be effectively put forth, it must be under the personal leadership and guidance of men whom they can trust.

When the battle of Arcola was won, it was not because the troops reasoned together, or because they had a sober second thought of the consequences of defeat, but because Napoleon grasped a standard and sprang upon the bridge with the cry, "Suivez-moi!" Mr. Cleveland's estimate of the proprieties of his official place means simply that he does not think fit to antagonize Congress. But that is precisely what is needed, that the President should lead an assault upon the anarchy and vacillation—to speak mildly—of that body, and should appeal directly to his constituents of the nation for support. No doubt that calls for a Napoleon in civil affairs; but if Peace is to have her victories as well as War, she will have to find the man.

G. B.

Boston, April 20, 1895.

MADISON ON DIRECT TAXATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The decision of the Supreme Court on the income-tax provisions of the tariff law of 1894 has again directed attention to the question of direct taxation by the Federal Government. An officer high in the Government has gone so far as to say that it may be necessary to repeal the provision in the Federal Constitution prescribing the methods for levying direct taxes. There were some in 1790 who questioned the justice and expediency of that provision, and I find in the "Ford collection of manuscripts" the following letter of Madison on this point. It has never been published, and at this time has an interest other than historical.—Respectfully yours,

Worthington C. Ford.

Washington, March 15, 1895.

MADISON TO COL. G. THOMPSON.

Jan^{y} 29th. 1789.

Sir

A convenient opportunity offering I take the liberty of adding to the former explanation of my sentiments relating to the federal constitution the grounds on w^{h} I dislike a change of that part of it which authorizes direct taxes. I am led to give you this further trouble, by intimations that the necessity of such a trust in the Union is by many not truly understood; & is a subject on which the reasons in favour of my opinion may with propriety be suggested. Should I judge amiss, your candour will excuse the communication. Should I judge aright, your discretion will make a proper use of it.

I approve this part of the Constitution because I think it an essential provision for securing the benefits of the Union, the principal of which are 1st the prevention of contests among the States themselves: 2^{dly} security against danger from foreign Nations.

On the first point it is evident that there is no way to prevent contests among the States but by establishing Justice among them: and equally evident that this cannot be done but by some system that will make each bear its just share of the public burdens. If some States contribute their quotas and others do not, justice is violated; the violation of justice is the ground of disputes among States as well as among individuals; and as among the latter they produce an appeal to the law, so among the former they produce an appeal to the sword. The question to be considered then is which of the two systems, that of requisitions or that of direct taxes, will best answer the essential purpose of making every State bear it's equitable share of the common burdens. Shall we put our trust in the system of requisitions, by which each State will furnish or not furnish its share as it may like? Reason tells us this can never succeed. Some States will be more just than others, some less just: some will be more patriotic; others less patriotic: some will be more, some less immediately concerned in the evil to be guarded against or in the good to be obtained. The States therefore not feeling equal motives will not furnish equal aids: Those who furnish most will complain of those who furnish least. From complaints on one side will spring ill-will on both sides; from ill will, quarrels; from quarrels, wars; and from wars a long catalogue of evils including the dreadful evils of disunion and a general confusion. Such is the lesson which reason teaches us. But we have a surer guide in our own experience; which like that of every other confederacy that has tried Requisitions, assures us that they will not be duly complied with; that they will not therefore answer the public exigencies, and that they moreover lay the foundation for injustice, for discord and for contention. I need not quote particular instances in proof of what is here advanced. The whole history of requisitions not only during the war but since the peace stamps them with the character which I have given them, and proclaims the necessity of resorting for safety to the other system; the system of direct taxes which the Constitution has substituted.

To say that requisitions ought first to be tried, and if they fail, that direct taxes are then to enforce them, is little better than to yield the point by the manner of urging it. For it admits that requisitions are not likely to be complied with voluntarily; at the same time that the efficacy of them is so much insisted on: It admits again that direct taxes are practicable, although the argument against them is that the General Government cannot in the nature of things levy them. But surely if they are practicable after the refusal of the State Government to comply with the requisitions shall have raised prejudices against the General Government, the practicability will be much greater if no such prejudices be thrown in the way. One remark, however, ought not to be omitted. It is, that every State which chuses to collect it's own quota may always prevent a federal collection by keeping a little before hand in its finances and making its payment at once into the federal Treasury. Another remark deserves to be here made. From the reasoning of many on this subject it would seem as if the question concerning requisitions and direct taxes was whether direct taxes shall be levied or not. This is by no means the case. If extraordinary aids for the public safety shall be not necessary, direct taxes will not be necessary. If extraordinary emergencies call for such aids, the only question will be whether direct taxes shall be raised by the General Government itself or whether the General Government shall require the State Governments to raise them; or in other words whether they shall be raised in all the States, or be raised in some States, whilst others unjustly withdraw their shoulders from the common burden.

On the 2^{d} point to wit security against danger from abroad, it is no less evident that Requisitions will fatally deceive us. For the same reason that they will not obtain from the States their respective shares of contribution and thence become a source of intestine quarrels, they must invite foreign attacks by showing the inability of the Union to repel them: and when attacks are made, must leave the Union to defend itself, if it be defended at all, as was done during the late war, by a waste of blood, a destruction of property, and outrages on private rights, unknown to any country which has credit or money to employ the regular means of defense. Whilst the late war was carried on by means of impress'd property, &c., the annual expense was estimated at about twenty millions of Dollars; at the same time that thousands of brave Citizens were perishing from the scarcity or quality of the supplies provided in that irregular way: to say nothing of the encouragement given by such a situation to the prolongation of the war. Whereas after the General Government was enabled by the pecuniary aids of France to procure supplies in a regular way, the annual expense was reduced to about eight millions of dollars, the army was well fed, the military operations went on with vigour & the blessings of peace were visibly & happily accelerated. Should another war unfortunately be our lot (and the less our ability to repel it, the more likely it is to happen) what would be the condition of the Union, if obliged to depend on Requisitions? There are but two methods by which Nations can carry on a regular plan of self defence; one by waiving the necessary supplies by taxes within the year equal to the public expences: the other, by borrowing money on the credit of taxes pledged for the future repayment of it. The first method is considered by most, if not all nations, as impossible, with the aid of every resource they possess: In the United States, possessed of no resource but duties on trade and their trade probably at the mercy of an enemy superior on the seas, the very idea of such a method is chimerical. The only remaining method is that of borrowing. But who could be expected to lend to a Government which depended on the punctuality of a dozen or more Governments for the means of discharging even the annual interest of the loan? No man who will candidly make the case his own, will say that he would chuse to become a creditor of a Government under such circumstances. Even if the scheme of trying requisitions first, and eventually resorting to direct taxes after a refusal of requisitions, were free from other objections which condemn it, the delay & unpunctuality inseparable from it, would be fatal to it as a Fund for borrowing: or if loans could be obtained at all, it could only be from usurers who would make the public pay threefold for the risk & disappointment apprehended. What would have been the condition of America at any period since

the peace, that is under the system of Requisitions, if Great Britain had renewed the war, or an attack had come from any other quarter, & money had become essential for the public safety? How was it to have been obtained? Would Requisitions have obtained it from the states? There is not a man acquainted with our affairs who will pretend it. Would they have obtained it in loans from individuals to be repaid out of Requisitions? There is probably not a man within the United States aiming at profit only who would have trusted his money on such a security; or who would not at least have exacted an interest of 20, 30, or 40 per cent., as an indemnification for the fallen state of public credit. We see then that the article of the Constitution in question is absolutely essential, whether we consider it as a means of preserving justice & tranquillity among the states, or of preventing or repelling foreign wars.

But besides these general considerations which affect every part of the Union, there are others which claim the most serious attention of the southern parts of it, & of Virginia particularly. If direct taxes be prohibited, and no reliance can be placed on Requisitions, the inevitable consequence will be, that whenever public exigencies arise, the duties will be accumulated on imports, until they shall have yielded every farthing that can be squeezed out of them. Now who is it that pays duties on imports? Those only who consume them. What parts of the continent manufacture least and consume imported manufactures most? The southern parts. It is clearly the interest of the southern parts therefore, and of Virginia particularly, that trade should not be overburdened; but that direct taxes when necessary should come in aid of that fund; since being laid on all the states by an equal rule provided in the Constitution, they tend to equalize the general burden on every part of the continent. It is truly wonderful that from the same quarter it should be urged, as dangerous to yield a full power over trade, lest the northern interest should overburden it with duties, & as proper to make an alteration, that might drive the government into the necessity of overburdening it.

In another view the southern states have peculiar reasons for retaining the article of direct taxation. If war ever breaks out against America where will it fall? On the weakest parts. Which are the weakest parts? The southern parts; particularly Virginia, whose long navigable rivers open a great part of her country to surprise & devastation whenever an enemy powerful at sea chuses to invade her. Strike out direct taxation from the list of federal authorities & what will be our situation? The revenue from commerce must in great measure fail along with the security of commerce. The invaded & plundered part of the Union will be unable to raise money for its defence. And no resource will be left; but under the name of Requisitions to solicit benefactions from the Legislatures of other states, who being not witnesses of our distresses cannot properly feel for us; & being remote from the scene of danger cannot feel for themselves. Is this a situation in which any man who loves his Country ought to wish it to be placed? Are these the benefits for which Virginia can wish to stipulate as a return for her concessions in favor of a Union & a General Government? That a northern state should not be averse to expunge the power of direct taxation may be conceived; because a local interest is not always postponed to the general interest. But that a Southern State should hearken to the measure, & be ready to sacrifice its local interest as well as the general interest, admits of no rational explanation to which I am competent.

With great respect & esteem I am, Sir, your obedient & humble servant, J° Madison, Jr.

DIRECT AND INDIRECT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is strange that, after a century's discussion of the subject of direct and indirect taxation, such confusion should prevail as to the exact meaning of these terms; and more especially as they explain themselves. A direct tax is, of course, a tax laid directly on its subject, whether that subject be a person or a thing; and an indirect tax is one not so laid. In a game of billiards, to send a ball into a pocket the player aims directly at it. But in a carom game, in order to hit ball No. 2 he aims at ball No. 1, striking No. 1 directly and No. 2 indirectly.

So, it is incorrect to call taxes on imports and excises *indirect* taxes, for the tax is laid on them directly and specifically. But when the taxpayer has taken the thing taxed into his possession, the tax is properly, *as to him*, an indirect tax. He then stands in the position of ball No. 2 in the carom game.

Necessarily taxation must be either on persons or on things. A capitation or poll tax is admittedly a direct tax on persons. To prevent such a tax being unequally laid, the Constitution prescribes that it shall be apportioned according to the number of persons that are to pay it. Now, suppose Congress to lay a capitation tax, but exempting a certain class of persons from its operation, could it be pretended that, although acting directly on persons, it would not be still a direct tax? The present "income tax" is palpably a tax on persons, but exempting from its operation those persons whose annual income is under a certain amount; and, being such, it is invalid under Article I. of the Constitution.

If authority be needed in support of these views, your readers will find it in the following passage from the last edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' under "Taxation," the writer of which is Prof. Nicholson, professor of political economy in the University of Edinburgh:

"The most important direct taxes practically are those levied on income or capital directly; and the most important indirect the customs and excise."

Evidently, in characterizing the customs and excise taxes as indirect, he has reference only to their incidence on the taxpayer. For, as we have seen, the taxes on customs and excise, viewed simply as subjects of the tax, are properly direct taxes. Francis J. Lippitt.

Annapolis, Md., April 15, 1895.

THE SOLDIER CASTE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As showing the extent to which the war spirit, which, as you say, is threatening to turn the whole land upside down, has already gone, permit me to add an illustration to that given by you in your article on "The Soldier Caste," in No. 1553 of the *Nation*.

In the Federal Court in Council Bluffs, before Judge Wilson, the trial of a young man charged with making a false affidavit in support of his mother's claim for a pension is now in progress. This young man, named Edgington, had made an affidavit to the effect that his father was F. M. Edgington of Company F, Thirty-fifth Iowa; that he was buried at Mars, Mo.(?), January 26, 1886; and that he, the defendant, attended the funeral. This affidavit was sent to Washington along with his mother's application for a pension. An investigation by the Pension Office disclosed the facts that F. M. Edgington of Company F, Thirty-fifth Iowa, is now on the pension-roll; is a resident of Muscatine County in this State; is a stranger to the defendant and his mother, and in no way related to them.

I quote from the Omaha *Bee* the following account of the opening of the case for the defence:

"Smith McPherson made the opening statement for the defence.

"He admitted that he would be unable, probably, to show in what regiment the defendant's father served, and asserted that the young man had done as is done by men every day in the year—signed an affidavit in support of a pension claim when he really had no personal knowledge as to the main facts connected with it. . . . He wound up with a remark calculated to bring him in touch with the old soldiers who were on the jury, by saying,

"'We have no right to say that because a pension claim is invalid it is fraudulent. We expect to make such a strong showing before we get through with this case, that every one of you will say that if you were sitting in that chair in Washington instead of Hoke Smith, this woman would get her pension.'"

If Mr. McPherson is correctly reported, we have here one of the prominent politicians of Iowa, a leading member of the bar, and an officer of the Federal Court, practically asserting that perjury is not perjury when committed in aid of a pension claim.

Let us trust that Judge Wilson will follow Judge Nelson in maintaining the ancient firmness and wisdom of our Federal Court.

J. A. Phillips.

Dunlap, Iowa, April 15, 1895.

THE SPOILSMAN'S EFFRONTERY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The idea that a person should serve his fellow-citizens in a particular capacity for the reason that he possesses particular qualifications for the place seems to be an idea utterly foreign to the average citizen. I should like to submit for the perusal of your readers the following extract from a "ward" paper of Chicago of recent issue. The "editor" and reporter is not a cynic nor a humorist—he probably thinks the state of affairs he depicts is all right and perfectly proper; but a civil-service reformer on reading the piece will realize that there is much work for American patriots to do. A true American could wish that some of the energy now spent occasionally on Hawaii, Samoa, and Cuba might be deflected into such home affairs as the following relates to:

"Among the applications for place, the following are given us: For superintendent of the Sixty-eighth Street water-works, Robert Aspin and Harry Martin, the former being a recent convert to Republicanism; William Walton will have his old job as superintendent of streets in this end of the ward. Mr. Walton always gave good satisfaction, and we shall be glad to see him back. Julius Danielson, who nominated Shepherd in the convention, claims as his reward street superintendent of the north end of the ward, but James Todd, the former boss, is making a great fight for the place. For sidewalk inspector there are three applicants, viz.: Lew Hargreaves, Jack Boger, and Charles Edwardts. Hargreaves is handicapped by the fact that he has been holding down a job under Collector Hanberg, and some declare he has had enough and should give some one else a chance. For Jim McLaughlin's job [in charge of water-pipes] there are any number of applicants. Michael Schmidt, it is thought, can have the place if he will take it. John McCormick, W. H. Sullivan, George Wright, and Percy Burke, a relative of Harmon S. Burke, and Charles Templeton are the other applicants if rumor is to be relied on. There are also two Polish applicants, with unpronounceable names, who are not considered in it. For bridge-tenders, there are over three hundred applicants, and Ald. Shepherd, who is chairman of that committee, is hounded to death. Walter McCall is a candidate for harbor master.

"The following gentlemen have 'caught on' to jobs in the county treasurer's office: John B. Price of Irondale; Barney Rozynek, W. E. Lewis, the barber; and Squire Burke, a son of the president of the Twenty-third Ward Republican Club."

Of course it would be very doctrinaire, unpractical, and theoretical (and everything else that is bad, besides being un-American), but some of us visionary people would like to

see these numerous applicants "lined up," and the most capable of them selected for the places on exactly the same principle that an employer would select applicants for a place in his works—that is, fitness; and the applicant, once selected, should hold the place during good behavior. Why do our missionaries go to Africa to preach the Gospel to the heathen? E. L. M.

CHICAGO, April 16, 1895.

BONDED EMPLOYEES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The recommendation of the legislative committee on the Brooklyn strike that rail road employees be licensed, so that a motorman or gripman who has neglected his duties in one position will be prevented from securing similar employment elsewhere, is worthy of thoughtful consideration. Some method of adding to the responsibility of men of this class should unquestionably be devised, and it has long seemed to the writer that public safety would be increased if the companies should require the deposit of a bond of say twenty-five dollars from each new employee. No man who is unable to furnish such security is worthy of being intrusted with the management of a car moving at high speed through city streets, and such a bond would be of especial value in preventing that wanton destruction of property by irresponsible strikers which has been so injurious to the laboring man as well as to his employers.

The efficiency of a small force properly applied should be recognized in Political Economy as well as in Mechanics. J. H. P.

PHILADELPHIA, April 16, 1895.

TWO LETTERS OF RUFUS KING'S.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your number of April 10, 1895, there is a review of the second volume of 'The Life and Correspondence of Rufus King,' in which, while the volume is spoken of most favorably "as rich in new material and in the selection of letters showing care and discrimination," the reviewer points out some faults "in the hope of making it [the work] even better."

It is not my purpose to pass upon these, which, though they are blemishes, are in the main of no great moment. But there is one which requires a correction, inasmuch as there is an inaccuracy in the fact stated, and apparent carelessness on the part of the gentleman who kindly had the Hamilton papers in the State Department at Washington examined for me, giving me a list of those written by Rufus King. The charge is: "Nor have the Hamilton papers been thoroughly searched, as they contain the letters described by the editor as not to be found."

These letters referred to were two written on April 17 and 20, the year not given, but in 1796, by King to Hamilton in answer to three short letters by the latter, published on p. 61 of this second volume. On p. 62 the editor regrets that these letters cannot be found, "as they must have given some interesting facts, as well as the views of Mr. King relative to the important questions under review. . . . A search for them in the United States State Department among the Hamilton papers by Mr. Andrew H. Allen, Chief of Bureau of Rolls and Library, at the editor's request, has been unsuccessful."

In this statement there are two serious errors: the first is, that they *are* among the Hamilton Papers in the Department of State; and the second, that in the list furnished to me of the letters of King, *these two letters* are noted as No. 16, pages 141 and 143 of the Hamilton Papers. Mr. Allen asked me to mark on the list such as I desired to have copied. For some reason, for which I cannot account, possibly because the year in which they were written was not in them, I did not mark the letters for copying and they were not copied; and as they did not appear among my copies, I must have inferred, most carelessly, that they did not exist. Mr. Allen, against whose accuracy I have most unjustly recorded an incorrect statement, was therefore not in fault, but really placed at my disposal the desired information. I regret that I cannot make this correction where the charge is made, on page 62 of this second volume, but I shall insert it in an appendix to the third, where a copy of the letters shall be placed.

I must ask from you the privilege of making this statement, and also to publish the two letters from Mr. King, as copied below, and thus follow the refutation of the above charge as speedily as possible, giving your readers the benefit of such information as they contain.

CHARLES R. KING,
Editor of 'Life and Correspondence of Rufus King.'

ANDALUSIA, PA., April 17, 1895.

Hamilton Papers, No. 16, p. 141.

RUFUS KING TO ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

Monday Morning 17 Ap.

In general I agree in the course you recommend. Separate Bills will be reported to the House this morning providing for the Sp. Ind. & Alg. Treaties. They will pass the H. and be sent to the Senate by the middle of the week. I perceive no impropriety in adding to the first of these Bills received by the Senate, and in succession to each of them if requisite, a provision for the Br. Treaty. Such amendment, if rec'd in the House before they take a question, it is believed would have influence.

[The Merchants and traders' is signed with unexampled unanimity. Baltimore have prepared a similar petition wh. will be very generally signed. Gen^{l} Smith, who is now there, writes that the Treaty has gained many friends, that they are next to unanimous in favor of its execution, that Annapolis is likewise unanimous, and that he thinks nine-tenths of the State are for carrying it into effect. He adds that a memorial has been drawn up and signed by most of the respectable People in Baltimore, approving the President's conduct in refusing the Papers], that he thinks a counter memorial could be obtained, but that he has discouraged it seeing the necessity of unanimity at the present crisis. He returns to-morrow or next day & will be zealous for the execution of the Treaty. His friends may be induced to act upon his mind, which balances, so as to decide it. Adieu. R KING.

(Addressed) Free. R. King—Alexander Hamilton, Esq., New York.

(Endorsed) R. King, Esq,—Rufus King, April 17, 1796.

Hamilton Papers, No. 16, p. 143.

Wednesday 20. Ap.

The Petitions of the Merchants and others will be presented to-day, and it is said they have been signed by almost every Merchant and Trader in the City. Pettit, Barclay and some few others are exceptions. A counter Petition has been very industriously carried through the City and its suburbs; and though very few Merchants, Traders, or principal Mechanicks have signed it, it will show a long catalogue of Names. The persons engaged in this service have been very successful in the Northern and Southern Liberties, and taking their stands upon the wharves, they have collected the names of sailors and others, as well foreigners as Citizens. Baltimore has become very jealous, and I fear from the displeasure at the conduct of Col^{o} Smith, they have hazarded his vote and influence whatever it may me [*sic*] in the Question of Provision for the Treaty. They have drawn up a Paper, which is signed by almost the whole body of Merchants, in which they request *and instruct* him to promote by the proper provisions the Execution of the Treaty. His inclination was in favor of a Provision, but I am apprehensive, his Pride will be so wounded by *this instruction* that he may vote against his judgment to prove his independence. We shall probably receive from the House today a Bill making an appropriation for defraying the Expences of carrying into effect the Sp. Treaty.

We shall amend it by adding a provision for the Br. Treaty. If the House disagree, we shall adhere, and they will lop the Bill by refusing our amendment. We shall then add to the Algerine Bill an amendment providing for the British and Spanish Treaties. The House will also decide the Fate of this Bill. We shall then add to the Bill providing for the In. Treaty an amendment providing for the British, the Span^{h} and the Algerine Treaties. The House will also decide the Fate of this Bill, we shall then offer them a Bil^{l}, providing for all the Treaties; this likewise they may reject, but my Belief is that the opposition will give way before we have gone through this course.

Yrs. &c RUFUS KING

(Endorsed) Rufus King Esq., (No date) April 20. No. 3.

GERMAN STUDENT TAXATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of February 28, which I have just read, I find a short article concerning the taxation of students in the universities of North Germany. Göttingen is one of the universities from which—this article says—foreign students of "limited means" are kept because of the imposition of an income tax. In reply, I should like to say that there is at present in Göttingen a flourishing colony of thirty American students, some of them of two years' residence, and not one of whom has been called upon to pay any tax whatever.

The city of Göttingen levies a local tax on all residents of three months' standing; but from this tax students are expressly exempt.

Respectfully yours,

HARRIET FRENCH MIXTER.

GÖTTINGEN, April 10, 1895.

PROF. JAMES PILLANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I fear the lapse of forty years has weakened the memory of the Edinburgh prizeman of 1855, who in the *Nation* of April 4 writes of his Latin professor as "poor old Pillings." A man of sufficient eminence to find a place in Byron's "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers" might have been spared the ignominy of a name misspelled by one of his own pupils.

"Scott may perchance his name and influence lend,
And paltry Pillans shall traduce his friend."

A. D. SMITH.

SACKVILLE, NEW BRUNSWICK, April 18, 1895.

POOR INK ALSO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "H. D. C.," in the *Nation* for April 11, justly complains of the quality of paper now used in writing and printing and for other purposes. We hear, also, similar complaints about ink. This is no imaginary evil, and it is doubtless true that the greater part of the books, periodicals, and records printed or written on the paper and with the ink now in use will, within a century, have perished from the earth.

There are compensating features, however. Is it a matter for regret that the greater number of the books and periodicals of the day are

doomed to early destruction? The prospect of the utter annihilation of nine out of every ten current novels, poems, and magazine articles, and of many of the ordinary text-books for schools and colleges, is hardly one to make the judicious grieve. But paper varies in quality even as the stars differ in lustre, and fortunately the best books are as a rule (alas for the exceptions!) printed on the best paper—which in these degenerate days is, it must be confessed, none too good. While some of the good books must perish, it is the worthless that will first decay, from being printed on equally worthless paper. Behold an example of the great law of the survival of the fittest, and let us hope that it will clear the way for a generation of writers of higher ideals and of a less mercenary spirit.—Truly yours, M. W.

COLUMBIA, MO., April 13, 1895.

Notes.

THE prospectus of the English Dialect Dictionary to be edited by Prof. Joseph Wright, hon. secretary and literary director of the English Dialect Society, is now published. This great work will be issued by annual subscription—parts i. and ii. during 1896, and the remaining parts at half-yearly intervals. A guinea a year secures at least 288 pages of the ordinary edition; two guineas being the rate for a special edition of 250 copies on Whatman hand-made paper. Eight years will be required for completion, and a thousand subscribers are needed to launch the enterprise. Names should be sent to Prof. Wright at 6 Norham Road, Oxford; subscriptions (in advance of January 1, 1896) to the Rev. Prof. Skeat, 2 Salisbury Villas, Cambridge. The vocabulary will embrace all dialect words still in use or known to have been in use in the past 200 years in Great Britain and Ireland, together with all American dialect words still in use in the British Isles. Geographical area, pronunciation, and immediate etymology will all be shown. The specimen pages are very attractive typographically. It seems to us highly desirable that arrangements for delivery through some house in this country should be made, for the sake of American subscribers.

Part i. of Prof. Lydekker's 'Royal Natural History' will be issued immediately by Frederick Warne & Co., together with a pocket guide to British wild flowers, 'Wayside and Woodland Blossoms,' with colored plates; 'Angling and How to Angle,' by R. B. Marston; 'The Spirit of Cookery,' by Prof. Thudichum, and 'Dinners Up to Date,' with menus in French and English; and 'The Legends of King Arthur and his Knights,' compiled by James Knowles.

The Dean of Winchester's 'Life and Letters of the late Prof. E. A. Freeman' will be brought out in two volumes by Macmillan & Co., who promise also 'The Principles of Sociology,' by Prof. Franklin H. Giddings of Columbia, a new volume of short stories by Henry James, and an illustrated 'History of the Fan,' by Miss M. A. Flory.

The 'Letters of S. T. Coleridge'; a volume of Letters by the late Celia Thaxter, edited by Mrs. Fields; Justin Winsor's 'The Mississippi Basin,' 1697-1763; a 'Life of Gen. Thomas Pinckney,' by the Rev. C. C. Pinckney of Charleston; and a Texan civil-war novel, by Mrs. M. E. M. Davis, 'Under the Man-Fig,' are to appear directly from the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A posthumous volume is to be added to the works of Leconte de Lisle. Since the poet's death his manuscripts have been gone over by his publisher, M. Alphonse Lemerre, aided by Mme. Leconte de Lisle and MM. F. Coppée, De Heredia, and De Guerne. Some fifteen hundred unpublished verses were found, and to these will be added the "Apollonide" and the thousand verses of the "Passion." These last poems were suppressed by their author in the Poulet-Malassis edition, on account of what seemed to him their too idealistic spirit. The volume will also contain the panegyric on Victor Hugo which Leconte de Lisle delivered when he succeeded to Hugo's chair at the Academy. The book will appear at the beginning of May, and will be the fourth volume of the poet's complete works.

M. de Heredia, whose reception into the Academy has been long delayed on account, it is said, of the fastidious care which he has been bestowing on his discourse, will be received on May 30. François Coppée will make the reply to his address. Bourget's reception is fixed for June 13.

Among the posthumous papers of the painter Anselm Feuerbach, who died at Venice, February 4, 1880, in the fifty-first year of his age, were found the fragments of an autobiography, which were published in Vienna soon after his death under the title of 'Ein Vermächtniss,' with an appendix of remarkably pithy and pertinent aphorisms concerning art. This book, of which a third edition appeared in 1890, attracted considerable attention, awakening new interest in the life and labors of the artist, and exciting a very general desire for a fuller and more consecutive account of his career. This wish has now been realized by the publication of Julius Allgeyer's 'Anselm Feuerbach, sein Leben und seine Kunst' (Bamberg: Buchner). The biographer, a well-known engraver and connoisseur, first met Feuerbach in 1856 at Rome, and was so strongly drawn to him by ties of sympathy with his high aims and aspirations that the casual acquaintance soon grew into a warm and lasting friendship. This intimate fellowship continued for nearly a quarter of a century, during which Allgeyer carried on a constant correspondence with Feuerbach, and followed the development of his genius with lively interest and a clear perception of its marked individuality and uncommon versatility. He has turned his rare opportunities to good account, and produced a book which is not only an interesting biographical and psychological study, but also a valuable contribution to the history of the different schools of art that have enjoyed more or less reputation in Germany during the last half-century. A portrait of Feuerbach, painted by himself and engraved by Allgeyer, forms the frontispiece of the volume, which is also adorned with thirty-eight autotype illustrations. The table of contents and index are both good, and an appendix contains a list of Feuerbach's oil-paintings, water-colors, and sketches, 485 in all, with the names of the present owners.

The fact that the late Prof. G. J. Romanes, who began his scientific career as a dogmatic atheist, ended his life in the communion of the Church of England, was made known at his untimely death. Fragments of a contemplated book explaining and defending this change of view were found among his papers, and have been printed under the title 'Thoughts on Religion' (Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.). What the work would have been had Prof. Romanes lived to complete it, cannot now be said; but it is certain that these disjointed notes have only the artificial value due to the personal reasons mentioned. De Maistre long ago remarked on the futility in general of the arguments of converted sceptics, and it is impossible to imagine the considerations which Romanes thought were efficient with himself proving as strong with other minds. The editing has been done by the Rev. Charles Gore, who exhibits commendable restraint, for the most part, not smoothing away obvious contradictions, or suppressing opinions which he cannot approve of, and only in one or two places betraying the complacence of one with a valuable theological trophy in his possession.

That the full use of all one's physical senses, especially in childhood, is necessary for normal psychical development, at first might challenge controversy from some. It does not when we reflect that deafness in infancy blocks the only natural avenue of mental communication, directly by excluding others and indirectly by preventing speech. The wonderful triumph over deaf-mutism and the added infirmity of blindness in Laura Bridgman and Helen Keller are exceptions that illustrate the rule. Nature is powerless to substitute one sense for another, but intelligent care may remedy the worst conditions. The untaught deaf are apt to be morose, obstinate, and self-centred. That some mental disability is apt to follow a partial want of aural power, and that imperfect speech indicates nervous deficiency or disturbance, probably occurs to few but physicians and very intelligent teachers. What too often is charged to inattention or stupidity in the dull child at school is simply physical insensitiveness to sound. A little book by Lillie E. Warren on 'Defective Speech and Deafness' (New York: E. S. Werner) treats of the relation between these states, and incidentally shows the enormous number of children whose hearing is imperfect and who are thus handicapped. The chapter (six) that distinguishes between the improvement of hearing and the development of hearing is especially commended, and all teachers of the young and parents of children whose sense of sound is in any degree defective are pressed to read this essay, that modestly but strenuously advocates the importance of the early recognition and efficient correction of these troubles. The author shows the consciousness of experience, and has made a valuable contribution to practical pedagogy with imperfect subjects.

The 'Home Treatment for Catarrhs and Colds,' by Leonard A. Dessar, M.D. (New York: Home Series Publishing Co.), "has been written with a view of supplying the general reader with a trustworthy guide of instruction for the proper care, prevention, and treatment of catarrhal troubles of the throat, nose, and ears, and their complications." It is hardly necessary formally to say that it does not accomplish this impossible service.

The progress of the age, one had almost said the wheel of progress, is distinctly shown by the reference to cycling that Dr. Mary Bissell Taylor makes in her 'Manual of Hygiene' (New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.). She says it "is a most desirable exercise and addition to our out-of-door sports," and adds, as with authority: "Although theoretical objections have been urged to cycling for women, the experience and observation of the writer have failed to demonstrate their truth." This is the first recognition of the newer locomotion that we have observed in formal treatises on health. The view taken is correct. The book as a whole is a good elementary one, although the style is very diffuse. It would

seem better adapted as a text-book for high-grade schools than for medical students, as designed.

With the coming of April's bloodroot and hepatica, we naturally look for the first out-door books. Mr. Joseph Jackson, in many rambles 'Through Glade and Mead' (Worcester, Mass.: Putnam, Davis & Co.), has thoroughly learned the plants about Worcester, and his book stands ready to guide the lover of wild things through fields, woods, and highways, showing him the various attractions they offer from spring's first awakening till the fading witch-hazel ends the year's pageant. A full classified list of the higher plants of Worcester County adds much to the book's value.

The Scribners issue a revised edition of Mrs. William Starr Dana's 'How to Know the Wild Flowers,' with 52 new plates and about 60 new flower descriptions, besides other additions. A deservedly welcome book is thus made still more acceptable.

The text of Part vi. of Mr. Wm. C. Harris's 'Fishes of North America' (New York: Harris Publishing Co.) is entirely given up to the catfish, which is declared to be emphatically the farmer's fish, in place of the inferior carp, "that humbug of angling and edible fishes." The two colored plates from oil-paintings represent the Eastern or Banded Pickerel and the Kingfish, Whiting, or Barb.

We noticed the other day a History of Florence, Mass., with special reference to its documentary and reminiscential account of the "Northampton Association of Education and Industry" at that place. A paper on the latter theme in the March number of the *New England Magazine*, independently prepared by Olive Rumsey, as the fruit of much intelligent research, will be found a material addition to Mr. Sheffield's chapters on the Association. Miss Rumsey's generalizations are for the most part sensible and sound, but she has been led astray by the accidental anti-slavery spirit and practice of the Northampton Community. The abolitionists as a body, much less their leaders with rare exceptions, were not diverted into socialistic experiments in the forties. The very definiteness of their task saved them from temptation to embark in schemes of universal regeneration. They were content, to borrow a phrase of Emerson's, "to make a sally against evil by some single improvement."

A recent journey through the northern part of Nicaragua is described by Dr. Bruno Mierisch in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for March. A considerable part of the country traversed, though of extraordinary fertility, was uncultivated and without inhabitants simply from want of communication with the coast. On the accompanying map is indicated the route of a projected railway from the heart of this region to the head of navigation on the Rio Grande, 120 miles distant. In the higher districts the climate is delightful, but in the swampy plains the mortality from fever is appalling. There were evidences of gold in many places, but apparently not in very paying quantities.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for April has an interesting account of British New Guinea by the administrator, Sir William MacGregor. Originally occupied to preserve Australia from close foreign neighbors, the three colonies, Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria, share the responsibility and expense of the Government. It has been an eminently peaceful conquest, for Sir William says that he had "neither soldier nor policeman" to aid him in establishing his authority. Now the law is administered in the various coast settlements by native magistrates, and order maintained by some sixty Papuan constables. The people are still in the stone age, and there have been discovered "no old ruins, no building, or other remains of an older or different race." The progress is very slow, but in some districts large numbers of cocoanut-trees have been planted by the natives, and the habit of regular labor is being formed among them. Though traces of gold are met with at a great many different places, the hope of the country is in agriculture. Its soil is adapted to every tropical production, and as it lies just north of the hurricane zone, the crops are not liable to damage from this cause. Malarial fever of a mild type is the only prevalent disease. Prof. Wagner contributes an account of a new calculation, by zones of ten degrees of latitude, of the areas of land and water on the globe, in which he finds the proportion to be 1:2.54.

The Amherst Summer School of Library Economy will reopen on July 1 and close on August 3. A reasonably thorough education and some special aptitude for work among books are requirements for admission to this course. Particulars will be furnished by the instructor, Mr. Wm. I. Fletcher, on application.

The fourth session of the School of Applied Ethics will be held at Plymouth, Mass., for five weeks beginning July 8. A new feature will be the department of Education, "considered not as a professional matter, but as a social and ethical force and in relation to other such forces." The secretary is Mr. S. Burns Weston, No. 1305 Arch Street, Philadelphia.

A movement is on foot to set up a drinking-fountain in the old plaza at San Francisco as a memorial of the late Robert Louis Stevenson. Subscriptions towards a fund of $1,500 for that purpose may be sent to Mr. W. D. Adams, University of California.

—Mr. Mitchell Vincent, a professional engineer and draughtsman of Onawa, Iowa, has had the happy thought to plot the course of the Missouri in 1804 as laid down in the MS. journals of Lewis and Clark, at least for the Iowa portion of the river. He has obtained these data from Dr. Elliott Coues, the latest editor of the explorers, and has made a beginning with the stretch that bounds Monona County on the west. A few blue prints of this map are in private circulation. The plotting possesses an extraordinary interest and no small hydrographic value, inasmuch as it includes the United States survey of 1852 and the county survey of April, 1894, and thus exhibits the changes in the stream at two intervals of approximately forty-five years. The antics of this mighty river in alluvial soil are almost incredible; one who should attempt to follow literally in the track of Lewis and Clark in their ascent of the Missouri would have frequently to convert his pirogue into a "prairie schooner." The tendency of the river, on the whole, at this particular point, has been to straighten itself, and Iowa has been the gainer by the operation, at the expense of Nebraska. We hope nothing will prevent Mr. Mitchell from completing his task, and it were much to be desired that the whole length of the Missouri might be treated in the same way. His map renews the feeling we have already expressed that the original codices of Lewis and Clark ought to be published in full—if not by national authority, then by private liberality.

—Dr. John Kells Ingram's 'History of Slavery and Serfdom' (London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan) is an expansion of the article "Slavery" in the ninth edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' The additions are considerable, but not sufficient to remove the impression that we are reading a summary which is too compact to have any literary character. The American section has been expanded as much as any, but in the 'Encyclopædia' it was absurdly inadequate, and it is hardly less so in the book. There is not a word about the colonial development of the institution, and while relatively a good deal is said about the anti-slavery sentiments of "the fathers of the American Union," nothing is said concerning the decay of such sentiments in the hot air of the cotton-gin prosperity. With these exceptions the outline preserves very well the salient features of pro-slavery aggression and the anti-slavery development. Those who are troubled by the writer's incidental opinion "that the Union in its present condition cannot long continue to exist," can reassure themselves by reading Mr. Bryce's new chapter in his 'American Commonwealth,' "The Home of the Nation." In conclusion, the segregation of the colored people from the whites is urged, either in Liberia or elsewhere—an impossible business through any mechanical device, and undesirable as the result of any gradual process of mutual alienation. In the bibliography of the subject there are only four titles on the American part of it, and these not the most significant. Von Holst's 'Constitutional History' is not among them, nor Olmsted's 'Cotton Kingdom,' a book likely to be as classical for the antecedents of our civil war as Arthur Young's 'Travels in France' for those of the French Revolution.

—The current number of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* brings no special news from the excavations at Delphi. Mr. Louis Couve publishes, with an ample and learned commentary, some inedited inscriptions which illustrate the wide political relations still maintained by the Delphic shrine even after its actual power in Greece had passed away. The Ptolemies, the Seleucidæ, and the Kings of Pergamum continued, as a matter of tradition and policy, to consult the oracle with deference in regard to important undertakings, and to invite its representatives to preside over high religious functions—ceremonials of thanksgiving or of political significance. The Delphians in return pass complimentary decrees expressing their gratitude, and bestowing crowns, statues, and the various honors at their command on their royal benefactors. The situation reminds one somewhat of the present predicament of the Vatican. The most interesting of the decrees cited by Mr. Couve is one which records the thanks of the city and the honor of a crown and a bronze statue conferred on Nicomedes III. of Bithynia (91–74 B. C.) for his generosity in restoring to the temple thirty slaves who had formed part of its retinue, and had, through piracy or otherwise, drifted to that distant region. The list of functionaries is almost precisely similar to those of the temple at Delos, and includes a baker, a cook, some carpenters, and herdsmen for the sacred cattle. Notwithstanding the official certificate that is here given to the "piety" of Nicomedes, he is known to history as a vicious and unscrupulous tyrant.

—M. A. de Ridder, in his exhaustive paper on the Island of Gha, furnishes the complement to the researches of M. Cambanis as to the drainage of Lake Copais, which we noticed lately. This island, called also Goulàs ("the fortress"), is formed by the rising of the lake, and its area of about fifty acres is surrounded by Cyclo-

pean walls, which formed a system of defence in connection with a massive castle situated on the highest point, close to the northern edge. M. de Ridder gives a plan of this fortified encampment, accompanied by elaborate measurements. The fortified palace presents a general resemblance to those of Mycenæ and of Tiryns, with some suggestive differences of detail. The rooms are smaller, less abounding in ornament, and were hastily constructed, as if in view of some pressing emergency. The style of the palace and fortifications is of a piece with that of prehistoric structures in the vicinity—the three colossal drains which conveyed the overflow of Lake Copais into the "Catavothræ," or natural rock tunnels, and the well-known dome-shaped chamber at Orchomenus, called the Treasury of the Minyans. These, together with the fortifications of Goulàs, or Gha, M. de Ridder would refer to the later Mycenæan epoch, verging on the historic period. The island was converted hurriedly into a fortified camp, probably as a refuge against the inroads of some already threatening invader, before whose successful progress it was, a generation or two later, abandoned once for all. Some useful and novel illustrations of the development of Greek sculpture are figured and discussed in the minor articles. One of these is a funereal slab of Ionian origin, belonging to the sixth century, and representing in full-length profile a warrior with a wild boar at his feet, which is evidently a ruder forerunner of the well-known stele of Alxenor. Another example of the style and influence of the Ionian school of Asia Minor is a sphinx, or guardian genius of tombs, preserved in the Louvre and found in Cyprus. This also is of the sixth century, and is a rare type of its class, not only because sculptured in the round, but because the arrangement of the hair, and the expression of the mouth and eyes, show an archaism far advanced in method and artistic skill. The curves of the lips recall the expression of "la Boudeuse" in the Acropolis Museum.

—Dr. Charles Waldstein, recently elected Slade Professor of the Fine Arts in the University of Cambridge, England, who is at present (as Professor of the History of Art in the American School of Classical Studies at Athens) conducting excavations at the Argive Heræum, writes as follows from Argos, under date of March 28:

"As I write, I sit on the walls of the second temple of Hera (of the fifth century B. C.), while the men are massed on the slope below, to the south, where last year we found the first indications of a large building between twenty and thirty feet beneath the foundation walls of the second temple. As we wished to lose no time this year, Mr. J. C. Hoppin (Harvard, '93), together with our architect, Mr. E. L. Tilton of New York city, and Mr. T. W. Heermance (Yale, '93), began excavating a week ago, and carried on the work very successfully before my arrival here. The building below the south slope of the second temple promises to be one of the finest of the eleven buildings we have already discovered on this most favorable site. Of the north wall, which is of the best Greek masonry, four courses are standing. We have already followed it up for more than a hundred feet, and have not yet come to the end. The pillar bases in the centre are all *in situ*. On one of these last year a drum of the column was still standing, and we have since discovered two others. Here Mr. Hoppin found some well-preserved large fragments of the metopes from the second temple, together with two heads in excellent preservation, one of which (a warrior with a helmet) fits the neck of a fragment of a metope with the greater part of the torso. If our good fortune continues, we shall be able to present fine specimens of metopes of this temple, which is second only to the Parthenon in artistic importance. The grant of the Archæological Institute and (above all) the liberality of Mrs. J. W. Clark of Pomfret, Conn., enables us to carry this season's work to a termination without the worries of cramped means."

—In a couple of finely printed and fitly illustrated volumes entitled 'Unter den vier ersten Königen Bayerns' (Munich: Beck), Luise von Kobell gives a series of delightful sketches of social and political events under the first four kings of the Wittelsbach dynasty, covering a period of eighty-five years from the accession of the Elector, afterwards (1806) King Max Joseph, in 1799, to the death of Ludwig II. in 1886. The first section of the work (pp. 1-48) is a chronicle of the Kobell family, dwelling especially on the life and character of the author's great-great-grandfather, Ferdinand Kobell, an artist of considerable distinction and a most admirable man, whose letters to his son, Aegid, may be compared to those of Lord Chesterfield in lively humor and knowledge of human nature, but are far superior to them in moral elevation and in the inculcation of personal purity and integrity and right rules of conduct from an ethical as well as a conventional point of view. These letters, written from 1791 to 1793, record interesting incidents of the French Revolution, and contain repeated expressions of indignation at the arrogance and profligacy of the French emigrants on German soil. If the Duc d'Enghien was the frivolous and shameless fellow here described, his murder by Napoleon does not leave much room for regret. The most entertaining as well as the most instructive portions of these volumes are those in which the author relates her personal recollections, beginning with her first ball in 1838, ten years before the abdication of Ludwig I. Her position, first as the daughter of a Munich professor and popular poet and intimate friend of Maximilian II., and secondly as the wife of August Eisenhart, ministerial councillor and private secretary of Ludwig II., afforded her rare opportunities of observing the making of history from behind the scenes, and from this social vantage-ground she looked around her with uncommonly keen and inquisitive eyes. Her lively pictures of the weekly reunions of artists, poets, and scholars under the hospitable roof of the veteran philologist, Friedrich Thiersch, and of the life and conversation of the court circles and cultivated middle class in Munich during the past half-century, are very entertaining reading. Valuable, too, as a source of information for future historians is her portraiture of the unfortunate romanticist on the throne, Ludwig II., whose vain endeavor to reconcile the sentiments of a patriotic German and the duties of a constitutional monarch with unbounded admiration of absolutism as embodied in Louis XIV. of France, would have sufficed to make him crazy, if it had not been already symptomatic of incipient insanity.

IMBECILES ALL.

Degeneration. By Max Nordau. Translated from the second edition of the German work. D. Appleton & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp xiii, 560.

This book possesses the same qualities that brought the author's 'Conventionelle Lügen' to the notice of the press censorship in Austria: it pursues a certain philanthropic aim with something too much of vivacity. The author sees mankind, as he believes, on the brink of a precipice, and catches them by the skirts to hold them back, but allows himself meanwhile a line of commentary that hampers one's gratitude with reserves. He believes that the majority of the artists, poets, and novelists of the present day are mentally unsound, and develop (or exaggerate) a disease in the mind of the public that supports and appreciates them; and he refers to them collectively as "graphomaniacal fools, and their imbecile or unscrupulous bodyguard of critics." One thinks of Joubert's apothegm: *Il faut haïr et mépriser avec esprit.*

Herr Nordau grounds this extraordinary opinion on the newest of the sciences. Criminology, he says, has established two things: that insanity, vice, and crime are but varying degrees of the same thing, and that there are certain innocent and often unobtrusive traits that enable one to say beforehand of the person possessing them that he is of the criminal type. He examines the artistic output of the past two generations, and finds these premonitory symptoms in the works of Ruskin and the pre-Raphaelites, the Symbolists, Whitman, Tolstoi, Wagner, the Parnassians, the Æsthetes and Décadents, Ibsen, Nietzsche, Zola and the Realists, and we know not whom besides. He marshals them in review in a tone of boisterous exultation and abuse—much as if he had been a keeper in an asylum and had learned there to call a spade a spade. Walt Whitman is on one page "mad Walt Whitman," on another "crazy Walt Whitman." Ibsen is a "malignant anti social simpleton." "The pornographists" are "a filth-loving herd of swine." Ruskin's doctrines on art are "delirious," and their author is described as "raging and cursing." Idealist philosophers from Berkeley to Hegel are "solemn drivellers"; and so on. One paragraph, in which Herr Nordau has been parodying Maeterlinck, he closes with the remark that it is not "quite worthy of a mentally sound man to make fun of a poor devil of an idiot." We quite agree with him. And in another place (p. 318) he says that "he who has not learnt to impose some restraint upon himself in order not to shock others, is called by malicious Philistines not an æsthete but a blackguard." We should not choose this way of putting it, but we can see what he means.

This, however, is but manner and not to be insisted on. The book is described by its author as a bit of scientific criticism, and may claim to be judged as such. And here one thing must be said at once. Herr Nordau everywhere relies on the psychology which is not inaptly called morbid, as if it were a solid body of doctrine. It is not in a position to be dealt with in that way. Many facts, it is true, have been collected in its name, and some much-disputed generalizations have been made, but the science as a whole (whatever it may one day become) is as yet in the stage of absorbing light, not of giving it out. To read by it, as Herr Nordau everywhere does, would indicate a person who could have read without it. The only aid it could afford him is in the line of scattered observations. Whenever our author states a principle, it is to these he must be understood to refer. Very often he refers to them directly. He is perpetually quoting some report on lunatics and arguing from it as if it were a law of nature. He transcribes, for example, two strophes from Rossetti's "Troy Town," with its double refrain at the end of the first and fifth lines:

> "Heaven-born Helen, Sparta's Queen,
> (Oh, Troy Town!)
> Had two breasts of heavenly sheen,
> The sun and the moon of the heart's desire:
> All Love's lordship lay between.
> (Oh, Troy's down,
> Tall Troy's on fire!)"

His criticism is that the bracketed lines are not connected "in a rational way" with the rest of the verse, and that "Sollier remarks the peculiarity among persons of feeble intel-

lect." He might have remarked it in a song at the end of "Twelfth Night," Shakspere's favorite play:

> "When that I was and a little tiny boy,
> With hey, ho, the wind and the rain,
> A foolish thing was but a toy,
> For the rain it raineth every day."

Herr Nordau continues to quote: "'Idiots,' he says, 'insert words which have absolutely no connection with their object.'" There is a certain difference between "no rational connection" and "absolutely no connection." And further on: "'Among idiots constant repetition grows into a veritable *tic!*'" It seems hardly necessary to say that because certain idiots do this, that, and the other thing—walk, for instance—it does not follow that all who walk are idiots. It will hardly be believed that the scientific staple of the book is of this grade.

More than this, it is not only assumed that whoever acts like an idiot must be an idiot, but whoever writes like an idiot or paints like an idiot must be one. This is rather the more doubtful assumption of the two, and it underlies the whole book. Indeed, the relation between the author and his work is everywhere regarded as one of perfect simplicity. If Rossetti wrote a foolish poem (we are giving our author's opinion, not our own), Rossetti is at once set down as foolish; if Wagner wrote a libidinous opera, he must have been libidinous. In a sense, of course, this is true, but it is always necessary for Herr Nordau's argument that it be the whole truth; he infers immediately from the work that the author had no other or better powers than it displays. It would seem that the inference ought to be precisely the reverse. Whether or not an author have worse powers than appear in his work, he may have better. He cannot work above himself, but he may to any extent work beneath. Whether he did so or not can be told only from an intimate acquaintance with his life; and, indeed, any information about him that is to be relied upon—that is worthy of the name of scientific, which Herr Nordau claims for himself—must come from that side. Every book and every picture are no doubt bits of autobiography, but they are bits out of the context of the life as a whole, and they do not tell their own tale. It is skating on thin ice to conclude as unsuspectingly as Herr Nordau does from the statue to the statuary, from the novelist to the novel. It is breaking through to conclude insanity—in especial, when the life as a whole (which in such a case is the only rule approaching safety to go by) refutes it. Tried by anything except their published works, the artists of the present day will not, we imagine, appear to be less sane than their predecessors.

Herr Nordau at least has given us no reason to believe the contrary, and it is strange that with the knowledge he possesses of his subject he should have tried to do so. A large part of the literature of morbid psychology is devoted to insanity and genius, and there is scarcely a man of any eminence, from Socrates to Goethe and Napoleon, to go no further, that has not been given, on one ground or another, a place in both categories. It is not supposable that Herr Nordau is not acquainted with this literature, or does not put faith in it; it is of quite as high a character as what he relies on, and much of it is by the same men. But if the bulk of the leaders of the people have at all times been a little unsound, why treat the present situation as unusual? The anomaly would be for the *fin-de-siècle* poets to be sane. Herr Nordau seems to have left this portion of his science in repose. He has made up for it by his diligence in other directions. He has traced the peculiarly shattered condition of the nervous systems of modern artists and men of letters to the railroad and telephone and the pressure of modern life. If the preceding remarks are at all correct, he has here explained a fact which there is reason to believe does not exist.

It is fair to add that this book as a whole is full of entertaining facts that are not accessible to the general reader. It is written with great learning, and with a certain hard, unimaginative good sense. The reader may expect to find in it some reference to almost anything, from Jericho roses and Macaulay's New Zealander to indurating sections of the spinal cord, and treating them with neutrophyllic solution. It rejoices in citation beyond most books we know, and informs us in an illustration that we are inhabited by staphilo-coccus and strepto-coccus; and discusses the nature of the ego and of Hegelian idealism in an aside. If it fails of its purpose, the reason must be found in large measure in Herr Nordau's genuine aversion to any but scientific literature. Of all the authors that he mentions there is not one, we believe, that he praises except for the immediate purpose of heaping up contempt on some one else. He describes with enthusiasm (p. 543 of the translation) a time in the not far distant future when observation will have completed her triumph over imaginative and artistic symbolism, and art and literature will be extinct, and regards all witticism (p. 65) as the flightiness of an enfeebled mind.

"No witticism," he says, with the best faith in the world, "has ever made easier the discovery of any truth. And whoever has tried to hold a serious conversation with a quibbling person of weak mind will have recognized the impossibility of keeping him in check, of getting from him a logical conclusion, or of making him comprehend a fact or a causal connection. When presentations are connected, not merely according to auditory impressions of simple similarity of sound, but also according to the other laws of association, those juxtapositions of words are effected which the ignorant designate as 'original modes of expression,' and which confer upon their originator the reputation of a 'brilliant' conversationalist or author."

Then comes his invariable appeal to the idiots. "Sollier cites some characteristic examples of the 'original' modes of expression of imbeciles. One said to his comrade, 'You look like a piece of barley sugar put out to nurse.'"

The translator deserves great credit for his faithfulness in rendering the spirit of his author. The case was one of peculiar difficulty; the temptation must have been constant to soften down Herr Nordau's too exuberant phrase. As for faithfulness in the less important sense—the rendering of word for word—we have noticed no errors, but have not collated the translation with any large portion of the German text.

MYCENÆAN ART.

History of Art in Primitive Greece: Mycenian Art. From the French of Georges Perrot and Charles Chipiez. In two volumes. 8vo. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Co.

At last the monumental work of MM. Perrot and Chipiez has reached the shores of Greece, and begun the study of its antiquities with the same exhaustiveness which has characterized their description of the arts of the older, Oriental nations. In their introduction to the book before us, they announce that three volumes of the French edition will be devoted to Greek art; which means six of the English translation. Surely it is both a courageous and a patient scholar who is willing to undertake a work upon this scale in the present rapidly developing state of our knowledge, when so much still remains to be learned, and we have in prospect the danger, if not the certainty, that the archæologists of the next generation will, with new materials, upset many of the favorite theories of this. Classical archæology is to-day probably the least exact of all the sciences. We have heard it defined as "the science of upsetting theories," and not undeservedly, since its knowledge has not yet outgrown the experimental stage. Much of what it accepts at present rests upon very flimsy foundations; and although its followers are constantly endeavoring to replace the weak materials by stronger ones, it is far from having attained its final structure yet.

The mere fact that Furtwängler, in his 'Masterpieces,' which was recently reviewed in these columns, has been able to show that there is another possible side to so many of the theories which have long been cherished as established, proves how far we are from the last word on the history of Greek art, and therefore how impossible it is that any book which aims to cover the whole subject should be of permanent value, at least so far as its conclusions are concerned. Indeed, Perrot and Chipiez's work itself offers proof of what we are saying; for, having been written before Dörpfeld's famous excavations at Troy in 1893, the bulk of what it says on the Trojan question is already antiquated, and this forms no inconsiderable portion of the book. We doubt, therefore, whether the time has come for such a work as the authors desire theirs to be, though none the less must we commend the thoroughness and diligence which have been brought to the task, and especially to M. Perrot's portion of it.

The volume on primitive Greece is arranged in the manner which is familiar to those who know the earlier volumes of the 'Histoire de l'Art dans l'Antiquité.' It begins with a long essay upon the country and the people, with their history down to the Doric invasion; after which follows what little there is to tell about the stone age in Greece. Then comes a detailed account of the remains of each of the centres of prehistoric civilization, such as Thera, Troy, Tiryns, Mycenæ, and the less important sites where tombs of that epoch have been found; and these in turn are followed by chapters on the architecture, sculpture, painting, and industrial arts of primitive Greece, with a summary of conclusions at the end. The illustrations are as numerous as in the earlier volumes of the series, and are, as a rule, of the same high quality.

While admiring the comprehensive character of M. Perrot's scholarship, and the suggestive manner in which he treats every subject that he discusses, it seems to us that the defects of the method upon which the History of Art has been planned become more apparent, and we had almost said more irksome, as it approaches familiar ground. Of the majority of the countries thus far included in the series, this has been the only complete and satisfactory manual we possessed, and whatever the authors were willing to give us was welcome; but with Greece the case is different, and we think it would have been wiser to assume that their readers either knew something of the subject or had easy access to such knowledge, unless the authors wished to put forth new theories regarding the topics described. This we do not find to have been done to any

extent, and, as a result, the present book suffers greatly from an appearance of padding. The introductory chapters, for example, tell nothing that has not already been told in a masterly style by Curtius, and in much less space. Indeed, they seem hardly more than an expansion of Curtius's description, with phrases substituted for words, at a corresponding loss of terseness and vividness. And of what use is it nowadays to go into a minute discussion of Lechevalier's theory of Burnabashi as the site of Troy? Yet, in the translation, twenty-five pages are occupied in controverting this and other theories, with a view to proving Hissarlik the most probable site; and after them ten more are devoted to Bötticher's hypothesis of the "Fire necropolis," only to show what most people who have looked into the subject already believe, namely, that it is not worth discussing. In the same way, lengthy descriptions are given to Tiryns, Mycenæ, and Troy, the greater part of which are rendered superfluous by the writings of Schliemann, Dörpfeld, and Schuchhardt, which are translated into both French and English, and to which we do not find that Perrot adds anything new. The need of filling a bulky volume on the first epoch of Greek art seems to have overbalanced all other considerations in the author's mind, and to have been the cause of introducing much matter which the reviewer, at least, would gladly have been spared. As to the general reader, he is fortunately not obliged to take more than he desires, and of this he will find enough to make the book well worth having.

As in the earlier volumes, we believe it is the second half of the book which will be found most interesting and serviceable. This is the first time that a full and comprehensive account of the "Island gems" has appeared in English, and both the description itself and the abundant illustrations accompanying it will make the book especially valuable to students who are seeking knowledge of this most interesting class of prehistoric antiquities. The same is true of the section on pottery, where the different styles of early Greek vases are brought together in a manner which makes a comparison of their points of resemblance and difference easy of comprehension. Although the materials for this study exist, in English, in the works of the writers we have referred to, and a few others, this is the first time they have been brought together in one book with equal fulness. The remains of the other industrial arts are described and illustrated no less satisfactorily, while the utmost possible is made of the scanty remnants of the sculpture of the period, even to the extent of including small terracotta idols, gold masks, reliefs on cups, and other objects which we should have expected to find classified among the smaller arts.

The fertile imagination of M. Chipiez has not the same opportunity it has had in some other volumes of the series, but full advantage has been taken of what there is, and as a result we have restorations of the "tomb of Atreus," both within and without, of the general aspects of Mycenæ and Tiryns, and of a Mycenæan palace, all of which would doubtless have surprised the contemporaries of Agamemnon quite as much as they do us. In his ability to make something out of nothing, and to carry restoration of details far beyond the reach of extant data, Canina is the only rival who has ever approached M. Perrot's collaborator. We must not omit mention of a chapter on the origin of Doric architecture, in which a new theory is put forward, based upon a resemblance which M. Chipiez finds between the fragments of an alabaster decoration from Tiryns, and the later combination of triglyphs and metopes on the Doric frieze. In this chapter no mention is made of Dörpfeld's masterly essay on the same subject, which the new theory is not likely to replace.

As to the translation, we find it difficult to speak without impatience of the ignorant, slovenly, and incompetent manner in which it has been done, contrasting most discreditably with the excellent work of Mr. Walter Armstrong in the earlier volumes. Even the cheap French novels, which are rushed through the press to outdo competing translators, receive better treatment, although in the present book the evidence points not so much to haste as to absolute inability to grapple with the English language, to say nothing of the translator's archæological qualifications. His familiarity with classical literature may be inferred from his spelling of classical names, such as that of Achilles, who appears consistently throughout the book as "Achylles"—except where he is referred to as "Peleide"—Eurymedon, who becomes "Euremedon," Dionysius of Halicarnassos, who retains his French name of "Denys"; or, to turn to geography, "Cape Tenerus," and "Phalarus," which it is hard to believe was meant for Phaleron. He has, moreover, an unaccountable predilection for the diphthong "æ," which turns up in the most unexpected places, and gives us "Rhætium" for Rhoeteum, "Præteus" for Proetus, "Træzen" for Troezene, "Alphæus," "Phenæus," and even "Ælis" (Elis), to select only a few of the many examples of its misuse. In cases where he might properly have used it, however, he frequently neglects his opportunity; and thus, instead of "Mycenæan" we have "Mycenian," both in the title and wherever else the word occurs. Hellas, in his hands, becomes easily a plural noun where occasion requires, as—"by her side were other Hellas" (i. 23), or "between these several Hellas" (i. 24); and we read that "the Thermopylæ were chosen as a meeting-place" (i. 97).

But the peculiarities of the translator are by no means confined to his classical knowledge. His use of plain, every-day English is no less extraordinary, and consequently we read of "the first essayals" of Greek artists; of a "retrocession in the march of progress"; of the hearth as "the ombilic, as it was styled by poets"; of places where "contacts productive of inestimable good had their being"; of earthenware which was not "cast on the wheel"; of "the Mycenian architect, like he of Orchomenos"; of designs "traced by an otiose graver"; and of the "more or less short handles or ears [of vases] which facilitated prehension." These are but a few flowers taken from a garden. Sometimes, in spite of them, the translation runs along with comparative smoothness for a few pages, until we suddenly find ourselves brought up with a sentence like this: "The most distinctive and essential peculiarity of the Greek nation, we may boldly affirm without seeming to ignore what has been attempted by others in this department, the action of all others more especially Hellas' own in forwarding ancient culture, is the foundation, the creation of the township or city" (p. 37). In the more technical portions of the book, and particularly in the chapters on architecture, the incompetency of the translator is most exasperating, as here he becomes almost unintelligible. His constant confusion of the words dome and cupola, and his use of "lining" where he means "facing," are characteristic examples. He speaks of the "stucco lining" of a gravestone, and the "lining" of an architrave, where he means the slab which covered it. The word projection does not seem to exist in his vocabulary, "salience" being his constant substitute for it. Thus a beam or moulding which projects heavily has a "strong salience," and a slight projection is interpreted as a "feeble salience." The effort of reading these chapters is increased by the fact that the etched plates are not numbered, although they are always referred to by numbers in the text; and the citations in the footnotes throughout the book are of the vaguest kind. References such as "Curtius, Hist. of Greece," or "Corpus Inscript. Græc.," without volume, page, or number, are not likely to be of much service to the reader.

In allowing a translation like this to leave their press, the publishers have treated both authors and readers with equal discourtesy. The high price of the book ought to be a guarantee of the best kind of work, and the class of readers for whom it is intended have a right to expect this; but such hack-work as has been applied to these two volumes, if continued through those which are to follow, will very seriously impair the value of what will undoubtedly be the most complete history of Greek art of our generation. To borrow a favorite phrase of the translator, "hence is explained why" we have dwelt upon its shortcomings with more detail than usual.

Half a Century with Judges and Lawyers. By Joseph A. Willard, Clerk of the Superior Court of Massachusetts. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

HALF a century is a long stretch, but Mr. Willard's recollections go even further back, for he remembers Lafayette's visit to Cambridge in 1824. At that time he went to a school taught by Ralph Waldo Emerson, among others, and listened to the preaching of President Kirkland, Dr. Ware, and Rev. Abiel Holmes. Commencement day at Cambridge was then more democratic in its celebration than now, the streets being lined on both sides with candy-stands, and gambling, dice, and roulette-tables, while on the Common there were booths where fiddling and dancing went on, and learned horses and pigs were exhibited. The gamblers and roughs came out from Boston and fought and rioted for three days; but, lest we should boast of our superior refinement of manners, Mr. Willard adds that, "though football was played on the college grounds, there was no slugging and no broken limbs."

When he was a boy, Mr. Willard often went shooting in the Stoneham woods, never returning without half-a-dozen woodcock and as many partridges. Wild pigeons were so numerous around Cambridge that they were caught by hundreds with nets upon the marshes. Twice a day there was a stage between Cambridge and Boston, the fare being 25 cents, and Mr. Willard appears to have been on friendly terms with many stage-drivers, and to have early displayed a fondness for horses which he has always retained. He was fitted for Harvard, but, instead of entering, went to sea, and followed it for a number of years. He thinks Mr. Dana's 'Two Years Before the Mast' a little over-colored, for he made voyages up the Mediterranean and to the East Indies, and the crews in both instances were composed, with one exception, of members of good American families. With the exception of this foreigner every one of these sailors was a man of some education, and per-

fectly competent to navigate a ship to any part of the globe.

Mr. Willard's connection with the courts began in 1846, and has been continuous. By his birth he was placed upon an equality with the better class of practitioners at the bar, and by his capacity and fidelity to his duties he won general esteem. He has something to tell of nearly all the judges and lawyers of note in Boston for the last half-century, and something, too, of many of the humbler members of the bar. Some of his stories are old, and many of them are rather pointless, but not more than enough to make a pleasant neutral background for those that are really good. They are loosely strung together upon a slender historical thread, the constitution of the courts and the changes in their personnel being from time to time noted.

We quote in a random way a few of these anecdotes. Of Judge Shaw Mr. Webster said: "He can do the work of ten men, and at night eat ham enough to raise the market price in Cincinnati." He was rather terrible upon the bench, and his wit was not suggestive of the rapier. To a lawyer who had forgotten that he was retained in a case that was called, and who said that he really knew nothing about it, the Chief Justice replied: "I didn't suppose you knew anything about the case; I only asked you what you would have done with it." Judge Wilde had a lighter touch. He was trying a case when an attorney used some recondite word, and the judge said: "What is that word? I haven't heard it before." Counsel: "Please, your Honor, Mr. Webster has got out a new dictionary with ten thousand new words in it." Judge Wilde: "Mercy on us! I hope Choate won't get hold of it."

Of a certain judicial appointment which was offered, but declined, a nameless judge rather neatly said that better judgment was displayed by him who refused than by the one who made the offer. The late Sidney Bartlett was trying a case not long ago, in which the principal witness against him was a man sixty years old. In his closing argument Mr. Bartlett said: "I think your Honor should take Mr. B.'s testimony with some grains of allowance, as his memory seems to be affected by the inherent weakness of old age." Mr. Bartlett was then eighty-eight years of age. The late John S. Holmes is credited with some sharp sayings concerning judges. Being told upon the death of one of them that it was proposed to erect a monument to him, he observed that it ought to be a bas-relief. Speaking of candidates for a vacant seat on the Superior bench, he said that Judge —— ought to have it, as he had such an eminently judicial gait. Another judge was holding court, and the sun shone upon the back of his head. Holmes whispered to the clerk: "A beautiful illustration of Scripture—the light shineth upon the darkness and the darkness comprehendeth it not."

We could go on indefinitely with our quotations, but it would be hardly fair to Mr. Willard, and we will close our notice by repeating a very pretty compliment which was paid him in such a way as to justify him in including it in his repertory. Mr. George A. Torrey, in closing a case for the defendant, said:

"Now, gentlemen of the jury, you see that this writ is signed by my friend Mr. Willard, the clerk of this court. The *ad damnum*, as we call it, the amount claimed in this writ, is $5,000. There is a legend in this court-house that the jurors think Mr. Willard would not sign a paper summoning a defendant into court to answer unless he knew the plaintiff to be a respectable man and entitled to recover the amount sued for, and that Mr. Willard actually wants the plaintiff to recover what he asks. Now I wish to disabuse your minds of this. Mr. Willard signs all those writs, and we lawyers, when we issue one, put in what amount we choose, and Mr. Willard knows nothing of it."

Would that the clerks of all our courts might have characters that would make such legends concerning them credible.

A Book of Elizabethan Lyrics. Selected and edited by Felix E. Schelling, Professor of English in the University of Pennsylvania. [The Athenæum Press Series.] Boston: Ginn & Co.

Prof. Schelling's anthology of Elizabethan lyrics is made with excellent taste. The word Elizabethan, as was fitting, is construed in a broad sense, so as to include the half-century from the publication of 'The Paradise of Dainty Devises' (1576) to the death of Fletcher (1625). The word "lyric," too, has been liberally interpreted, but we find very little in the collection which could have been omitted without loss. Even "Farewell, ye gilded follies," doubtfully ascribed to Raleigh, who has fathered so many *adespota*, is in so characteristic an Elizabethan mood that it was certainly better to admit it by stretching the term "lyric" a little than to mutilate the volume by leaving it out. A great majority of the selections, however, are lyrical in the strictest acceptation. The great Elizabethans are amply represented, and, at the same time, much pains has apparently been taken to give due prominence to the lesser singers of the great song-writing age. The volumes of Bell, Bullen, and others have been of material assistance in this direction; but Prof. Schelling's collection is by no means a repetition of the work of any of his predecessors. It covers more ground, and has been prepared with greater care and a severer literary discrimination.

The texts are interpreted and illustrated by a body of scholarly notes. These, summing up as they do the results arrived at by former editors, and adding a great deal that is quite new, not only furnish everything that the student and the reader for pleasure can need, but will have to be consulted by all future investigators in this department of our literature. They are fully indexed, and there are also indexes of first lines and of authors and editors. The Introduction to the volume consists of two chapters, "The Elizabethan Lyric" and "Elizabethan Lyrical Measures," both well done. Prof. Schelling's monograph on Elizabethan verse-criticism, which appeared some years ago in the Publications of the University of Pennsylvania, may be read in connection with the second chapter. The Introduction is a welcome addition to the materials available for the critical and scientific study of English literature and English versification. The whole volume is creditable alike to the editor and to the series to which it belongs. Fully meeting the exigencies of the student, it is so arranged as at the same time to answer all the purposes of those readers who are in quest of intellectual enjoyment and find scholarly apparatus a bore.

Recollections of a Military Life. By General Sir John Adye, G.C.B., R.A. Macmillan. 8vo, pp. 382, with maps and illustrations.

This very attractive book gives an excellent means of comparing the life of a British officer with the experience of those who serve in other armies. No other military men in the world have so varied a career as English soldiers. This is well shown in General Adye's case. After a long and weary service in subaltern positions during the "long peace," he was assigned to duty in the military staff at Lord Raglan's headquarters at the beginning of the Crimean war. His personal narrative of that time is an excellent check on Kinglake's History, and gives many incidents, grave and gay, which lend life to the story of the siege of Sebastopol. Peace with Russia being made, he was sent to India and served both in the tropical southern region of Madras and in a lively mountain campaign on the Afghan border in the north. He has been successful in giving characteristic features of this service and an intelligent discussion of the Indian problem from his point of view. Returning home, he had a tour of duty at the Woolwich Artillery School and as Director of Artillery at the War Office, where he worked under Mr. Cardwell, then Minister for War, in the reformed organization of the army and its administration. After this, the troubles in Egypt arose, and he was sent out as chief of staff in General Wolseley's army.

Intellectually alert and physically active, General Adye profited by these opportunities to form opinions and to gather the fruits of experience, so that his comments on events and his discussions of policies are alike valuable. His style is plain and clear, without assumption or dogmatism, and we follow him sympathetically, finding him an instructive and persuasive guide in the history of affairs in which he played an important part.

He is a draughtsman of no mean ability, and his sketches in India ink are attractive illustrations of his story. Some of them, like the drawing of Lord Raglan's headquarters on the Chersonese, are of real historical interest; and others, like the outpost in Bootan, with the Himalayas in the background, have artistic merit. The book is altogether a welcome addition to the list of English works on military subjects.

Czar and Sultan. By Archibald Forbes. Scribners. 1894.

It is a pity that Mr. Archibald Forbes has chosen the above catch-penny and misleading title for his interesting book. The Sultan does not appear in it at all, the Czar in only two or three rather striking, if melodramatic scenes. The work is supposed to be the tale told to his nephews by a Scotchman who served in his youth as an assistant correspondent during the Russo-Turkish war. It is drawn largely from the writer's own exciting experiences, as well as from the accounts written at the time by himself and his friends of what they heard and witnessed. We are not quite sure whether it is meant for boys or not. If not, we could dispense with the pretence of a story with an introduction in the style of 'Lorna Doone,' and occasional little digressions into the family matters of the hero. On the other hand, thrilling as many pages are, others are over the head of the youthful reader. The geographical and strategical descriptions are by no means simple, and the whole book can be thoroughly appreciated only by one familiar with the general course of the war, likewise with the chief characters that took part in it.

Still, for both young and old lovers of battle-scenes, 'Czar and Sultan' contains much that is of interest. From first to last we feel the pleasure of a work whose author knows what he is describing and knows how to describe it. Scenes and characters stand out vividly before us. Again and again we are made to realize

what the war meant, the heroism of the Russian soldiers, the fearful and frequently unnecessary sufferings and privations they underwent, the incapacity of many of their leaders, the splendid fighting qualities of the Turks, etc., etc. It is hard to choose which one prefers from the numerous excellent passages. The one on page 68, too long to be quoted, conveys a most vivid impression of combat. The account of the September battle of Plevna is also a fine piece of writing, though not equal to MacGahan's description of the same events published in the *Daily News* correspondence, and from which an extract is taken. Mr. Forbes gives us frequent glimpses of Skobeleff, and some sort of an insight into the brilliant, if wayward, genius of the man, and the causes of his extraordinary success. Here is a sketch of him at first meeting:

"I thought then as a lad, as I have never ceased to think, that I never looked on a grander man. Over six feet in height, straight as a pine, the head carried high with a frank gallant fearlessness, square across the broad shoulders, deep in the chest, slender of waist, clean of flank, the muscular, graceful, supple figure set off to perfection by the white frock coat with the decorations and gold lace on it, Skobeleff, with his chivalrous bearing, looked a genial king of men. . . . No wonder that soldiers, friends, and women loved him! It was impossible to know him, to have him smile on you with that sweet, grave smile of his, and not to love him" (p. 16).

The portrait of Osman Pasha is less flattering and in contradiction to the opinion of his Russian captors:

"The officers of the staff of the Grand Duke Nicholas professed themselves struck with the power, energy, and determination disclosed in the features of Osman. 'It is a grand face; it more than fulfils my ideal of the man!' was the comment of Col. Gaillard, the French military attaché. Skobeleff was not less enthusiastic. 'It is the face,' he exclaimed, 'of a great soldier!' They may have been right. For my part, in Osman's lowering brow and heavy jowl I could discern no other expression than that of stolid, dogged resolution. To me there was no evidence of high intellect in the coarse, sullen features. It is true that there was a certain pathos in the dark, liquid eye, but as a whole I saw nothing distinctive in Osman's aspect. He was simply a Turk of the old unregenerate stamp—brave, merciless, and brutal, the type familiar to any who knows the Turkish race. He was a large-framed, thickset man, apparently of middle age—there was no streak of gray in the short thick black beard which covered the lower part of his face and but partly hid the thick sensual lips" (pp. 277-278).

There are many other passages which we should like to quote, and pages which could bear being repeated *in extenso*. They make the work well worth reading, even if the general effect is rather scrappy. The volume closes with a fine tribute to MacGahan.

Un Siècle de Modes Féminines. 1794–1894. Paris: G. Charpentier & E. Fasquelle.

Costume of Colonial Times. By Alice Morse Earle. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE first of these two books is entertaining on account of an undeniable prettiness and vivacity which could have been imparted to it only in the vivacious capital from which it comes. It is impossible, nevertheless, in the literal sense of the word, to commend it to the notice of the gentle reader. For once in a way that highly apostrophized person, strictly considered as such, has been left out of account in the composition of a volume. A date, it is true, is here to be read at the foot of each florid page, but otherwise there exists not a vestige of the sort of printed matter that would ordinarily fill it. Instead, one, two, or several, as the case may be, lay feminine figures flaunt their costumes—or their partial lack of costumes, as the case may also be—on two hundred shiny cream-white surfaces, gay with the flounces and furbelows that the brief editors' preface announces in italics as printed exclusively "en couleurs." The impression that these pretty insipidities in crude polychrome will make on the beholder's eye is very much a question of the state of the beholder's mind. An unqualified admirer of the female sex—for a few such still survive—may very well wonder why, when women can make themselves as charming as they here occasionally appear in effigy, they should yet be perverse enough to disfigure themselves as they are oftener here also shown to do; while their stern censors, who are busy planting and watering reforms in this generation that the next may reap the increase, will easily find, on one page or another, texts ready made to their hands. A neutral observer could hardly put the volume to a better use than to let it serve as illustration to the probable and approximate garb of any of his favorite heroines of romance who may happen to have lived between the years 1794 and 1894. Whatever the point of view, however, from which it may be regarded, serious consideration need hardly be given it.

The other of the books named leans to the view—usually rejected by kindred volumes—that the apparel oft proclaims the man. If lovely woman has sometimes stooped to folly in the matter of clothes, she has had, in the past, a rival who has once in a while outstripped her in her excess of care for personal appearance. Much of the interest of Mrs. Earle's pages depends, in fact, upon the comparatively novel connection in which they present, gravely and seriously in their turn, names familiar in the grave and serious annals of the time they treat of. Even a judge, a governor, or a father of his country may unconsciously disclose some traits of elemental human nature in making his will, or in writing out an order for his tailor or his London haberdasher; and it is upon documents such as these, together with eighteenth-century newspapers and court records, that Mrs. Earle has drawn for her material. There are, accordingly, scattered through her pages, bits of familiar biography or glimpses of intimate domesticity wherewith to eke out personal acquaintance with colonial worthies, though such acquaintance, it should be noted, would have been greatly facilitated to any reader coveting it by the addition of an index of proper names.

The exact nature of the volume might with advantage, moreover, have been more clearly explained in the title. Upon examination its contents prove to be in the unsuspected form of a glossary. Forty pages are devoted to a "history" of colonial dress, while the remaining two hundred offer no consecutive reading longer than the six pages given to "wig," or the four or five given to "ring," "lace," or "hat." But the references provided are ample and interesting, and the definitions probably as complete as the vague and shifting nature of the material would permit. A verbal antiquarian might easily find additions to his store of curios in such terms as "liripipes," "orrice," "samare," or "sagathy"; and, as is suggested by the "foreword," portrayers of old colonial days, "not only in colors but in words," may be saved from anachronisms by consultation with a glossary such as this. Its transitions of subject need prove no obstacle even to continuous perusal with the class of persons of lively intellect who are able to find profitable and interesting reading in a page of the dictionary.

Europe, 1598–1715. By Henry Offley Wakeman, M.A., Fellow of All Souls College, Oxford. [Periods of European History.] Macmillan.

IN this volume Mr. Wakeman has provided not so much a history of the period as a running comment upon its main events and leading characters, presupposing the reader to possess already a fair knowledge of the facts. The style is vivacious and often polished, yet the excessive personification of nations and the tendency to epigram make its brilliancy at times seem too artificial. The most serious criticism we have to make on the book is its restriction to the field of international politics and dynastic rivalries; for, apart from the excellent brief sketch of the counter-Reformation and a page here and there on national finance, no attention is paid to the intellectual movements, industrial changes, and the development of commerce, or, at best, only enough to betray the limitations of the author's reading. For example: the *assiento* of the peace of Utrecht, as is well known, gave England the monopoly of supplying the Spanish-American colonies with negro slaves. Mr. Wakeman takes nearly twice as many words to explain it, and then leaves out the essential facts which to-day give color and interest to the transaction. He describes it "as the right to trade, under strict limitations, with certain towns in Spanish waters set apart for the purpose." This does not specify whether the towns were in Spain or America. The fact, as he states it, is of no more value to the modern student than any stray fragment of statistics. It is destitute of historical interest. The fact that has historical interest is that a breach was forced in the wall of Spanish colonial monopoly, and that not two centuries ago the exclusive right of supplying the Spanish colonies with slaves was secured by England as a diplomatic triumph, and with none of the moral reprobation which would have been visited upon it at any time during the last century. Mr. Wakeman has evidently paid no attention to the colonial interests of Europe, for he declares that, by the English Navigation Act of 1651, "the policy was first enunciated which was to govern the relations of the great maritime powers to their colonies for a century and a half—the policy, namely, which regarded colonies as mere feeders to the mother country" (p. 226).

When Mr. Wakeman states that the Pope's influence in the international politics of Europe ceased in 1648, the utterance is to be explained probably as an exaggeration; but what is to be said of the assertion on p. 2, that "the principal States of Europe at the present time are in all essentials absolute monarchies, and these monarchies are as absolute now as they were then [*i. e.*, 1789], with the two exceptions of Italy, which did not then exist, and France, which is now a republic, but has been everything in turn and nothing long"? We have, perhaps, given the defects of Mr. Wakeman's book undue prominence. Its literary merits will undoubtedly secure it an extensive reading; but as he has chosen to construct his work on old-fashioned conventional lines, and largely to ignore those phases of history which seem of especial importance to students to-day, it is inevitable that he should fail to interest them to the extent which might be expected from his powers as a writer.

Molluscs. By the Rev. A. H. Cooke; Brachiopods (Recent) by A. E. Shipley; Brachiopods (Fossil) by F. R. C. Reed. [The Cambridge Natural History, Vol. III.] Macmillan. 1895. 8vo, pp. xiv, 535, illustrated.

FROM popular series of works on natural history, which have so greatly multiplied of late years, expert readers have mostly ceased to expect anything more than a fair approximation to the usual principles of classification and a readable summary of facts long known to specialists. It is, therefore, an agreeable surprise to find in the present volume an account of the mollusks exhibiting real freshness and even some originality of treatment, and marked by a distinct endeavor to gather the most recent data. It is true that the work is done in the main on the old lines, and makes no pretensions to be a manual for experts, but Mr. Cooke has industriously gleaned from many sources the more recent additions to our knowledge of the habits and anatomy of mollusks, and has succeeded in preparing an account which offers to his readers a full and interesting description of all that most of them are likely to wish for in a work of this character. It would be easy to find points of detail affording opportunities for criticism, but, on the whole, the work has been well done. The geographical matters, in which English works are especially likely to show weakness, seem exceptionally accurate, though the author does canonize old Juan de Fuca without the assistance of the Church. Recent publications on the development of the brachiopods have made such a long step in advance that it is not surprising to find the classification of these animals adopted by Mr. Reed somewhat behind the times. There seems no good reason for separating the treatment of this group into two parts, recent and fossil, since, biologically, no line can be drawn between them. However, the more important facts known in regard to the embryology and anatomy of these animals are well stated by Mr. Shipley, and his general conclusions as to their relations are sensible and just.

The systematic part of both monographs suffers from the necessity of condensation and the endeavor to apply to general classification principles founded in some instances on a too slender morphological basis. But this is a defect which only time and more extended researches will enable naturalists to correct. For the present, the compilers have given us a very readable work, very nearly up to date, and it will doubtless have a wide and extended usefulness. The illustrations, though not especially well done, are largely new and original, and the book has an excellent index.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abrams, Albert. Transactions of the Antiseptic Club. E. B. Treat. $1.75.
Boissier, Gaston. L'Afrique Romaine: Promenades Archéologiques en Algérie et en Tunisie. Paris: Hachette; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Compton, Herbert. A Free Lance in a Far Land. Cassell. $1.
Dane, Daniel. Is She Not a Woman? Cassell. 50 cents.
Daudet, Alphonse. Fromont Junior and Risler Senior. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Everest, Rev. W. F. The Gift of the Keys, and Other Essays. London: Rivington, Percival & Co.
Forrest, Mrs. Dearest. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
Garnett, Prof. J. M. Hayne's Speech. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 12 cents.
Hertza, Theodor. Entrückt in die Zukunft: Social-politischer Roman. Berlin: F. Dümmler; New York: Westermann.
Lavisse, Prof. Ernest, and Rambaud, Prof. Alfred. Histoire Générale, du IVe Siècle à nos jours. Tome V. Les Guerres de Religion. 1559-1648. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Meade, Mrs. L. T. Out of the Fashion. Cassell. 50 cents.
Miles, A. H. One Thousand and One Anecdotes. Whittaker. $1.50.
Optic, Oliver. In the Saddle. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Patterson, C. B. Beyond the Clouds. The Author. $1.
Patterson, Capt. Howard. Naval Dictionary. New York Nautical College. $1.
Romanes, G. J. Thoughts on Religion. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Russell, W. H. The Great War with Russia. George Routledge & Sons.
Rutherfurd, Livingston. Family Records and Events. Dodd, Mead & Co. $12.
Sardou, Victorien. Gismonda. Street & Smith. 25 cents.
Scudder, Miss Vida D. The Life of the Spirit in the Modern English Poets. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 2, 1895.

The Week.

THE decision of the Supreme Court to hear a reargument of the income-tax case before a full bench has given general satisfaction. The judgment of the 8th of April left the matter in an exceedingly unsatisfactory condition for the public and the Government, and in a by no means creditable one for the court. The passage of two judges from the negative to the affirmative side, in the middle of the judgment, without any explanation, was unfortunate in many ways. It may be right and proper that, when the court is equally divided, there should be no deliverance, but when two judges who have already passed and spoken on one part of an act take a different view of another part, but give no reason why, it makes poor laymen feel uncomfortable. Then the *stare decisis* doctrine, on which the Government took its stand so boldly, was not a pleasant one for the thinking portion of the American public. It was not agreeable to hear that an interpretation of the Constitution made four or five years after its adoption, in a totally different world from ours, was binding on all the judges a hundred or it might be two hundred years later. One of the great glories of Lord Mansfield is in having laid in England the foundations of commercial law; but suppose he had said that the fathers of English jurisprudence knew nothing about bills of exchange, or the custom of merchants, and that he therefore was not going to take any notice of them—how would he stand with this generation? And yet the Supreme Court has left us as regards the income tax very much where Englishmen would have been if Mansfield had said the only kind of property known to English law was real property. Our judges said one hundred years ago that land was the only source of income of which the Court would take notice. Since then new sources of income by the hundred have arisen, and a community of people, living by salaries, larger than the whole American nation in 1795, has come into existence. Surely we ought to be able to get the Court to explain to us what the Constitution has to say about salaries as income. Judge Miller's dictum, that a tax on salaries or professional incomes is "an excise," because the man who pays the excise can always charge it to his clients or employers, sounds very like the doctrine that the foreigner pays the customs duty; that is, what the men of the seventeenth century used to call "a merrie conceit."

It is hard to believe that a few weeks ago there were people in positions of influence in this country who were screaming for a war with Spain on account of the *Alliança* affair, and who could not even wait to hear whether Spain avowed or disavowed the act of the officer who fired the shot. Yet it is a fact, an amazing fact, that after Spain had disavowed the act and had promised investigation and reparation, a Senator of the United States expressed his regret that she had not refused satisfaction, and thereby given us an excuse for fighting her and seizing Cuba. The whole affair is now amicably settled. Spain finds that the commander of her gunboat exceeded his orders; she therefore disciplines him, disavows and apologizes for his unauthorized act, and promises that nothing of the kind shall occur again. Probably the only lasting mourner will be Senator Frye. As to the war correspondents, they can recoup themselves out of Nicaragua or Venezuela, and, when everything else fails, they can rely upon Mrs. Dominis, the ex-Queen of the Hawaiian Islands. The treasonable conduct of this woman in waving her handkerchief to the returning roadworkers has been somewhat obscured by the events at Corinto, but it is not too late to return to that subject.

We are often accused unwarrantably of throwing slights and disrepute on our own profession of "journalism," and denying its claims to human respect. But we ask any educated and intelligent man who would censure us to peruse the foreign articles of the *Tribune* on Nicaragua and Venezuela during the last two or three months. We do not think there is a more puzzling phenomenon in American society to-day than that the writer of the following (which we take from Sunday's issue) should actually be paid for it, and should be presented to the country as a professor of international law and public morals. Does not its appearance in a journal of old standing and the organ of a great party not only make journalism ridiculous, but make the American press contemptible in the eyes of instructed mankind?

> "There have been unpatriotic censors of American diplomatic methods who have strenuously objected to the active use made of the navy during recent years. They have been horrified by the preparations for coercing Chili after the Valparaiso outrage to the *Baltimore's* men, by the landing of marines at Honolulu, and by the concentration of a strong naval squadron in Rio de Janeiro. What would these querulous critics have said if the United States Government had assessed a bill of damages against a foreign state, demanded payment at sight, and sent a fleet to the chief port to enforce collection by seizure of the customs revenues? They would probably have characterized the performance as essentially piratical, and have condemned the outrage as a crime against civilization. England has no right in law or in morals to occupy foreign territory, to exercise sovereignty, and to seize revenues in payment of an indemnity levied ex parte on the 'stand-and-deliver' principle. Because England does this thing, and President Cleveland tolerates and sanctions it, these cavilling censors may be reconciled to it temporarily as one of the necessary details of imperial policy; but what a rub-a-dub of abuse there would be if the American navy were employed in that way!"

The writer of this is probably a young fellow who evidently not only has no knowledge either of the history of international law or of its rules, but has not heard of its existence. Had he done so, he would have been a little cautious in attacking the "unpatriotic censors" and giving his reasons. But he not only attacks them, but gives his own droll explanation of their error. He has not the least idea, any more than a French peasant or a Tennessee miner, of any difference between the Chilian or Honolulu case and the Nicaraguan case, and he lets it out with childlike simplicity. Now, these are the things which create popular contempt for journalism and make men ashamed to follow it as a calling. There is no calling like it in the indifference of its professors to excellence, accuracy, or improvement. In the legal, or medical, or clerical professions people try to employ the best men, the men who know, who can be trusted, who are accurate, who can predict; and this acts as a constant stimulus to all the members to do better, to be right, to be equipped for emergencies. In journalism any little man like this "young diplomatist" of the *Tribune* is picked up at a small salary, and allowed to pour forth column after column, month after month, of howling nonsense, displaying the crassest ignorance of his subject and the most shameless indifference to his own intellectual reputation, on the sole condition that he shall try to discredit somebody, or give pain to somebody, or make somebody besides himself ridiculous. What makes all this the more mysterious is that no metropolitan journal, certainly, has the smallest difficulty in getting competent men to discuss questions of international law. The cities and the colleges are full of them. They are passed by, and journalism made silly, by a desire to annoy the Administration and bring it into disrepute, not with intelligent people, but with fools and ignoramuses. In no other profession could men of any standing be got to degrade their own calling in this way, and that is why "the newspapers" are a good deal of a laughing-stock.

The Washington correspondents must be right a part of the time, as they contradict one day what they said the day before; and one of their stories, which has an air of verisimilitude about it, is that

Nicaragua would never have refused to pay England the $75,000 demanded had she not supposed that the United States would back her up in big-brotherly style. This gives us a hint of the hot water the squabbling Central and South Americans would keep us in all the while if the Monroe doctors had their way. Every time they felt like insulting a European power, every time one of their mushroom Presidents undertook to strengthen himself at home by doubling up his small-boy fist at big Great Britain, we should have to interfere to make the sacred soil of America a secure refuge for such antics. This possibility was clearly seen and pointed out by Calhoun in 1848, when he said of the theory of some of the Monroe doctrinaires of that day, that "it puts it in the power of other countries on this continent to make us a party to all their wars." When one considers the enormous aptitude of South Americans for war, and reflects how this would become practically infinite if they had to risk neither their own skins nor their own purses, it is clear that we shall have peace and comfort only when they are given clearly to understand that they must settle their own quarrels. If we have a protectorate over the half-civilized republics of Central America, we must be answerable for their conduct to foreigners and to each other. It follows logically that we must assume all pecuniary obligations which are made the basis of foreign claims against them. It would be much easier for us to pay $75,000 for Nicaragua than to go to war or even to go into a court of arbitration on her account. But think of the consequences of either paying or arbitrating for the half-breed governments of Central and South America. Money is what they all stand most in need of. Money is what they are always boiling with revolutions for. If Uncle Sam once becomes their paymaster, they will never be out of foreign difficulties as long as the world stands.

The attempt to commit the Democratic party of Illinois to the free coinage of silver a year in advance of the time for holding the State convention, is so obviously a cheat that the opponents of the policy have determined to split the party rather than submit to it. They have accordingly sent circulars throughout the State recommending Democrats to pay no attention to the call, and to treat the proposed convention as a bogus affair altogether. According to all party usages and rules, the platform of the last national convention governs the Democrats of Illinois and of every other State. Both this platform and the last one adopted by the Democrats of Illinois themselves are diametrically opposed to the free coinage of silver except by international agreement. Neither the one nor the other of these platforms can be overturned except by conventions called in the usual way and held at the usual time. The only effect of adopting extraordinary ways and times will be to disrupt a party which is in a minority now, and which will be battered out of all shape if this cheating policy is persisted in. The blatherskites and Populists who have secured a majority of the State committee, or rather a majority of a quorum, do not dare to take the chances of a campaign of education in their own party. They want to take advantage of a temporary craze produced by a combination of cunning lies and funny pictures called 'Coin's Financial School,' before there has been any opportunity to answer them. If they had any sense at all as party managers, they would be glad that a whole year intervenes before the regular time comes for holding the convention, so that public opinion may settle down to some solid basis of facts before platform-making becomes necessary.

Reports come from Chicago that the silver wing of the Illinois Democrats is "going over into the Populist camp." A basis for belief in this story is found in the announcement that the leader of the Populist party in Chicago will be sent in the delegation from his ward to the snap convention that has been called by the free-coinage men. It is to be hoped on every account that such a fusion will be carried through, and that all of the silver lunatics will thus get together in a single organization. The best thing that could possibly happen to the country would be to have all the people who believe in free coinage, whether they have been Republicans, Democrats, or Populists, get together on one side, and those who believe in sound money on the other. The movement for the snap Democratic convention in Illinois promises to hasten this result, and, while it may temporarily injure Democratic prospects, it will in the end prove a good thing all around to have the issue thus sharply made.

April 24 was a bad day for the 16-to-1 silverites. In the first place, the Iroquois Club of Chicago, which holds the same relation to the Democratic party there that the Manhattan Club does in New York, voted by more than two to one that the free coinage of silver "would be most unfortunate at this time, when signs of returning prosperity and renewed confidence are multiplying." The silverites tried to attach amendments of one kind or another to this resolution, but were regularly voted down. That was a very poor showing of practical results for Coin's Financial School, seeing that it was open all last year within a stone's throw of the clubhouse and had the attendance of the leading Iroquois. But this rebuff was not so bad as the one received at the Democratic conference at Des Moines, Ia., where a resolution was adopted declaring that "it is the sense of this conference that the two monetary metals should be kept at a parity." At this conference the 16-to-1 silverites wanted to hold an early State convention, in order to take advantage of the temporary flurry produced by "Coin's" picture-book. The conference, however, voted to put it off to August 7. In addition to these things, Congressman McCreary of Kentucky, who is a candidate for the Senate in opposition to Mr. Blackburn, declared himself unalterably opposed to free coinage, except as part of an international agreement, and Senator Brice of Ohio made a similar declaration.

The Waring episode has been very useful in bringing in information about the composition of the Grand Army, but there is very little of it which most people did not know already. The story which a well-known New Yorker tells in the *Evening Post* of 540 desertions out of 800 men in one regiment accounts for at least 540 of Waring's Grand Army assailants. We do not believe that any organization that has ever existed has done more to diffuse over a wide area, and among the plain people of the community, light views of the crimes of perjury and fraud and misrepresentation, when committed against the Government. It will take more than one generation to eliminate the pension poison from American morals. There is hardly a village in the land which does not contain two or three men who have lied about their careers and their ailments, and got others to lie on their behalf, for the purpose of extracting a paltry sum from the public treasury. The old theologians used to talk much of "national sins," but we doubt if, in the history of any country, a sin could be discovered more truly deserving the name of "national" than the pension fraud. Its guilt has been deepened, too, by the fact that it had its instigation or temptation in some of the noblest feelings of the human heart—love of country, gratitude to its defenders, tenderness for the memory of friends and relatives who had died in its cause. The deserters and bounty-jumpers and bummers who have traded on these emotions are very like the impostors who, on account of a lost purse, beg a dollar to enable them to reach the bedside of a dying mother. The funniest episode in their career is, undoubtedly, the demand made on Mayor Strong that he shall use the offices of the city government to protect them from criticism—that is, that he shall stop street-cleaning because somebody has called bummers bummers. The only protection to which these worthies are entitled is that afforded by the laws of the land and their own powers of vituperation.

The chief distinction of the Grand Army—one which nobody can deny it—is that of being the only political organization in history whose main object was the procuring of a cash dividend for each mem-

ber. Every other political party of which we have any record has professed in some manner to seek the happiness or profit of the community at large, and its own solely as a sharer in the general weal.. The Grand Army, however, makes no such pretensions. It says frankly that it will turn any party out of power, and any functionary out of office, who does not settle with it on the basis of monthly payments to each member "on the instalment plan." How this will affect the national credit or the public revenues, it says openly, it does not care in the least. It puts the country to ransom just as the condottieri did the small states of Italy in the Middle Ages. "We saved you," it says to us all; "now settle." We could, however, stand this impudence, but to ask that, besides paying, we must not inquire what we are paying for, or whether our captors were ever under fire in our behalf, is a little too much. We will pay, but we will not keep silent. We will not erect bounty-jumpers, deserters, skulkers, malingerers, and pension cheats into a sacred class of whom nobody must speak irreverently. They must take popular contempt along with their monthly "divvy."

It ought to surprise nobody to learn that civil-service reform is in peril at the hands of the Legislature, that not only is the bill which has been drafted to extend its operation in danger, but that the prospect is favorable for the passage of another bill which removes from the control of the civil-service regulations more than three-fourths of those now subject to them. This bill proposes to except from the operation of the rules "positions the compensation of which does not exceed $4 per day." An analysis shows that this would put back under the spoils system 67 per cent. of the places now subject to examination in this city, 85 per cent. in Brooklyn, and 86 per cent. in the State service; while most of the higher positions would also be affected, as these are generally filled by promotion from lower grades. Practically this would be about the same thing as repealing the civil-service law. The Republican majority in both houses is composed almost entirely of men who have no sympathy with reform of any kind, and who are out of all patience with a law which stands in the way of a "clean sweep" of all the offices and the filling of them with men who will not have to show any other qualification than political activity. The Governor can be depended upon to veto any bill nullifying the present law in part or in whole, but he is not likely to have influence enough to get the scope of the law extended. The literary men to whom is assigned the work of constructing the platform in the next Republican State convention will have a tremendous task on their hands when they come to treat of the work of this Legislature. The promises of last year's platform have all been broken, and a new lot will need to be invented which will not be so absurd on their face as to make the whole State laugh at the sight of them.

The passage of the Platt bi-partisan police bill by the Assembly was, as Mr. Pavey's speech showed, a genuine Platt victory. It was therefore a rebuke to the Committee of Seventy and a defiance to the "whole gang of reformers," for the real police-reform bills which these representatives of the city asked to have passed were not even considered. The bill which is now before the mayor for a hearing is in no sense a reform measure. It is, on the contrary, much more objectionable than the present law, for it engrafts upon our statutes for the first time, so far as police administration is concerned, the bi-partisan principle to which we owe all the police corruption, blackmail, and scandal of the past thirty years. Heretofore the principle has been put in operation without requirement of law. If this Platt bill be made law, its application will thenceforth be mandatory. The mayor will of course give a full and free hearing to all parties on this subject, and we have no doubt that the opponents of the bill will see to it that their side is well presented. It will be interesting to see who appears for the other side. Nobody advocated the bill at Albany save Platt and his personal agents. If there are other advocates of it, men who really represent sentiment in this city, they ought to appear before the mayor now.

Mr. Theodore Roosevelt has accepted Mayor Strong's offer of a police commissionership, and the city is to be congratulated on securing his services. He will be the best man in the Police Board since Thomas C. Acton and Joel B. Erhardt. After the departure of those men from office, the practice sprang up of appointing to the board seedy adventurers and professional politicians without any reputable business, men who had not been able to earn a living in any walk of life save that of politics. In selecting Mr. Roosevelt, and, before him, Col. Andrews, Mayor Strong has returned to the better practice of earlier days. Both these men have had no difficulty in obtaining positions and salaries on their merits. They meet what we have repeatedly urged should be the final test in all applications for public office, ability to show that private individuals or corporations have been willing to pay them salaries in reputable business. This test neither Murray, nor Kerwin, nor "Jimmy" Martin, nor "Johnny" McClave, nor Sheehan, nor any others of the long line of bi-partisans could meet. We are confident that with Messrs. Andrews and Roosevelt in the board, especially if the mayor is able to find two other equally fit men to work with them, a new era in police administration will be opened. Neither one of these men can be used for political purposes, and both are well qualified by experience and disposition to conduct the department in a manner most advantageous to the public—that is, intelligently and honestly.

Something ought to be done to the lawyers who abuse their office as members of the bar in trying to save criminals from the death sentence in this State. The appeals in Buchanan's case to the British Minister, to the Supreme Court in Washington, to federal judges for a habeas corpus, and then to the Supreme Court on appeal, are all really modes of advertising the counsellor. They are not meant to help the prisoner. The lawyer knows well they cannot help him, though they may be instrumental in getting money out of his friends. They are really ways of making the lawyer notorious, and they ought to be punished or repressed in some manner by the Supreme Court. A lawyer who "carries on" in this way, is what a quack is in the medical profession, and ought to be restrained of his liberty. Either he is too ignorant to practise at the bar, or he pretends to be ignorant for purposes of extortion. The subject is a good one for discussion at the Bar Association. These doings help to bring the administration of justice into greater and greater contempt, though, Heaven knows, the difficulty of getting a jury to try a corrupt policeman, as shown in McLaughlin's case, has already brought it pretty low in popular estimation.

The Democratic managers in Tennessee have done their best to turn over the State to the Republicans in next year's election. Last November, through Democratic indifference and disgust over the wretched behavior of a Democratic Congress, and after a vigorous Republican campaign, the Democratic Governor was defeated for reëlection by about 700 votes. If the plurality had been 700 the other way, nobody would have thought of disputing the result. But the Democrats controlled the new Legislature, and the managers resolved, in defiance of all precedent and without warrant from the Constitution, to throw out enough Republican votes to count in Gov. Turney for another term, allowing him to hold over while an investigation was made which should furnish some show of excuse for their course. The expected report has now been made by the legislative committee, and its acceptance is assured. The Democrats will thus avoid losing the governorship this time, but the indignation over the course adopted by the machine is so intense and widespread in the party that the Republicans will stand an excellent chance of carrying the State next year by a majority too large to be questioned. The counting-out game has been tried repeatedly in this country, both North and South, during the past twenty years, and there has never been a case when it did not react upon the party which resorted to it.

THE GRAND ARMY'S PROGRESS.

THERE has been a mighty thundering about the Grand Army in the past few days, but we have heard no still small voice asking, What are the facts? Pensioners and would-be pensioners, veterans with votes to sell, and legislators and would-be legislators eager to buy them, have been thrown into convulsions of noble rage at the mere hint that their organization stood for anything but the purest and most unselfish patriotism. To the question whether the Grand Army is what it professes to be, no one has risen to speak. Has it fallen away altogether from its original objects? Has it become a spoils-seeking, cash-hunting corporation, and ceased wholly to be an association for mutual benefit and the preservation of patriotic memories?

We are able to answer these questions out of the records of the Grand Army itself. A little volume has just been published by Fowler & Wells, called 'A Diary of the Grand Army of the Republic,' and in it are given the resolutions passed at the various encampments of the order from the beginning. Simply by following these along from year to year, one may trace the perversion of the Army to base ends, and out of its own official utterances show what a veritable rake's progress it has made.

The Grand Army was founded at Springfield, Ill., in the winter of 1865-'66, and its objects were then described as follows:

"(1.) To preserve and strengthen those kind and fraternal feelings which bind together the soldiers, sailors, and marines who united to suppress the late rebellion, and to perpetuate the history and memory of the dead.

"(2.) To assist such former comrades in arms as need help and protection, and to extend needful aid to the widows and orphans of those who have fallen.

"(3.) To maintain true allegiance to the United States of America, based upon a paramount respect for and fidelity to the national constitution and laws; to discountenance whatever tends to weaken loyalty, incites to insurrection, treason, and rebellion, or in any manner impairs the efficiency and permanency of our free institutions, and to encourage the spirit of universal liberty, equal rights and justice to all men."

Not a word here about pensions, not a word about offices. Mutual assistance and good citizenship were the end and aim. In fact, so late as 1884, we find that a collection was taken up for a comrade who had lost a leg in a railroad accident. This was proposed by "Comrade Tanner," presumably our old friend the "Corp," who certainly, in the light of his later theories, has a just claim on the Government for all that he himself contributed on the occasion.

But politicians outside and inside the Grand Army were not slow in finding out the possibility of exploiting "the soldier vote," and the soldier vote showed itself more and more willing to be exploited for a consideration. Trace the evolution of the idea, now become so harmful in our public service, that a veteran, no matter what his character or capacity, is entitled to the offices. Its beginnings appear in 1868, when Congress was urged to provide that "honorable service as a soldier or sailor should constitute a qualification for appointment." By 1881 the President was called upon to see to it that the laws which pliant Congress had by that time passed, giving the preference to honorably discharged soldiers and sailors, should be "strictly enforced." In 1883 the angry attention of the Army was fixed upon those "comrades holding official positions under the Government whose proper administration demanded a large force, but who employed very few comrades, and, in some cases, had turned them out to make room for civilians." Comrades unfortunately in the latter position were exhorted to "refuse to submit to such dictation" and to "hold the fort"—meaning the offices. The encampment of 1893 explicitly demanded laws "which would effectually guarantee a preference to veterans of the rebellion in public employment under the United States."

This growth of the mania for office did not go on without efforts to check it, nor without many plain words spoken in rebuke of it. In 1871 a resolution was passed declaring that "any comrade who endeavors to use the order as a political engine, for the purpose of gratifying any selfish political ambition, is recreant to his duty to his comrades." More than one of the early commanders-in-chief solemnly warned the Army of the evils and dangers upon which it was rushing. Gen. Devens, for example, said in 1875:

"It [the order] has no system of politics in which all cannot unite (whatever other differences they may have as to men or measures) who agree that what was done to maintain the Government was demanded by the highest consideration of patriotism and duty. Did it have any political objects in a narrow or individual sense; was it intended to elevate this man or party to power and place, or to prevent another from obtaining it, a proper and deep distrust would and ought to prevail in reference to it. No body of citizens, even if they have been soldiers, can be allowed to separate themselves in their political relations from the great body of their fellow-citizens and form a distinct class, without just ground of objection and complaint."

Compare these sober words of the Massachusetts soldier and orator with Gen. Collis's latter-day blast, telling how the Grand Army is now "devoting its energies to military education in the public schools," and is soon going to make itself "felt upon the subject of the immigration laws," with much else that the first leaders of the organization would have regarded as giving "just ground of objection and complaint."

It is in the matter of pensions, however, that the progressive sale of the Army to the devil—meaning the politicians—can most clearly be traced. At first nothing but "equalizing bounties" was asked for. A system of coöperative life insurance was discussed for two or three years in the period when self-help was thought of, but was never adopted. In 1871 it was "recommended that the provisions of the bounty law be extended to soldiers, sailors, and marines discharged by reason of disease contracted in the service." By 1874 the title began to rise, and there was a demand for "increased pensions." Soon came along "arrears of pensions," pensions for "survivors of rebel prisons" without proof of disability, "service pensions," "per-diem pensions," and all the other inventions to frighten and bribe politicians and wreck the Treasury. Nowhere was there recognition of the vast sums actually being paid out. When the nation's annual pension bill was leaping up from $28,000,000 to $64,000,000, thence to $106,000,000 and $158,000,000, the cry for new largesses was ever louder and more shameless. Even after the scandalous and wicked dependent-pension law of 1890, the Grand Army declared that this "would not satisfy the veterans." Nothing would satisfy them except an absolute turning over of the Treasury to their pillaging hands.

Such another record of progressive greed and dishonesty it would be hard to match. In fact, for ten years back the mask has been off the Grand Army. It used to have cooler heads, better advisers and leaders. The reckless pension intrigues were brought up year after year, but were regularly voted down. Soon, however, the minority became a majority, only to have to fight a still more reckless minority, which in turn captured the Army after a year or two of struggle. For at least ten years all pretence of saner counsels or self-restraint has been abandoned, and the more wild the scheme, the more unblushing the greed, the more eager and unconcealed the rallying of the Grand Army to its support.

These years of culminating shame have at last broken the prestige of the Army. Politicians of the baser sort may tremble at it still, the perfunctory frothing of the newspapers over it may go on at each new imagined insult, but the people as a whole, thousands and thousands of honest veterans themselves, are disgusted with it. Ten years ago a public official who spoke ill of it would have taken his life in his hands. Now he can smile at the yelping, for the rake's progress of the Grand Army has been too openly and disagreeably brought home to the American people to leave them much concern for an organization which has outlived its usefulness and its honor.

WHO ARE EXCLUDED.

Now that Col. Waring's spirited and sensible conduct is attracting public attention to the arrogant demands of the Grand Army for the veterans, it is well to point out what an entirely un-American principle of exclusiveness this body wishes to apply in filling and keeping filled all positions in the public service. In the first place, by making service in the civil war (one can hardly call it the "late" war after thirty years, although, apparently, the Grand Army has read no United States history since 1865) a prerequisite qualification, there is a depreciatory edict

uttered against all female service. Northern or Southern, native or foreign, old or young, no woman can be employed as long as there is a veteran claimant. This is a deliberate going backwards. One of the most striking incidents in the development of thirty years—but that, as we have said, the G. A. R. ignores—is the admission of women to multifarious employments of which the old law and practice knew nothing. There were times when the appearance of a woman in a department of the public service was sure to suggest dishonorable considerations; the institution of the classified service and competitive examinations has altered all that, and the extensive admission of women to work of all kinds suited to their constitution has been hailed by all sound patriots as a distinctly upward step in our national history. Yet the pressure of the "veterans" for preference in any and all cases, as establishing a paramount claim from which women are absolutely and physically excluded, tends to thrust them back to where they were before the war. It is declaring not that the aunts but the uncles shall have the prior claim with the rulers of our public service. Is the nation prepared to see this brand of inferiority set on its women?

Secondly, it is a deliberate exclusion of all men who are still in that period of life when their services are most likely to be useful. The war ended thirty years ago. It may be fairly estimated that the great majority of those who were mustered out in August, 1865, were over twenty-five years old. Really the line might be drawn at some years older with equity; but, for the sake of argument, and remembering that there were some very juvenile enlistments even to the last, let us say that the fifty-year limit will part the veterans from the rest of the nation in 1895. The "old soldier," therefore, declares that he is to be held, *ipso facto*, more competent for the public service than any one under fifty years old. One would think the mere statement of this principle of exclusion and preference was enough to cast ridicule on it. To say that the nation and the States and the cities shall solemnly announce that semi-centenarians are especially wanted in our public service, including positions of manual labor for which the women would not be competitors, is a little too absurd.

Thirdly, the veteran theory declares that, among men over fifty, any one who went to the war is more valuable for the public service than one who "stayed at home." This argument has been directly put in the last few days in the Legislature of Massachusetts. That is, when we are estimating the value of the probable services of those of our fellow-citizens who are in the decline of life, we are not to regard what they are proving themselves to be now, nor what they have proved themselves for thirty years past, but judge them solely by one short period—perhaps a few months or less in their career—when they belonged to the rising generation; that is to say, on a principle which cannot possibly give any indication of their fitness.

One eloquent defender of the rights of the veteran informed the Massachusetts Legislature "that when he enlisted in the war of the Rebellion, he was not asked to pass any civil service nor any snivel service." It is not probable that any one enlisting in an army would ever be called upon to pass a civil-service examination. But the very statement shows that in the heat of the war we accepted enlistments indiscriminately; and we are now reaping the fruit of that want of discrimination in the exhibitions that such veterans make of themselves. The use of a sneer that was antiquated ten years ago shows how little the "veteran" has kept up with the times, and is itself an argument against his arrogant demands.

It may be anticipated, however, that the Grand Army will make very light of our argument that women and younger men would be excluded. It has been more than once urged that as the veterans pass off the stage, their sons and daughters should have equal precedence with themselves — in other words, that we should establish an order of military nobility; that the sons and daughters of men who gained prominence in fighting should have the prior claim to public employment and public pay. If this is not reviving the system of William the Conqueror and Oliver Cromwell, it is hard to say what would be. Of course, a large number of those who press the cause of the veteran are careful to say that all they ask is that he shall be preferred if competent for the work. But what constitutes competency? Why, the fact that he was a veteran; and there they think the discussion ought to close.

THE SECRET OF DECLINING PRICES.

We thought that in time, in spite of 'Coin's Financial School,' somebody would rise up and attempt to account for the fall in the price of some particular commodity by advancing reasons disconnected with the silver question; and so it has proved. Unmindful of the "crime of 1873," and of the baleful influence which the repeal of the Sherman act is supposed to have exerted, the *Iron Age* publishes the statistics of one of the copper mines in the Lake Superior district, and affirms that the decrease in cost of production must be accounted for outside of any "appreciation of gold." A little table given is of much significance. Below is printed the product of copper in pounds of the Quincy mine, the yield, and the average cost for thirty years:

Year.	Product. Pounds ingot.	Yield per cubic fathom. Pounds copper.	Cost per pound Cents
1864	2,498,574	562	26.71
1870	2,497,500	528	14.90
1875	2,798,300	485	15.79
1878	2,868,500	397	14.01
1881	5,703,000	767	10.03
1885	5,848,530	710	7.50
1890	8,064,253	769	6.51
1894	15,484,014	584	5.68

It will be seen that the mine has not increased in average richness of ore, the yield per fathom being in 1894 about the same as in 1864; nevertheless the total output has increased seven times, while the cost of production per pound is but a fifth of what it was in 1864. Possibly it will be argued that wages have been cut down. The Quincy mine reports the average monthly wages earned by its miners under the contract system, so that the following table was easily compiled:

1870	$46 09	1879	$38 76
1871	47 08	1880	49 70
1872	60 62	1881	48 54
1873	62 92	1882	48 83
1874	48 38	1885	44 00
1875	46 74	1889	49 15
1876	47 13	1890	52 60
1877	43 79	1894	50 70
1878	41 50		

From this table it will be seen that wages in 1890 and 1894 were the highest since 1873. So the decrease in cost has not been at the expense of the laboring men. The true causes for this remarkable decline in the cost of mining copper are succinctly stated by the *Iron Age* thus:

> "The lowering in cost is, of course, due to a multiplicity of improvements in every department. We need only allude to the introduction of high explosives, the use of machine drilling, the employment of modern stamps for crushing the rock, the better methods of handling, the more economical engines for hoisting and pumping, the lowering of the cost of transporting the rock, the cheapening of the supplies, the reduction in smelting expenses and transportation to market, the lessening of cost of selling, and the distribution over a larger product of the general expenses and of outlays for administration."

"We cannot accept for this industry any claim that 'appreciation of gold' led to the steady decline," continues the *Iron Age;* "it was the ability to sell at lower prices, coupled with the necessity to do so brought about by vigorous competition from other great producing districts in all parts of the world, which brought about the lower level of prices."

It may also be recorded that the Quincy mine paid $400,000 in dividends in 1894. Since all concerned—the shareholders, the miners, and the consuming public—profited by the experience of this company during the last thirty years, it would seem that civilization had been advanced by so much. And thus another proof is added to the long list, that the decline in commodities is not due to an appreciation of gold, and that when accompanied by results like those in the Quincy case, even though forced through competition, such declines are blessings without disguise.

It is worth while to take a glance backward in order to see how the experience of the Quincy mine harmonizes with the experience of the world in general. Beginning in 1873 (the favorite starting-point of the silverites when they want to show how prices have been depressed by the

scarcity of gold), we find that the production of copper increased 97 per cent. in the next thirteen years, to 1885. This is according to Sauerbeck's tables. This increase was not confined to the United States alone. Spain, Portugal, Chili, and Germany had their share in it. It was during this period that the great copper mines of Montana were brought to light, while new discoveries in Arizona and in Canada added their quota to the world's product. This enormous output depressed copper to about one-half of its former price, and led to one of the most disastrous speculations on record. When the price had reached what was considered its lowest possible point, a syndicate in Paris, headed by a very rich man named Secretan, conceived the idea of buying up all the copper in the world's markets and contracting for the future supply. They began when copper was at £40 per ton in London and they carried the price up to £85 in a few months. This advance stimulated the production enormously. The syndicate was obliged to buy more than it had expected. To gain help it induced a large joint-stock company, the Société des Métaux, to join in the speculation. After these two concerns had taken all they could carry, they induced a great banking company, the Comptoir d'Escompte, to join them in "carrying copper." The output continued to increase till one fine day the Secretan syndicate, the Société des Métaux, and the Comptoir d'Escompte went down in a common ruin and the price of copper dropped to £35 per ton. Yet nobody thought of attributing the fall of copper to a scarcity of gold or to the demonetization of silver until the Secretan speculation had been generally forgotten.

THE NEW BULGARIA.

A STRANGE experiment in self-government was made when, seventeen years ago, the European powers created the principality of Bulgaria. The conditions seemed to render its success impossible. Two millions of peasants, suddenly freed from a five-century-long servitude, were started in national life with a ready-made constitution of which manhood suffrage and parliamentary government were the principal features. They were ignorant and without leaders. There was not among them even a family with a claim to rule. They had no army, though surrounded by hostile or jealous neighbors, and they chose for a ruler a young man of twenty-two, as inexperienced as themselves. It is true that the Bulgarians had a strong national spirit which the Turks had never been able to destroy. They were stanchly loyal to their church, and ardently attached to the land which they cultivated. Moreover, a singular desire for education had been aroused in them, mainly by the efforts of American missionaries.

Notwithstanding the encouragement which these facts undoubtedly gave, any intelligent student of history at that time would have been justified in predicting the speedy failure of the experiment, especially if he could have foreseen the events of the following years. Before the first decade of their national life had passed, these unarmed peasants were called upon to repel an unprovoked invasion. Their victorious leader was abducted like the heroine of a dime-novel, to be succeeded by one who apparently lacks all the best qualities of a ruler. The richest part of their country was nearly deserted by its inhabitants, who emigrated by the tens of thousands to Turkey. And the most insidious and determined enemy of their independence proved to be the Power which had liberated them from their bondage. In addition to all this, the state has been ruled from the beginning by a knot of self-taught officials, the most distinguished of whom was the son of a peasant. The people at large have been generally indifferent to, and have rarely availed themselves of, their constitutional rights, while plots, assassinations, intrigues, and corrupt elections have characterized their political history.

Under such circumstances it would have been remarkable had the Bulgarians merely maintained their independence and kept intact their constitutional liberties. They have done this and far more. Since 1886 their territory has been increased one-third by the rich province of East Rumelia, whose inhabitants preferred union with Bulgaria to the semi-independence granted by the Treaty of Berlin. Their finances have been so skilfully managed that, at the end of the first eleven years of their national life, their receipts had exceeded their expenditures by six and a quarter million dollars. In addition to meeting their ordinary expenses, they have equipped their army, paid for the war with Servia, built railways, established a national bank, and reduced their debt so that it now amounts to only a year and a half's revenue.

The increase of the national wealth is indicated by the fact that within six years they have added more than a million acres to their wheatfields, vineyards, and market-gardens; their annual imports have increased by more than $2,000,000, while their exports have more than doubled. The towns which, under the Turk, were falling to decay are being rebuilt with broad, well-paved streets, lined with offices, banks, barracks, and well-stocked shops. From one point of view, indeed, Bulgaria is to-day in an ideal position. Five-sevenths of her people are small farmers who own the ground which they till, and of the remainder a great proportion are landed proprietors. Every man, therefore, has a strong personal interest in the welfare and stability of the state. Then there are to be found in it neither the very rich nor the very poor. A recent traveller and competent observer, Mr. E. Dicey, says that in the three and a half million inhabitants there are not three hundred who have twenty-five thousand dollars. On the other hand, there is hardly a Bulgarian who depends absolutely and entirely for his livelihood upon his daily earnings, and who has not some small income of his own, derived from land or houses or cattle. Beggars, it is hardly necessary to add, are practically unknown.

This is confessedly the bright side of the picture. The peasant still lives in a rude hovel hardly fit for his cattle, and is content with a diet of bread, garlic, and water. He is burdened with debt for his land, and with the weight of the taxation, which falls almost wholly on the land, the Capitulations still being in force. To the thrift of the small farmer he joins his jealousy of foreign capitalists. Too poor himself to build the necessary roads, to exploit the mines, and to improve the harbors, he permits the great natural resources of his country to remain undeveloped because of his unwillingness to borrow money for these purposes. He is too ignorant to see the absolute necessity of strengthening the state and increasing its wealth and power. There is a grave danger, indeed, to which he is blind, that when the time comes for the Turk to leave Europe, Bulgaria will not be in a position to secure her rightful share of the empire. This condition of ignorance, however, it is to be hoped, will pass away with this generation, for the extraordinary desire for education—it might almost be termed a passion—which marked the last years of their bondage, still prevails. These peasants, whose average cost of living is four cents a day, who grudge every penny spent on internal improvements, are positively munificent in the support of their schools. The annual appropriation for public instruction by the Sobranye is nearly a tenth of the whole budget. Though this apparently includes the salaries of the clergy, it excludes the sums voted by the separate municipalities for educational purposes. In a country where no one, young or old, can afford to be idle, education is compulsory upon children between the ages of eight and twelve; and the cleanest cottage in the village, the handsomest building in the town, according to the testimony of a recent traveller, is the schoolhouse. But this munificence is not confined to the children of their own citizens. With a keen farsightedness, as well as a fraternal generosity, for which it cannot be praised too highly, the Sobranye in 1890 appropriated $600,000 for the support of Bulgarian schools in the Turkish province of Macedonia. Characteristic, too, of this enlightened spirit, which is the hope of Bulgaria to-day, is the fact that when Eastern Rumelia gave up its independent existence, the municipality of Philippopolis, the capital, changed the Parliament House into a public library.

It is impossible, of course, to foresee what time has in store for this strangely

interesting people. The folly or incapacity of their present leaders may bring disaster and the loss of their independence upon them. But to-day neither Greece, Rumania, nor Servia has the promise of this "peasant state."

A DEPUTATION AT HAWARDEN.

CHESTER, April 16, 1895.

ON the very threshold of England there is a spot where the traveller from America can rest, after a week of tossing by the ocean and of shaking by the mighty engines that force, against wind and wave, the iron shell in which he and its helpless tenants have been cooped. Liverpool, with its docks, its sailors, and its busy life, is too suggestive of the sea from which he has escaped. Here, in Chester, amidst Roman remains, mediæval walls, Tudor houses and shops, cathedral churches, and people who still bear the stamp of their Roman ancestry, the delight and relief of contrast to our American modernism, and to the noise, ceaseless motion, and crowding of steamer existence are inexpressibly refreshing. But within nine miles of the sleepy little town one of the most restless intellects of the human race seeks relief, in his garden and park, from the turmoil of political strife, and in his library at Hawarden has, in the investigation of almost every subject within the ken and beyond the ken of the human mind, found recreation from the harassing cares and embarrassing problems of public life.

Seeing from the papers that Mr. Gladstone was to receive on Easter Monday a deputation from Liberal clubs, of Leeds, Huddersfield, and elsewhere, we sought vainly in Chester for information regarding the event. We therefore took a train for Hawarden, hoping for some news there. The little village on the elevated southern bench overlooking the Dee is the shrine of the Gladstones, but, as is seldom the case with shrines, the most devout worshippers are the denizens of the holy place. Every cottage in the hamlet has a picture of the Grand Old Man and his guardian angel, Mrs. Gladstone, or of Mr. Gladstone offering his resignation of the premiership to the Queen, or of Mr. Gladstone and his descendants for two generations. We heard from a county constable that "The Deputation" was to present a case of books to Mr. Gladstone at the Hawarden Library. The library we found to be a temporary building of sheet-iron—the walls covered with books, and the intervening space so occupied by lateral bookcases as to allow scant passageway. The collection consists in the main of Mr. Gladstone's own books, and, as might be expected from the lifelong bias of his thoughts and studies, contains more than the usual proportion of theological works arranged as Anglican, Dissenting, and so on. It is the nucleus of a large library by which the great statesman hopes to be remembered in his beloved home, and therefore the Liberal clubs of these large manufacturing cities, composed chiefly of artisans, did a graceful act in presenting, with their verbal tribute of admiration, a case of books to their old leader.

Punctually, almost to the minute, Mr. and Mrs. Gladstone drove up to the library. His children and his grandchildren were already there, but the Deputation was not forthcoming. An amusing flutter pervaded the party. Scouts were sent out to stop passing vehicles, lest they might contain the Deputation gone astray. At length little Jenny came running from the post-office with a telegram, and the anxiety subsided, until the Deputation, which had missed a railroad connection, arrived in an omnibus. Fortunately their number was small, and therefore, as there was room in the very limited space round the stove in the library for us, though we were neither accredited correspondents nor delegates, we were courteously admitted. It seems almost like a breach of confidence to describe the scene, it was so private.

I had several times seen and heard the great orator in public since I first listened to his learned address on Medieval Universities when, as first Lord Rector of Edinburgh, he addressed its students nearly forty years ago. He had then just delivered one of his marvellously lucid budget speeches, as Chancellor of the Exchequer in Lord Derby's ministry, and he came almost straight from the House of Commons to talk to us as lucidly about the Middle Ages, its schools, and their system of teaching. At the election I had voted for Thomas Carlyle and against Mr. Gladstone, thinking it impossible that the member for Oxford, and one so deeply imbued with the English university system, could do justice to the peculiarities of our own. I little appreciated the amazing versatility and the elasticity of Mr. Gladstone's mind, or as little dreamt that the day would come when, as member for Midlothian, he would appeal to Scotland as against England for political support. He was then in the very prime of life. To-day he is a very old man—so old that it does not need his own assurance that not choice, but the infirmities of age—failing sight and loss of hearing—compel him to retire from active leadership. His face is furrowed with wrinkles like that of "La Liseuse" of Gerard Dow, his teeth have fallen out, his eyes are dimmer than of yore; but the magnificent masterful nose stands out more prominently and defiantly than ever. Nevertheless the fire of thought continues to burn brightly behind the withering features, which still respond to the emotions, though not as pliantly as of old, but as if with nervous effort. He walks and stands erect, but he had to ask of his audience permission to sit while he answered the set pieces which the delegates had carefully committed to memory, and which, considering the trying ordeal of addressing the greatest orator of this generation, they repeated with wonderful patness and presence of mind.

Beside him sat Mrs. Gladstone, younger, apparently, by many years than her husband, and around them stood their sturdy sons Herbert, M.P. for Leeds, and Henry; their daughter and son-in-law and grandchildren. It was as touching to watch the anxiety in Mrs. Gladstone's face before the old man began to speak, and how it gave place to relief and pleasure when he warmed up and showed his never-failing command of thoughts and power of expressing them, as it was to witness the extraordinary retention of mental power by Mr. Gladstone amidst waning physical strength. His speech was very impressively delivered. He left no room for doubting that he has retired for ever from active political life, and therefore he refrained from touching on any of the mooted questions of the day, domestic or foreign. But he gave his hearers good advice, which it is to be hoped they will follow, rather than the principles of the ultra-radical party under such leaders as Keir Hardie. These Socialist leaders advised their followers to subordinate all national questions to sectional issues, and, like the Irish members, to lend their aid to whichever party will pass their class measures, regardless of their influence on the community at large. Against such a spirit and such action, which unfortunately is too common, and is the most threatening danger on both sides of the Atlantic, Mr. Gladstone gave the following wise counsel:

"The whole body of the people, it may be said, is now put for the first time on its trial. The political history of the English people is highly creditable; but until lately they have had but little of the temptations which invariably attend the possession and exercise of power. The upper classes have been in the possession of power until recently in a very large degree. They have been in possession of it until within the last ten years—I mean the legal possession. They have not had an entire monopoly, but something more or less approaching a monopoly of it, and I think it is impossible for their most sanguine admirers to assert that they have always used it well. But if they have ever given way to the temptation to misuse and to forget the responsibility it entails, they have given way not to vices belonging to them exclusively, but to temptations which beset us all. It is the possession of power that in itself constitutes the temptation; and a most serious trial is now offered to the people of England—the majority of the people, who are in possession of a greater share of the political power of the country whenever they choose to exercise it, and who have now got to show whether their temperance, their moderation, and above all their preference of the general and national interest to interests which are sectional, is such as to show that they are altogether worthy of it. That trial is a trial which I most earnestly hope they will show they are able to bear with honor and advantage, and I have always reflected with great comfort that in one respect they have already shown a remarkable capacity for the exercise of power, and that is, in the characters of the men whom they have chosen to represent them in Parliament, who are called the Labor members, whose conduct has been admirable, and the choice of whom has been most creditable to those whom they represent and who have sent them to the House of Commons."

He then went on to talk about books, and the healthy recreation which workingmen derive from books of fiction, but only if the books themselves be healthy. He gave them a little homily on the harmony between science and religion, and ended by cordially inviting them, in his own and Mrs. Gladstone's name, to accept the hospitality of Hawarden.

The speech was as characteristic of the speaker in what was omitted as in what was said. That he should have been able to conceal, by even the remotest inference, what he thought on the burning questions of the moment, when he knew both sides were breathlessly waiting for his utterances, showed all the old self-control and astuteness. Also, though the flexibility of voice had gone, the wonderful power of weaving complex sentences is still intact. It was always a delight to listen to Mr. Gladstone's involved yet never, even unintentionally, misty periods, as he wove clause after clause, with the utmost deliberation, but never failed to complete his sentence and end with a word which formed the most appropriate climax. The old skill in marshalling his words is there still, but the music of the voice is gone.

As he told us, no statesman of England or Scotland has remained in harness so many years as he; and now, whether he wishes it or not, he must rest. But rest to Mr. Gladstone at eighty-five is harder work than most men are willing if able to endure. This was the second deputation which he had received and addressed that day. J. DOUGLAS.

THE IRISH LAND QUESTION.

DUBLIN, April 17, 1895.

THE Irish Land Question occupies, every year, no small part of the Parliamentary session,

The bills brought in year after year by Irish members are either contemptuously rejected, or passed over for want of time. This year, however, as a result of the report of a select committee of the House of Commons, the Government have brought in a bill and carried the second reading without a division being challenged. The opponents of the bill have so far contented themselves with threats that they will mutilate it in committee, and, if they consider it necessary, that they will have it rejected by the House of Lords. As introduced the bill is of the mildest possible character. It makes the period for revision of fair rents ten years instead of fifteen; it endeavors to give effect to the principle first laid down in the Land Law of 1881, that tenant farmers are not to be liable to rent in respect of improvements they have made; and it includes certain classes of farms that have hitherto been excluded from the benefits, such as they are, of the Land Law.

There are several reasons why an amendment of the present law is urgent The continuous fall in price of farm produce has made rents fixed ten years ago impossible. The administrators of the law, and the judges, have been drawn exclusively from the classes opposed by tradition, politics, and social circumstances to all reform and concessions to the tenant class. The decisions of the courts have resulted in the law being interpreted to mean the exact opposite of its plain grammatical intention in some cases, or in leaving it in a state of glorious uncertainty. A case recently decided by the Court of Appeal (the third court hearing the case) illustrates both the unfairness and uncertainty of the law as laid down by the judges. A short act in 1891 allowed certain leaseholders for long terms to have fair rents fixed under the law of 1881, which said that no rent was to be made payable by tenants in respect of their own improvements. The court of first instance held that the tenant of a small farm who had made valuable buildings and improvements on it, should pay rent only for the land as it was before the improvements were made. This decision was immediately reversed by the Land Commission, whose chairman is a judge of the High Court, receiving a salary of $17,500. The rent of the farm was raised from £11 to £18, and the principle was laid down that in these cases the tenant was to pay as the "fair rent" the full value of the premises, including all that he had spent himself. Thus the tenant had to pay twice over for any expenditure he made on his farm—first, in the original outlay, then in interest on this outlay to his landlord. The more he spent, the higher his rent would be.

Many other cases, similar in principle but involving larger values, were decided by the Land Commission in the same way; but no appeal was taken to the highest court, partly because of the great expense of such appeals, partly because it was supposed that the judge of the Land Commission knew, or ought to know, what the law was. The case first mentioned, however, reached the High Court of Appeal after two years, and the four judges who heard the case decided unanimously that the Land Commission judge was wrong, and that his decision would reduce the act of Parliament to rank absurdity. In a well-known English case Lord Justice Selwyn once said, "It is not the duty of a court of law to be astute to find out ways in which the object of an act of the Legislature may be defeated," yet this is just what the Irish land courts have been doing for fifteen years. This last decision of the High Court is attributed with much probability to the influence of public opinion, not to any purer interpretation of the law than had prevailed before.

Another illustration of the vacillating decisions of this court, or of the uncertainty of the law, is the case of what are called "town-parks," which are excluded from the fair rent provisions of the Land Law. These are lands not used for actual farming, which, to come within the statutory exclusion, must be situated "near a town or city." The court has been gradually extending the meaning of the term "town or city" from country villages of one thousand inhabitants until last year it laid down as the law that "any collection of houses" was a city or town. The lower courts readily took this to mean that the smallest rural hamlet, half-a dozen houses at a cross-roads, was a city, and that all land in the immediate vicinity of such places, though used as ordinary farming land, should be excluded from the Land Law. The present bill proposes to fix two thousand inhabitants as the rule for deciding what is a "town." Its object is to confirm the principles of the Land Law Act passed in 1881, which the decisions of the judges have reduced almost to a nullity, and to set at rest some uncertainties that were found in the entire patchwork code of the land laws.

Like every other proposal for reform, the bill is denounced by what the chief secretary termed an "irreconcilable junta" of landlords as confiscation, spoliation, and robbery. Though the principle of the bill has been admitted by its second reading without a division, opposition to all and every detail is threatened in committee. It seems, however, almost certain that the bill will pass successfully through the House of Commons, for nine-tenths of the Irish members are in favor of it, and a good many English Unionist members are likely to support them, recognizing both the justice of the proposals and the urgency of some reform. It is the rule with the House of Lords either to reject Irish bills brought in by the Liberal Government, or else by amendments to draw their fang teeth and defeat their objects. But on this occasion to reject or mangle the Land bill will be to drive the Conservative farmers into the home-rule camp, and justify the Nationalists in saying that no Irish reforms can be obtained from Parliament at Westminster, however urgent their need may be, and although they may be approved and demanded by nine-tenths of the Irish people. The Lords will therefore be in a dilemma: they must accept the Land bill, or give new life to and furnish fresh arguments for the home rule movement.

The bill is based on a principle the justice of which cannot be gainsaid, viz., that it is right as between individuals, and for the common good, that people should enjoy the fruits of their own expenditure, and that the small landowning class should not retain the right to appropriate to themselves all the value added to their estates by their tenants' outlay on works of permanent benefit and utility. The English mind has been at last convinced that what the landlord does in England in the way of equipping farms with buildings and all other works required for cultivation, the tenant does in Ireland, and that therefore the circumstances and incidents of farm tenure in the two countries are wholly dissimilar. The battle over the bill will be chiefly confined to the phraseology of the clauses which are meant to secure the tenant the benefit of his own outlay. Experience has shown that it is not so easy as it would seem to express in words that cannot and will not be misconstrued the plain intention, the admitted principle, that an Irish tenant is not to be mulcted in rent to his landlord for works and expenditure to which the landlord has never contributed a single farthing.

The partial famine and distress now existing in the west of Ireland forces the land question specially on the attention of the English Government. Every day that Parliament sits, the Chief Secretary for Ireland is bombarded with questions as to what he is doing for the distressed population in this or that western parish. Forty years ago John Bright said: "Large votes are annually required to keep the people quiet, and large votes are annually required to keep the people alive." It is very much the same case still, except that the people are fewer and the votes are proportionally smaller. Grants and loans of Irish money must be made nearly every year to keep the people alive and quiet, but the causes of pauperism and distress are not removed. If the population was superabundant when Bright spoke, it cannot be so now, when it is reduced by one-half. Where obvious causes of poverty and misery exist, it is absurd to attribute these evils to improbable and remote causes. High rents and absentee landlords who spend nothing on their estates are sufficient to account for most of the western poverty.

Not ten years ago the *Times's* correspondent, referring to absenteeism as a cause of poverty, wrote, "The western counties are the strongholds of absenteeism. In Mayo, for example, nine owners hold upwards of 20,000 acres each, and among them draw annually £100,000 from this poor western county." This would be quite one-third of the rental of the entire county of Mayo. The only expenditure on such estates is for agents, bailiffs, and poor-rates. The proprietors carry off one-third or one-quarter of the gross produce of the land, and no return comes back to the district except bundles of rent receipts. No services of any kind are rendered by the proprietors in return for the revenues they draw from their estates. Notwithstanding all the patching and tinkering of the land laws during the past forty years, it may still be said, in the words of Bright, that "a code of laws exists under which it is impossible for the land and the people to be brought together, and for industry to live in independence and comfort, instead of crawling to this House, as it does almost annually, to ask alms of the hard-working people of England."

Bright overlooked the fact that the alms and loans granted by the British Parliament come from funds supplied by Ireland to the imperial revenue. After the Union, overtaxation of Ireland led in sixteen years to her complete bankruptcy, and since the exchequers of the two countries were amalgamated, it is now admitted that Ireland's contribution to the imperial revenue has been at least twice as much as she should in justice have paid if she had been taxed with England in proportion to the means of the two countries.

AN IRISHMAN.

PASQUIER'S MEMOIRS.—XI.

PARIS, April 12, 1895.

THE sixth volume of the memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier has made its appearance. It covers the period extending from 1824 to 1830. I have been informed that it is the last to appear for the present. The Duke d'Audiffret-

Pasquier, who is the editor of the Memoirs, will give no publicity at this time to that part of them which relates to the reign of Louis Philippe, the Revolution of 1848, and the following years. This new volume of the 'History of My Time' derives its chief interest from the events which prepared the Revolution of 1830, and this Revolution itself. It opens with the death of Louis XVIII. The reign of this King had, on the whole, been a happy one; the prudent and shrewd old monarch had manœuvred artfully between the parties; he had preserved his dignity and the dignity of France before Europe. Pasquier gives curious details about the end of Louis XVIII.:

"He was not devout; in his youth he had, it was said, rather Voltairian views, though he kept up appearances. His political situation during the emigration forced him to manifest much regard for the priests, of whom so large a number had remained faithful to his cause. . . . He fulfilled all his religious duties; he went to church whenever his health allowed him to do so. . . . In his latter years the nature of his relation with Madam du Cayla was not such as to encourage in him very serious religious sentiments. When his last moment approached, he expressed no desire to receive any religious help; nobody knew how to approach him on the subject. It would have been a great presumption on the part of the Duchess d'Angoulême to do so. It was thought that Madam du Cayla alone, thanks to the influence she had acquired over him, could touch so delicate a chord. She accepted the mission and succeeded. The King saw a priest on the morning of September 13; he received the Communion and the last sacrament. He was fully conscious. The great almoner did not perform the ceremony well; the King corrected him with a strong and almost angry voice, telling him what he had to do. This service rendered by Madam du Cayla explains the position which she maintained at court, and how the Duchess d'Angoulême not only tolerated her, but even showed her a certain kindness."

It must be understood that Madam du Cayla (so, at least, I have always heard) was not the mistress of the old and invalid King; she was merely a favorite, a *persona gratissima*, with whom he liked to talk very freely, and who charmed him by her grace, her *esprit*, and her manners. The relation was very innocent; it nevertheless created much jealousy and envy in the court circle.

Louis XVIII. died on September 16, 1824; his successor was very different from him in every respect—narrow-minded, the very type of those émigrés of whom it was said that they had learned nothing and forgotten nothing. Louis XVIII, infirm, unable to appear on horseback, dragging himself with difficulty from one room to another, was nevertheless very imposing. He had much *esprit* and a wonderful memory. Strangely enough, coming after the most active ruler and captain who ever existed, Louis XVIII. was adopted and accepted by all the marshals and generals; he could speak to them in flattering terms of their campaigns and their services. He had been a liberal from the first days of the Revolution; he understood the necessities of his time, and he was a sincere partisan of parliamentary government. He had all the more merit because he found no support or echo in his own family. His brother, the new King, was good-natured, generous, but very unintelligent, politically speaking. He was born a century too late, and entirely misunderstood the aspirations and the necessities of France, entirely transformed by new legislation and new administrative methods. He had become the tool of what was then called the "Congregation," of the militant church party, headed by the Jesuits, and believed sincerely that his mission consisted in undoing all the work of the Revolution, and in bringing the French monarchy back to the times when Bossuet wrote 'La Politique tirée de l'Écriture Sainte.'

The short history of the reign of Charles X. was a perpetual conflict with public opinion and with the Chamber. He finally confided the premiership of his Cabinet to M. de Polignac, who prepared the famous Ordonnances which suppressed the liberty of the press, dissolved the Chamber, and restricted the suffrage. The secret was well guarded; it is the belief of M. Pasquier that nobody had any knowledge of the impending *coup d'état* except a financier named Ouvrard and a fanatical pamphleteer named Rubichon. This man could have had a revelation only from the Jesuits. Two months before the publication of the Ordonnances some Jesuits advised Von Werther, the Prussian Minister in Paris, that something was preparing. "Von Werther told me so," says Pasquier, "a month after the Revolution of July." Rubichon owed some money to M. Greffulhe; "he thought he would acquit himself by giving him good advice. On Thursday, the 21st, he said to him: 'Believe me, the Government is going to strike a great blow next week; look out for yourself accordingly.'" Rothschild, who had much to do with the Treasury, knew nothing and was in complete security, as were all the members of the diplomatic corps.

The Ordonnances were signed by Charles X. on Sunday, after mass, at Saint-Cloud. They appeared the next day in the *Moniteur;* in Paris there was general stupefaction. The King started early for Rambouillet, and, after a day's hunting, returned to Saint-Cloud only in the evening. Paris was early in a great fermentation, and the command of all the troops in Paris was given to Marshal Marmont, Duke of Ragusa. The blindness of the King and of the Cabinet was such that no military precautions of any sort had been taken, and no forces were marching on the capital. Polignac felt sure that there would be no serious trouble. Here is the account of an eyewitness of the evening of July 28 in the drawing-room at Saint-Cloud, which Pasquier relates *in extenso:*

"Arrived at Saint-Cloud between nine and eleven, it is impossible to describe my feelings in the court of the château. It was lighted as usual; not a guard more or less; the windows of the drawing-room open; a few persons coming on the balcony, listening, and retiring without any hurry in their walk, like people who come to breathe the cool of the evening after a burning day. The report of guns, however, was incessantly heard in the direction of Paris. What do I say? They became more distinct, and at times there was mixed up with them the lugubrious sound of the tocsin. I stopped a moment under the peristyle of the palace. Valets were sprawling on the benches, talking carelessly of the fighting in Paris. 'They are firing again! Hark! hear the bells. The people are about to march on Paris.' All this said with that tone of affected indifference which is learned with such perfection only in the atmosphere that envelops a court. From the anteroom I entered the *salon de service*, where I found an officer of the guard who told me all he knew of Paris, and he was well informed. 'And the King,' said I; 'what is he doing?' 'He is playing whist.' 'And the Dauphin?' 'He is at his game of chess.' 'What! not an order given round this palace, not a precaution?' 'Nothing, absolutely nothing.' I then decided to enter the drawing-room. I advanced slowly near the King, and I clearly perceived in his eye that any new-comer not in his intimate confidence annoyed him sensibly; not a word issued from his lips, except on the subject of the game. The Dauphin seemed quite as attached to his game of chess. . . . I felt the need of air, and I approached a window with one of the King's attendants. We listened together; a window still shut was from time to time shaken by the noise of the distant firing. This noise seemed to astonish nobody; not a question, not a mark of uneasiness. I approached the Dauphin; he gave me a nod of the head without saying a word. After a few moments I could not bear it any longer and left the room. When once I had joined, in another room, a few devoted and despairing friends, I recognized that the horrible truth was very clear to them, that none of them doubted that a terrible catastrophe was near. The news arrived secretly from moment to moment, always more alarming, but did not go further than the door of the royal drawing-room. The Duke of Duras entered, went out, moved uneasily near us, but when he approached the whist-table he was again silent."

As Pasquier says, such a picture, which he had from a person worthy of all confidence, cannot be invented. The commander of the military school of Saint-Cyr was at the moment the Count de Broglie. He came the next day to receive the King's orders and offer the service of the military pupils. He was very uneasy, and showed his uneasiness; the King finally said to him: "Well, my dear Count, I see that I must tell you all. Well, Polignac again had apparitions last night which promised him assistance, told him to persevere, and assured him a full victory." The Count de Broglie was so stupefied that he could not find a word to say. He met somebody after this interview, to whom he merely remarked, "All is lost." Polignac and his royal master had fallen into the most extraordinary religious mysticism; Polignac had real hallucinations and the King believed in their reality.

Pasquier gives with minute details an account of a mission of the Duke de Mortemart, who was charged at the last moment with making an arrangement with the leaders of the resistance to the Ordonnances, and with forming a new Cabinet. It was already too late; Paris was covered with barricades, a revolutionary government had taken possession of the Hôtel de Ville; Lafayette, Laffitte, and their friends were the masters of the situation. Unfettered in his movements, M. Laffitte was following out his designs. He had always had under his patronage a certain number of papers; he sent to them his instructions. The writers of the *National*, MM. Thiers and Mignet, had been, from the foundation of the paper, favorable to the Duke d'Orléans. They gave the signal, which was answered by the writers of the *Constitutionnel*, the *Journal du Commerce*, and the *Courrier*. The Deputies had been summoned to the Chamber. "They arrived in the room where the sittings took place; the talk at first was embarrassed; some spoke of M. de Mortemart, of proposals of which he was the bearer; others put forward the names of the Duke d'Orléans, of the Dauphin, even the name of Henri V. with a Regency, which might procure some advantages for the establishment of the constitutional Government. On the whole, the great majority was for the family of Charles X. Even those who were most opposed to him have since acknowledged it." Laffitte assumed the presidency of the Deputies, of whom there were not more than sixty. The country, he said, needed guidance. He was afraid of the proclamation of the Republic by the men who had fought at the barricades. He proposed that the Duke d'Orléans should be appointed Lieutenant-General of the kingdom, and that the tricolor flag should replace the white flag. A deputation was sent to the Duke d'Orléans with this important resolution. "I was passing," says Pasquier, "the corner of the Rue de Rivoli and the Rue Saint-Florentin. M. de Talleyrand, who was behind the curtain at the

entresol, knocked on the window and made me a sign to come up. I found him in a great state of excitement. He spoke at once of the Duke d'Orléans. 'They are going,' said he, 'to use him, and put him forward. He can play a fine and great rôle; but will he understand the situation? Will he know that above all he must negotiate?'" He evidently wished to be the negotiator; he would not hear of the Duke d'Orléans accepting the title of Lieutenant-General — Commander of Paris was enough; he had written in this sense a letter to Mme. Adelaide, the King's sister, which he showed to Pasquier and sent to Neuilly.

Charles X. remained inert at Saint-Cloud. When this untenable position was threatened, he retired to Rambouillet. Versailles was already in insurrection, as well as Saint-Germain. The Duke d'Orléans received at the Palais Royal the committee of the Deputies, who offered him the dignity and power of lieutenant-general. He did not think at that moment of a higher title. He had not conspired against the Restoration, though he had disapproved its policy. In revolutionary times minutes become hours and hours become days. Louis-Philippe had soon to choose between the proclamation of a republic, which certainly would have sent him as well as his family into exile, and the acceptance not of a mere general lieutenancy, but of the crown. He was to be a king or to follow Charles X. into exile. It is not difficult to imagine through what mental struggles he had to pass during those eventful days which followed the departure of Charles X. from Saint-Cloud to Rambouillet. Once he had made his choice, he did not hesitate. He went in person to the Hôtel de Ville, through the barricades, accompanied by Laffitte, Benjamin Constant, and a few Deputies. He found Lafayette on the steps, who embraced him. He was not yet King, but a barrier had now been thrown between him and Charles X. which nothing could remove. Charles X. had ceased to reign, and Lafayette had proclaimed that Louis Philippe was "the best of republics." Pasquier's chapters on all these events, and on the beginnings of the new monarchy, possess a thrilling interest.

Correspondence.

THE DECADENCE OF THE GRAND ARMY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I do not wish to traverse so much the truth as the justice of what is said in the *Nation* of April 25 about the Grand Army. So far back as 1867 it was neither unnatural nor uncommendable that men who had then but lately passed out of the military life, should wish to found some sort of a civic organization by means of which they could still hold together and live again, in a kind of fashion, their interesting past. At that time, too, the motto chosen, "Fraternity, Charity, and Loyalty," had, in each of its members, a real meaning. And if your space permitted, I think I could demonstrate that the qualification for membership was not too broadly based in making honorable service in the Union army or navy, in any capacity or for any length of time, the test of eligibility, and leaving it to the official record, as contained in the War or Navy Department, to decide, in any case, whether the requirement of honorable service had been met.

My experience with the Grand Army dates back to 1870, by which time the politicians had fixed their attention upon the organization, and had begun to see what could be made out of it in the way of party and personal advantage to themselves. This exploitation of the Grand Army for purposes foreign to it brought it to the verge of a dissolution from which it was saved by the exertions of men who loved the organization for its own and its true self.

As to the pension abuses, such as they may be, they began with the Arrears act which President Hayes weakly signed against the strong opposition of Senator Sherman, then the most prominent member of his Cabinet. This the President did, not for the Grand Army or because of the Grand Army, but because the Democratic and Republican parties were running a neck-and-neck race for the "soldier vote"; a very small part of that vote being enrolled in the Grand Army. It was the Arrears act that opened the flood-gates, and I have some particular reasons for believing that those who passed the act, and those who were connected in every degree with its approval, had a tolerably fair appreciation of the consequences; but when ever was an enduring public interest allowed to stand in the way of a present political advantage, when politicians saw the advantage, and saw also that, if a recoil came, they could evade the responsibilities for their party and themselves? I submit that if you will bring your censure of the pension laws and administration, of the last fifteen years or so, to the test of reason, you will lay the blame not on the Grand Army, but on that bad working of our political system that throws the public offices and the powers of Government into the least worthy and capable hands, and leaves the better people to indifference or despair, except when they rise in revolt against some abuse that has grown too scandalous or oppressive to be borne. If the pension allowances ever reach the unbearable stage, they, too, will be overthrown in the usual manner, the just and unjust suffering alike.

Meanwhile, the readers of the *Nation* might like to hear from the lips of an honest and efficient official of the Pension Bureau how the system works. He said to me a few days ago: "Under Gen. Raum a feeling pervaded the office that our business was to allow pensions in every case where an excuse could be made for allowance, while under Judge Lochren the feeling is that pensions must be disallowed if possible; so that we are now rejecting meritorious cases where formerly we allowed those without merit."

I am one of the Grand Army men who believe that the pension roll and the list of pension applications could and should be overhauled, so as to remove the unworthy and let in the worthy. But to ask the Grand Army of the Republic to lift itself higher than other people or other organizations is asking too much of human nature. The "old soldier" has had it dinged into him for nearly twenty years past that his fair "salvage" for rescuing the country from shipwreck is vastly more than his wildest dreams of pensions and places, and if you want him to "let up on his unfortunate country," you must have a propaganda to enlighten him, as you are now preparing to enlighten those affected with the silver craze. And if you will stop to consider that those who darken counsel are our national governors, may you not conclude that a reform Congress, if it could be effected, would save the people so much that $160,000,000 for pensions would not be worth talking about with the same breath?

The Grand Army is composed of elderly men. If they have been overpastured by your politicians, make your politicians dispasture them, and don't scold or rail at them for acting just as nine-tenths of the readers of the *Nation* would act in their place. If they have fallen below the average morality or patriotism of the nation, their condition is more likely to be aggravated than amended by such hot and sweeping words as those of Col. Waring, who, I hope, will stay in office long enough to show what municipal government is on the anti-Tammany plan. C. F. B.

Washington, D. C., April 27, 1895.

MANUAL TRAINING VERSUS MILITARY DRILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An editorial in the *Nation* of April 11 on the subject of compulsory military drill in the public schools strikes a responsive chord in the hearts of all those who feel, with you, that the precious opportunity offered to those schools should indeed be used more effectively for "instruction in good manners, in the arts and love of peace, and in ambition to make the country decent and habitable instead of feared." With this thought in mind, some of us are taking comfort and hope in an awakened and critical interest in the possibilities of manual training as a moral and civilizing influence in these schools.

Dr. Hanford Henderson, however (principal of the Northeast Manual Training School of Philadelphia), in two timely articles in the *Popular Science Monthly* (November, 1894, and April, 1895), calls attention to the need of more *educational methods* in manual training, which, he says, is to-day "entering a new phase, and enlarging into a kingdom" "through the recognition of its psychological import." Dr. Henderson, who is a profound student of his subject, states his belief that manual training, *with adequate means*, should lead "inexorably to health, vitality, integrity, goodness, and happiness," and he regards it as "the herald of a coming education." Dr. Henderson, however, recognizes the fact that the possibilities of this hopeful factor in education "are merely foreshadowed in our present clumsy exercises."

Some of your readers will perhaps be interested to know that an effort is being made to improve upon the methods of the past, in Boston, where a course of manual training (with tools) is being worked out, whose exercises are based upon a "recognition of their psychological" as well as their physiological and ethical import. An opportunity for the study of these methods, as well as of the general problem of manual training, is offered in free training classes for teachers, now being carried on in Boston by Mrs. Quincy A. Shaw. Those interested in the practical value of this work would do well to visit the Massachusetts State reformatory at Concord, whose officers testify that the moral influence of this training of boys has never been equalled by any methods known to them. One officer of the institution has even expressed to the writer his desire to place his own sons in the convict classes, unless the same opportunity were soon to be offered to them in the public schools of the town.—I am sir, truly yours,

A. W. Fiske.

Milton, Mass., April 18, 1895.

MUNICIPAL-REFORM METHODS IN CHICAGO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Those of your readers who are study-

ing the methods pursued by organizations working for municipal reform may be interested in the manner in which the ward councils of the Civic Federation of Chicago made the fight for better politics before our recent city election.

For purpose of illustration, the thirteenth ward is taken. Here as elsewhere the nominating conventions of the leading parties were held so late that, after it became apparent that the Federation could support neither the Republican nor the Democratic candidate for alderman, there was no time to put an Independent in the field, the time limited by law for the filing of the necessary petition having expired, and the nominee of the People's party was consequently endorsed. An active campaign of a week was waged, four public meetings were held, and twenty thousand circulars were distributed. The result showed that, while the overwhelming straight Republican vote carried everything before it, some fifteen hundred voters were, in all probability, led by the work of the Federation to support Mr. Wilson, giving him in all twenty-five hundred votes—a respectable showing, though still far below the number required to elect. The principal circular issued by the Federation is unique in Chicago ward politics. In part it is as follows.—Respectfully,

LEE F. ENGLISH.

CHICAGO, April 24, 1895.

"The policy of the Civic Federation in ward politics is briefly set forth in the following, quoted from a circular letter addressed by the Central Council to the ward councils:

"'When the candidates of both parties are good men, use no official influence to secure the election of either. If one candidate is good and the other bad, endorse the good one, irrespective of party. Where both candidates are so objectionable that a decent man cannot vote for either without feeling himself thereby disgraced, you should seek by every right means to unite public sentiment and secure the nomination of a right-minded, honorable man.'

. . .

"John W. Utesch, Republican, candidate for re-election [as alderman], has, from the date of his entry into the City Council down to February 25, 1895, consistently voted for every questionable and objectionable ordinance which has been adopted, as may be seen in part by reference to the published proceedings of the Council of the following dates.

. . .

"Previous to his election two years ago Mr. Utesch was in the business of grocer, which he has since given up, and he is now understood to be a professional politician. . . .

"We find that the Democratic candidate, Christopher Peterson, is a saloon-keeper at 350 Dearborn Street and 316 State Street, and a persistent office-seeker. We regard Mr. Peterson in some respects as more unfit for the position of alderman than Mr. Utesch, if that be possible.

"Hiram A. Wilson, the People's candidate for alderman, is a native of New York State, has been a resident of Illinois twenty-five years, and of Chicago sixteen years, working at his trade as carpenter. He has never held a political office, nor been a candidate, and was selected by his party for this office for his qualifications of sobriety, industry, and integrity. . . .

"The Thirtieth Ward Council of the Civic Federation, therefore, in view of the situation outlined above, have endorsed the candidacy of Hiram A Wilson, and urgently recommend that citizens who have the good of the community at heart drop for the time their party affiliations, and give their support, not to any party, but to the man who will best represent their interests in the Common Council.

. . .

"We also advise all voters, of whatever party or condition, to vote for the Civil-Service Reform Law, and thus secure permanency of employment and good and economical service in the city departments. The operation of this law will result in a larger direct expenditure of money among the workingmen and a smaller amount diverted to the pockets of the politicians."

A FIFTY-CENT GOLD DOLLAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In contemplating the efforts of the silver inflationists to provide a means of escape for the poor debtor from his obligations, it seems to me their sympathy is not broad enough. Why should they not go farther and also right the wrongs of the borrowers whose debts cannot be paid in "free silver"—those victims of grasping capital who, in order to obtain new loans or renewals of old ones, were compelled to promise repayment in gold dollars? If a fifty-cent silver dollar is to be given to one class, why not equally favor other unfortunates by supplying for their use a half-weight gold dollar? If it is right to make fifty cents worth of silver legal tender for a dollar, there is equal justice in calling fifty cents worth of gold a "dollar." This is no attempt at malicious *reductio ad absurdum*, but a sober suggestion to the "bimetallists" of a very proper method of bringing about a parity of the two money metals under free coinage. Such a policy might be a bitter pill for the silver-theory, gold practice Senators; but as they are entirely unselfish in the matter of aiding the poor man to pay his debts, they would not refuse their debtors a cheap dollar while offering a similar blessing to the debtors of those who had put their trust in the justice and honor of their country by stipulating for repayment merely in lawful money. E. M. D.

ST. LOUIS, MO., April 23, 1895.

SPAIN AND CUBA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reading the article on "Spain and Cuba" in your issue of the 25th inst., it was a disappointment to find that you made no mention of the very remarkable concession granted by Spain to Cuba, which was made a long time ago and is still continued. With a climate and soil well suited to raising tobacco, not one pound is allowed to be grown in Spain even for private use. You can confirm this statement by turning to O'Shea's 'Guide to Spain and Portugal,' where, under the head of "General Information," page ci, you will read the following:

"Tobacco is a monopoly of the State, there being about half-a-dozen huge factories—in some of the principal towns—Sevilla, Valencia, Santander, etc. The cultivation of the plant is forbidden in Spain—where it would succeed admirably—for the sake of benefiting the Habanas! The consumption of tobacco, in its various forms, amounts to some twenty millions of pounds per annum."

Yours respectfully, A. FLEMING.

150 ALLEGHENY AVENUE,
ALLEGHENY, PA., April 26, 1895.

[The tariff relations of Spain and Cuba, of which the tobacco monopoly forms a part, are too complicated to be discussed here.—ED. NATION.]

DEAN FARRAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The papers have copied one from another the statement that Rev. *Archibald* Farrar, D.D., Canon of Westminster, has been appointed Dean of Canterbury. It is to be presumed this beautiful mistake proceeded from a careless study of Whitaker's Almanack, where among the Canons of Westminster appears Archd. Farrar—*i. e.*, Archdeacon Frederick W. Farrar—a man, one would think, sufficiently well known to Americans.

WILLIAM EVERETT.

QUINCY, MASS., April 24, 1895.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & Co. publish immediately a 'Hand-book of Birds of Eastern and North America,' by Frank M. Chapman of the American Museum of Natural History, with more than 200 illustrations; an equally extensively illustrated work, 'Familiar Flowers of Field and Garden,' by F. Schuyler Matthews; and 'General Sheridan,' by Gen. Henry E. Davies.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have nearly ready 'William the Silent, Prince of Orange, the Moderate Man of the Sixteenth Century,' by Ruth Putnam; 'Wild Flowers of the Northeastern States,' delineated from life and popularly described by Margaret C. Whiting and Ellen Miller; 'Water Tramps, or the Cruise of the *Seabird*,' by George Herbert Bartlett; and 'Natural Taxation,' by Thomas G. Shearman.

A volume of 'Selected Letters of Pliny the Younger,' by Prof. Elmer T. Merrill of Wesleyan University, and 'The Essentials of New Testament Greek,' by Prof. J. H. Huddleston of Northwestern University, are in the press of Macmillan & Co.

Many regrets must have been felt (we have expressed our own) that the plan of the 'New English Dictionary on Historical Principles' was not consistent with the citation of poetical "familiar quotations" to the fullest extent. This would be quite possible in a "Dictionary of Literary English," such as has been lately proposed in England, and seconded by that sound philologist, the Rev. A. L. Mayhew, who would not include words obsolete before 1470, nor any not found in literature "in Charles Lamb's sense of the word." The work, he says, need not be bulky.

The Selden Society, well known to all interested in early legal history, announce the publication of their sixth volume, 'Selections from the Records of the High Court of Admiralty, 1390–1404 and 1527–1545,' edited by Reginald G. Marsden, author of the treatise upon Perpetuities. The business of the High Court of Admiralty was very considerable during the period covered by this volume, and played an important part in the development of commercial law. The address of the American secretary is Richard W. Hale, 10 Tremont Street, Boston, Mass.

Macmillan & Co. send us Mr. Aitken's charming reprint of the 'Life and Adventures of Mr. Duncan Campbell' in the Defoe collection (London: J. M. Dent & Co.), and their own of Michael Scott's lively West Indian classic, 'Tom Cringle's Log.' From Messrs. Putnam we have still another presentation of Irving's 'Alhambra' in fine, open typography, fit either for use as the "student's edition" it is denominated, or to be read by children and old eyes for simple pleasure. Mr. Arthur Marvin has supplied notes grouped at the end of the book, and an introduction. A New England story of Fugitive Slave Law days, Mr. J. T. Trowbridge's 'Neighbor Jackwood,' which has had a continuous life of nearly forty years, has been revised by the author, and furnished with an autobiographical chapter relating the genesis of the work and indicating the nature of the alterations and insertions.

Though now an historical novel, its missionary usefulness has no visible term in view of the persistency of color prejudice (Lee & Shepard). We can but mention a new translation of 'Paul and Virginia,' by Melville B. Anderson (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), and one of Daudet's 'Fromont Junior and Risler Senior,' by Edward Vizetelly (Philadelphia: Lippincott); strange companions on one shelf.

The third of Mrs. Constance Garnett's translations of the novels of Turgeneff is 'On the Eve' (Macmillan). Its defects are those which we pointed out in the case of the first, 'Rudin.' In the effort to match idioms, style is lost sight of, and the result is too frequently a mixture of colloquial and literary expression, such as a foreigner to English might lapse into. Think of the heroine "tidying" her hair, for example. Action and plot count for so little, relatively, in Turgeneff's masterpieces, and are so easily forgotten, that if the aroma and poetry are missed by the translator, almost all is lost.

Whatever bears the name of Adolf Harnack is to be regarded with respect, yet we scarce see the object in translating his lecture on 'Monasticism: its Ideals and History' (Christian Literature Co.). The subject is much too vast to be adequately treated in the compass of less than a hundred small pages, and the treatment unfortunately is verbose as well as insufficient. The reader is constantly in the hope of being on the verge of something concrete and definite, but this hope as constantly vanishes in a wilderness of words representing the inner consciousness of the lecturer rather than the external facts of his theme. He misses entirely the one central idea of monasticism, that in its essence it is irredeemably selfish; its object is to secure the salvation of the individual regardless of his duties to his fellows, and of the second great commandment to love thy neighbor as thyself. It is only in so far as it has proved false to this idea that it has been of service either to the Church or to mankind. It is remarkable that so well-informed a writer as Harnack should have fallen into the error of describing Loyola as the first who realized the possibilities of monasticism in strengthening and extending the authority of the Church. Dominic realized this three hundred years earlier and performed the same service as did Loyola. The theory of both was the same; the differences were in details, caused chiefly by the change in the environment and by the fact that Dominic had a scholastic and Loyola a military training.

Arthur Ogle, writer of the Stanhope Essay at Oxford for 1893, describes, in what he calls a "Study in Criticism," the opinions and career of 'The Marquis d'Argenson' (London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons). His special aim is to show that a careful examination of D'Argenson's Journal would serve to correct the harsh judgments of that statesman's management of French foreign affairs from 1744 to 1747 pronounced by the Duke de Broglie and M. Zevort, the only historians who have recently devoted much attention to this phase of the history of France. Mr. Ogle does not seem to have made out his case. Even his own eulogistic description of D'Argenson leaves the reader with the impression that D'Argenson's policy was more ambitious than wise. Had Mr. Ogle devoted a few lines here and there to contemporary history, his hero's career would have gained in meaning and the essay in clearness. The style, too, is uneven, at times becoming inflated and sensational, as when, speaking of Frederick the Great's return to Berlin before the Saxon campaign of 1745, the author writes: "His sword had clicked again in the scabbard, his hand had fallen nerveless from the hilt, when suddenly a stray word let fall at a dinner table by Count Brühl was conveyed carefully to Berlin; tensely the fingers closed on the hilt, the sword leapt forth again bare and terrible, and at the end of a three weeks' campaign, which we cannot even read of now without dancing eyes and tingling blood, the lion of Brandenburg entered Dresden."

Laymen and archæological students alike will welcome the translation of Helbig's 'Guide to the Public Collections of Classical Antiquities in Rome' (Leipzig: Baedeker), of which the first volume has just appeared. It is based upon the German edition of 1891, but this has undergone a thorough revision by the author, with whom the translator, Mr. J. F. Muirhead (well known here as the editor of Baedeker's 'United States') has done his work in close connection. The present volume treats of the Vatican, Capitoline and Lateran Museums with the Palazzo dei Conservatori. The name of Helbig is to scholars a sufficient guarantee of the worth of this book. Others may be assured that in using it, as in using the chapters on art in Baedeker's 'Greece and Rome,' they are following the words of a master.

Prof. S. B. Platner's 'Bibliography of the Younger Pliny' is a work that will be of great service to students and lovers of that delightful letter-writer. It includes lists of over 250 editions, as many titles of works and articles on Pliny, and nearly a hundred translations of him into various languages. Such bibliographies are most welcome both to collectors and to teachers in charge of courses of research or "seminaries" in our colleges, and it is to be hoped that their number will increase. The present pamphlet is a reprint from the *Western Reserve University Bulletin* for April, 1895.

Mr. W. E. Hoyle, compiler of the admirably arranged and neatly printed classified and indexed catalogue of books and pamphlets in the Library of Manchester Museum, England, deprecates criticism on the ground that he is not a professional librarian. But really the only criticism we should make of his work is in the hyper-professionalism of the Dewey-Cutter book-marks, which are stated in the preface to have made their way into three other English institutions. We observe, by the bye, that Signor Chilovi, director of the National Central Library at Florence, praises, in his *Bollettino* for March 31, the practice of the Smithsonian Institution in accompanying each of its publications with a leaf bearing the thrice-printed title of the work for ready insertion in the subject-and-author catalogue and in the list of accessions.

The most notable thing in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for April is the inserted slip announcing that this will be the last year of Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England," "unless considerably more money shall be received before July." Subscriptions to any amount may be sent to Mr. John Ward Dean, No. 18 Somerset Street, Boston. This announcement may well strike a chill in those who have turned eagerly and first of all to these Gleanings in each quarterly issue of the *Register*, and who remember both the brilliant and the less showy but not less sure discoveries of Mr. Waters by which the New World blood has been connected with the Old. We sincerely hope that the best-equipped explorer who ever yet attempted this bridging of the Atlantic will be sustained a while longer. His wills this month relate to Burgess, Phippen, Pitt, Chaplin, Gould, and many other families. An English contributor, Mr. Phillimore, continues his contributions to a knowledge of the Garfields of England, whose habitat was near Rugby in Northamptonshire and Warwickshire. They were mostly small yeomen and husbandmen, but some gained wealth as merchants in London. Connection with our American Garfields is not yet established.

M. René Doumic, in the *Revue Bleue* and in the course of an article on Gabriele d'Annunzio (of whom it has more than once been question in these columns), says that the Italian author has become as much the mode in Paris as was Tolstoi a few years ago. Count Melchior de Vogüé, who introduced the Russian novelists to the French public, has performed the same office for their Italian brother. The *Revue de Paris* publishes a translation of an early novel of D'Annunzio's. 'L'Innocente' appears in the *Temps* under the title of 'L'Intrus,' while 'Il Trionfo della Morte' appears, or is about to appear, in French dress in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*.

—A correspondent writes:

"In a note concerning Seiler's book showing by the etymology of borrowed words the things which Germans have borrowed from abroad, you remark that 'we call a fowl which is a native of the western hemisphere a turkey, while the French seek its origin in India (*Dinde*), and the Germans in Calcutta (*Kalkutischer Hahn*).' These names have been a puzzle to all lexicographers and have not been clearly accounted for by any, while they seem to imply an ignorance which may not have existed. You take it for granted that the givers of them did not know the fowl to be a native of the western hemisphere. The fact is, that when the names were given America was held to be a section of Asia, while India or Turkey still stood in the minds of the namers for all Asia more fully than we of the United States now stand for Americans. The turkey came to Europe from a part of America which still derives its name from India, and the French called that fowl *d'Inde* because they received it from the West Indies (Indies Occidentales), or from America (see Littré, s. v. *Dindé*; 'etym. *de* et *Inde* [Amérique; l'Amérique fut d'abord nommé Inde]'). No thought of our India. As for Germans, in seeking a name for the stranger who was to push their goose from her stool, they could not look to Calcutta, which had no existence till long afterward. Their name came from Calicut, a thousand miles away. Before Columbus had sighted the American main, Da Gama had landed in that Asiatic city. It was natural to call the turkey by the name of the port to which that fowl would be brought from the American province for export. Viewing Turkey and Tartary as essentially one, and also indissoluble from America, it was to be expected that the English would take a name for the new fowl from the predominant state of Asia and not from an outlying corner of it. According to Winsor ('Columbus,' p. 616), it took a full century for the entanglement of the coasts of Asia and America which Columbus had imagined, to be practically eradicated from maps. English, French, and Germans knew that turkeys were discovered in Mexico by Cortez in 1518, but Mexico was in trans-Gangetic India. The English may have believed that, as Fuller states ('Worthies' i., p. 431), bluff Hal had eaten turkey in 1519. They may have seen it earlier as a rarity brought by Cabot from Newfoundland. But that island belonged to the Grand Cham of Asia. They must have named it after the Asiatic Power just then striding to universal empire rather than after its unknown Mexican or northern coasts. It would seem, then, that the French did not seek a name in our India, nor the English in our Turkey; least of all did the Germans in Calcutta. While the hemisphere in which the turkey had his native habitat is now Western, it was Eastern when that fowl received its names in Christendom."

—In the current number of the *Architectural Record* Prof. W. H. Goodyear treats in a

novel way the interesting subject of curves in the longer lines of ancient architecture. The title of his article, "The Origin of Greek Horizontal Curves," is curiously non-descriptive of what is to follow, and the paper itself is written in very awkward English and with a contempt which almost seems wilful for the great virtue of consecutiveness in reasoning and in presentation of the subject. The paper is important, however. It contains an account of the discovery and the measuring of the curves and the sloping lines of the Parthenon, by Pennethorne, Hofer and Schaubert and Penrose, and mentions the little-known fact that Mr. Pennethorne discovered in 1833, and announced in his book forty years later, the existence of curves in the horizontal lines of the temple at Medinet Habu. The author's own contributions to knowledge in this unfamiliar field are contained in his account of measurements made in other Egyptian buildings, at Karnak, Luxor, and Edfu, and in the famous and often cited building at Nîmes, the largest Roman temple except the round Pantheon which has kept its roof and its general outline for us, and the best-preserved Roman building we have, always with the same exception: the *Maison Carrée*. In this familiar friend of travellers and theme of writers and students he has found curves where straight lines had always been assumed—in the entablature, in the line of bases of the engaged columns, and in the stylobate on which those columns rest. The curves observed and verified by Prof. Goodyear are, however, in horizontal planes, not, like those of the Parthenon stylobate, so carefully set forth by Mr. Penrose, rising vertically, or nearly so, from the ends toward the middle. A horizontal curve in the seemingly level sky-line of a long building will of course produce the effect of up-and-down curvature when the spectator is placed on a much lower or a much higher level. And it is this which is the chief and most important series of facts which Mr. Goodyear has to announce. It is indeed important, and a great step in a progress toward full knowledge of a subject as yet little understood.

—The State Historical Society of Wisconsin is jubilant over a vote of the Legislature on April 18, appropriating $180,000 for the preservation and accommodation of the Society's collections. This sum is simply for the erection of a fire-proof building, a site for this and surrounding space sufficient to insure safety from fire being freely given by the University. This Wisconsin Society, organized in 1849, is not a year younger than the State. Its local habitation was first a corner in the Territorial capitol, then a disused prayer-meeting room—then half a church basement. In 1866, before the completion of the State capitol, it was installed in its three largest apartments except the legislative halls. Ten years ago a wing was added, largely for its use, to the State edifice, but this addition proved a disappointment. Architecturally it was not adapted to the needs of the Society, and it was so poorly built that it fell down in construction, killing several persons. The accumulations are fast outgrowing their quarters, and their weight threatens a collapse. Worst of all, the historical wing, itself by no means fire-proof, and the main body of the capitol where the carelessness of any one in a hundred employees would precipitate a conflagration, are as closely joined as the Siamese twins. Such a catastrophe has been already more than once a hair-breadth 'scape. Pondering these facts, the Legislature, though times are hard, felt it wrong to leave its historic jewels longer "even in the force and road of casualty." The bound volumes in the Wisconsin Library are now 86,258, the pamphlets well-nigh the same number. Of its 8,000 files of newspapers, 735 date from before the year 1800. A full catalogue of this last department, with much bibliographical matter, is now in press. An alphabetical catalogue of seven volumes, including pamphlets, has been printed, and also several finding lists, as of works relating to the civil war, etc. A card catalogue is also completed. Twelve octavos filled with collections regarding the State's history have been published. In the museum are portraits of more than a hundred prominent pioneers, still more specimens of prehistoric pottery, Indian relics illustrative of aboriginal life, and a treasure of copper implements which, when exhibited at the Philadelphia centennial, was adjudged the best in the world.

—The third volume of Mr. Conway's 'Writings of Thomas Paine' (Putnams) shows "Common Sense" deep in political agitation and speculation, first in England and then in France. Against the prosecutions set on foot against him in England he protests vigorously, reiterating the leading conclusions of his 'Rights of Man,' and valiantly attacking the "placemen and pensioners," with Burke as their idol. With the American experience fresh in his memory, he naturally lays great stress upon a constitution; and it was while he was deep in his expositions to the English of the advantages of the American form of government that he was called to France a "citizen" and a member of the Convention. Mr. Conway's industry has brought to light a number of interesting papers prepared at this time and during Paine's imprisonment. After his release were penned the notorious bitter letter to Washington and the two pamphlets, 'Decline and Fall of the English System of Finance' and 'Agrarian Justice,' both intended for English consumption. Returning to America, Paine wrote a series of letters to the "Citizens of the United States," valuable for the sidelight they cast on Revolutionary history. We cannot but think Mr. Conway's enthusiasm has led him to include what may not have been written by Paine. The paper on Royalty (p. 101) seems to call for some proof of its being Paine's, though none is given. We note some careless proof-reading. Corneille Paw is twice given "Cormelle, Paw," and Gen. Greene's name is twice misspelt. Sieyès is, so far as we have observed, never accented correctly, and French names and words generally fare badly in this respect (see pp. viii, xiv, 4, 101, 127, etc.). On p. 164 we meet with "Colloit d'Herbois."

—Mr. Conway prints in full the remarkable series of memorials and letters addressed to Monroe by Paine when in the Luxemburg and apparently unknown to him when writing his 'Life of Paine.' We have read carefully this new and interesting material, with the editor's "historical introduction," in a spirit ready to be converted to his theory that Washington was the cause of Paine's imprisonment and condemnation to the guillotine, and that Morris was the deep plotter and responsible agent in this matter. We confess that we remain not only unconvinced, but of a belief that Mr. Conway has given a labored explanation of what is a very simple matter. Paine had accepted the title of "citizen of France." He sat in the Convention, representing a district of France, received pay as a representative, assisted in framing a constitution for the State, and voted on every subject before the Convention—even on the King's death. He was associated with the faction opposed to Robespierre, and naturally fell under his displeasure. Any accusation in such troublous times would be sufficient to throw him into prison, and an American Minister could properly only question the legality of the act and ask that Paine be given a fair trial. Indeed, legality could hardly be pleaded when the will of a tyrant was supreme. That Morris, in great personal danger himself, could deliberately "plot" this imprisonment and carry it through, is doubtful, and is not proved by the documents. That Washington was active in it, is even more improbable, and it is hardly necessary to point to the President's failing intellect to account for such an improbability. We can no more accept Mr. Conway's charge against Morris of having kept Monroe out of office for a time, as Monroe in his letter freely explains that incident, and without blame to Morris.

—More raw material for the projected English Dialect Dictionary comes to us in the shape of three fresh issues of the English Dialect Society (London: Henry Frowde; New York: Macmillan). The most bulky and important of these is the conclusion of the Rev. Oliver Heslop's Glossary of Northumberland Words (Mowband to Z), which abounds, like the previous parts, in terms associated with the coaling industry of Newcastle-on-Tyne, with Bewick's art and literature. A "Newcastle cloak" is a perforated tub formerly clapt upon the head and shoulders of a drunkard like a poncho, and so worn through the streets in punishment. "Newcastle hospitality" was partly responsible for this degrading spectacle, as it implied an excessive supply of drink. "Newcastle roads" meant railways "originally . . . made by laying down upon sleepers (dormants) two parallel wooden rails, each about four inches square." This was in the coal district as far back as 1632-1649. The settlers of the Massachusetts Bay Colony used freely many obsolete words of this vocabulary, as *pink*, 'an old-fashioned type of collier vessel,' and *pind*, 'to impound,' whence the New England town officer a *pinder*. The game *shinny* and the name still flourish among us, and *skedaddle* was revived (not adopted) on the Tyneside by its American vogue in the rebellion. *Scunner* (sb.) for 'dislike,' *through-other* for 'disordered,' *whig* for 'whey,' we have heard on the lips of Pennsylvanians. There is also a thinner Glossary of Words and Phrases used in S. E. Worcestershire, full of quaintness, as in the expressions *atternone folks*, 'people who are in the habit of beginning work late in the day,' *iffing and offing*, 'in a state of indecision.' The inhabitants of this district pronounce *fault* fawt, just as in Northumberland they say saat for *salt*. This glossary concludes with some entertaining folk-lore. Finally, we have the still slenderer Folk-Phrases of Four Counties (Gloucester, Staffordshire, Warwickshire, and Worcestershire), in which we have marked an excess of amusing examples: "A face that would stop a clock"; "his hair is as straight as a pound of candles"; of filial resemblance—"his father will never be dead as long as *he* is alive," and in general, of a close likeness—"to be the very spawn of a person"; for saints, sinners, and the Beecher family—"the people of Clent are all Hills, Waldrons, or devils"; "'tis a blessed heat, though, as the old woman said when her house was on fire."

—We have received from Westermann & Co. the first of a series of treatises on the oldest "Mappæmundi," edited by Dr. Konrad Miller of Stuttgart. The publication is intended to cover a comparison of the most significant world-maps now existing which are of earlier date than the fourteenth century, making it a convenient companion to Nordenskiöld's great atlas of engraved maps. This initial issue concerns the different codices of the comment on the Apocalypse written by the Spanish monk Beatus in the latter part of the eighth century, a treatise of interest to the students of the early cartography because there often goes with it a world-map, varying, of course, with the date of each particular transcript of the comment. Davezac, twenty-five years ago, had unearthed twenty-two of these codices in different parts of Europe; but Miller has increased the roll to thirty, mainly dating back to the interval between the tenth and thirteenth centuries. Ten of these have the world-map, and of these only three have before been known. He gives the first place to one now annexed to the St. Sever Codex in the great Paris Library. When this manuscript was received from the Marquis de Paulmy's collection in 1790, the map was lacking, but seventy-five years later it was recovered by Davezac, though at the time he did not recognize its connection with the St. Sever manuscript. Dr. Miller now gives us for the first time a full-sized facsimile in colors of this interesting map, and we read the legends clearly in his reproduction, which could not be done either in the representation given by Cortambert in 1877, or in the photographic copy published in 1883. The reproduction given by Kretschmer more recently in the great atlas published by the Berlin Geographical Society is a mere sketch, but it serves a good purpose in that collection among a series of world-maps of the Middle Ages. There is no branch of historical study receiving greater impetus from the fast-developing processes of reproduction than the study of the older maps.

SIMPKINSON'S LAUD.

Life and Times of William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury. By C. H. Simpkinson, M.A., Balliol College, Oxford, Rector of Farnham and Examining Chaplain to the Lord Bishop of Winchester. With portrait. London: Murray. 1894. 8vo, pp. viii, 307.

NOTHING can be less true than Carlyle's saying that the execution of Charles I. dealt at flunkeyism a blow of which it has gone about sick ever since. On few things has flunkeyism more manifestly thriven. Had Charles, like James II., died in exile, he would never have been Charles the martyr. Churches would never have been dedicated to him as a saint, nor would many copies of 'Eikon Basilike' have been sold. So with Laud. Had he been allowed to end his days in impotency and peace, the anniversary of his death would never have been commemorated, as it was the other day, by the High Church party, with solemn services and processions, nor would a panegyrical Life of him by Mr. Simpkinson have appeared. His execution, after a delay which doubled its cruelty, and with hardly a pretence of law, was the act of the morose Presbyterians, English and Scotch, the gloomy hour of whose ascendancy it marks. It was one of the worst deeds of the Civil War.

Macaulay's portrait of Laud is in his usual vein of rhetorical exaggeration. It depicts Laud's temper as "diabolical," represents him as "hungering for Puritans to pillory and mangle," as "performing grimaces and antics in his cathedral," and "keeping a Diary which can never be seen without forgetting the vices of his heart in the imbecility of his intellect." Laud was testy, and perhaps sometimes insolent. He was reactionary, arbitrary as a ruler both ecclesiastical and political, and he took part, to his great discredit and ultimate ruin, in the infliction of cruel and ignominious punishments on some of the literary assailants of his system. But he was neither diabolical nor despicable. His Diary contains some evidences of a weak belief in dreams and omens, which, however, could hardly be taken as proofs of imbecility in the days in which the *Sortes Virgilianæ* were consulted by men of no mean intellect, while astrology retained its hold on such a man of science as Kepler and such a man of action as Wallenstein. Macaulay winds up by calling Laud "a ridiculous old bigot." A bigot is exactly what Laud was not. He had neither the vices nor the excuses of that character. Hallam, whose judgment of the archbishop is severe enough, says, with truth, that he never showed bigotry in the usual sense of that word. His faults were those of a martinet. A natural propensity to regulate other people had been enhanced in him by the exercise of petty despotism in the headship of a college. An academical reformer and benefactor, both in an eminent degree, and really learned himself, he respected the privileges of learning in other men, and was not hostile to free inquiry when carried on by such inquirers as Hales. He wanted common people to abstain from the discussion of spiritual questions, and be satisfied with the truth provided for them by authority. He also wanted universal conformity to his system of church government and ritual. The nation refused to accommodate him in either respect, and so it and he came to blows.

Hallam seems to think it open to doubt whether Laud was even in reality religious. We can hardly share the doubt; but Mr. Simpkinson, who, for a rehabilitator and a hagiologist, is candid, not concealing or perverting facts, though he puts his own glosses upon them, fairly admits that his saint "was frankly ambitious," and had been long desiring to mount to high place before he got there. Nor was he squeamish about the ladder. His scandalous compliance with the guilty passion of Lord Mountjoy, whom he married to the divorced Lady Rich, is piously ascribed by the biographer to the ardor of friendship. Friendship is also the name given to his not less scandalous connection with the profligate Buckingham. As Bishop of St. David's, instead of residing in his diocese and doing his duty to his people, he remained at Court to push his fortunes. When Mr. Simpkinson speaks of the promotion of Abbot to the Primacy as an intrigue, he probably means little more than that the Puritan (which in his eyes is the wrong) influence prevailed in that appointment. But it was certainly by an intrigue, and a very dirty intrigue, that Abbot was first, on pretence of his having committed an accidental homicide, disgraced and afterwards suspended in order to make way for the ascendancy of Laud. Laud's idea was that the best way of strengthening the Church was to put worldly power into the hands of bishops. Besides grasping the prime-ministership for himself, he got the treasurership for Juxon, and political offices for ecclesiastics in Scotland and Ireland. After Juxon's appointment, he flattered himself that he had done for the Church all that could be done. In fact, he had exposed her to fatal odium as the organ of arbitrary government, and paved the way for her overthrow. Mr. Simpkinson calls Laud's policy "a great experiment of ruling England by religion and for religion." "By bishops and for bishops," would have been nearer the truth. Could there be a doubt as to the monstrous impropriety and folly of thus uniting spiritual and temporal power in the same hands? The biographer labors to show that the army provided by Laud's Government for the subjugation of Scotland was sufficient. How came a minister of Christ to be meddling with armies at all?

Apart from Laud's infirmities of temper, and the special misdeeds into which they betrayed him, it is not difficult to understand his ecclesiastical position and do justice to his aims. The Elizabethan combination of Catholicism and Protestantism under the form of a compromise did well enough, and might seem to its authors a triumph of their statesmanship so long as there was little life in either part of it. But when, by the teachings and efforts of High Church divines on one side and of Puritan and Presbyterian divines on the other, life had been awakened in both parts, a conflict inevitably ensued. It then appeared that the proper domain of compromise is interest, not conviction. Nothing could have averted the conflict but disestablishment, for which only a few extreme and persecuted sectaries were yet prepared; the Puritan and Presbyterian being not less firmly convinced than the Anglican of the duty of the State to maintain the true religion and compel all citizens to conform. Ritualism has too deep a seat in human nature and has reappeared too often to allow us to regard it as a mere exhalation from the pit of Tophet. It was a matter of course that High Churchmen like Laud should desire and should use such power as they possessed to introduce ritualistic order and ceremony, in which the Puritan, equally as a matter of course, saw the symbols and harbingers of Popery. The symbols and harbingers of Popery in truth they were. Mr. Simpkinson ridicules the suspiciousness of the Puritans, which did sometimes take absurd forms. But we have had the whole play acted over again in the present century. Newman and his party ridiculed the suspicions of the Protestant fools who said that their teachings and practices would lead to Rome. They maintained, just as Laud and his party had, that ritualism, instead of leading to Romanism, was its true antidote. In each case it proved that the fools were right, and that the principles of sacerdotalism, sacramentalism, and ritualism, from whatever source they may have been imbibed, have a tendency to draw men in the direction of the place to which they belong. This was shown in the time of Laud, as afterwards in that of Newman, by a secession to Rome, including several people of social and political prominence. The alarm created by Panzani's mission among the Protestants was perfectly just. What Laud's own leanings as to reunion with Rome were, we shall perhaps know better when the Roman archives have been thoroughly explored. Outwardly he maintained an anti-Papal attitude. From submission to the Papacy his love of power and pride of place would have deterred him. But he might have been willing, as Dr. Pusey was when he wrote his 'Eirenicon,' to come to terms with Rome if Rome would have consented to treat on an equal footing, which she never has done, and never, without ceasing to be herself, can do.

The part of Mr. Simpkinson's work most open to exception, as it seems to us, is his treatment of the political character of Laud. This he tries to present as that of the minister of a popular monarchy wrestling with an aristocracy which defied the law and oppressed the people. Unquestionably there was an aristocratic element in the original opposition to Charles's Government, as well as a jealousy among the lay lords of the intrusion of churchmen into the great offices of state. The rebellion presented at first a faint analogy to the revolt of the feudal nobility of France against the autocratic and centralizing policy of Richelieu and Mazarin. But the men of London and other commercial cities who supplied the financial sinews of the movement were not aristocratic, nor were the freeholders of Buckinghamshire who rallied to the support of Hampden, or the yeomen of the eastern counties who charged under Cromwell. There can be no reasonable doubt what Laud and Strafford in their secret correspondence meant by the watchword Thorough. Their aim was government by prerogative—absolute monarchy, in fact, though Parliamentary forms were to be maintained. It does not follow that they were not conscientious in that aim, or that there was not something to be said for enlightened autocracy against the rule of a popular assembly, as a popular assembly was in those days, before the diffusion of political knowledge or the existence of a press. We know that an autocracy enlightened by a Parliament was the idea of Bacon. Richelieu, no doubt, seemed to himself to have wrought a great and good work. So, in the repression of feudal anarchy, he had; but he had also, by centralization and absolutism, laid the train for the French Revolution.

VON HOLST'S FRENCH REVOLUTION.

The French Revolution Tested by Mirabeau's Career. Twelve lectures on the History of the French Revolution, delivered at the Lowell Institute, Boston, Mass. By H. Von Holst. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. 1894. 2 vols., pp. 258–264.

Of the making of books on the French Revolution there is no end. The period has attracted, and continues to attract, writers of every type of thought and historians of every variety of ability and training. Philosophical writers declare of the Revolution, as Mirabeau declared of Paris, that the period is a sphinx whose secret must be dragged by force into the light of open day; but hitherto all their efforts have been in vain. Descriptive writers have used their best powers of imagination and their most hysterical diction in endeavoring to portray the life of the most picturesque epoch in modern history; and they too have failed because they trusted to imagination rather than to the painful process of research. Serious-minded historians have, indeed, attempted to narrate the events of the Revolution with accuracy and precision, but they have been generally caught either by the Scylla of philosophical disquisition or in the Charybdis of picturesque word-painting.

The title of Dr. Von Holst's book accurately indicates its contents. He has neither written a history of the first two years of the French Revolution nor a life of Mirabeau, but, in his own words, has tested the Revolution by Mirabeau's career. The writing of history in the form of an elaborate and explanatory biography of some conspicuous figure has often been tried, but never with complete success. Masson's 'Life of Milton' is probably the most glaring example in the English language of the impossibility of effectively combining history and biography, and its failure has naturally warned off others from attempting the impossible. To the history of the French Revolution also the method has been applied. Hamel's 'Histoire de Robespierre,' for instance, is not only a biography of the Pontiff of the Supreme Being and an enthusiastic effort to defend his character and actions, but is also a history of the Revolution from the Robespierrist point of view. Dr. Robinet in his 'Danton,' Georges Avenel in his 'Anacharsis Cloots,' and others, have found it necessary, in explaining or defending their heroes, to investigate minutely the history of their times, and have therefore written histories rather than biographies. Unfortunately, no skilled writer has yet attempted to deal with the lives of the only two men who played a conspicuous part in the Constituent Assembly, in the three distinct phases of the history of the Convention, and during the Directory, and whose careers were prolonged throughout the period of the Empire—namely, Merlin de Douai and Sieyès—although their lives would better illustrate the entire course of the history of the Revolution than those of political leaders like Robespierre and Danton, who did not survive to observe the immediate results of the period of storm and destruction. Dr. Von Holst had, however, most excellent reasons for selecting the career and character of Mirabeau as the peg on which to hang his reflections upon the history of the Revolution, for, although Mirabeau witnessed only the earliest scenes of the great drama, he was the only man of his time who understood the purport of what was passing in Paris and in France, and who possessed from his past experience and political genius an insight into the meaning of events.

The reputation of Mirabeau as a political philosopher has suffered from the fact that he has hitherto been studied solely as a principal actor in the early history of the French Revolution. It has been too much the practice to confine the study of political philosophy to the works of famous theorists like Hobbes and Locke, Montesquieu and Rousseau, whose speculations have influenced the history of political thought, and to neglect the works of the few great practical politicians who considered politics as a science, and, relying on their experience rather than on theories, have stated conclusions of greater value to political philosophy than the vague imaginings of the writers who are generally designated political philosophers. In the whole range of literature since the days of Aristotle no writers have expressed so clearly or analyzed so accurately the passions, the hopes, the intentions, and the actions of men living in a state of political rest or political unrest as Machiavelli, De Retz, and Mirabeau, and these great thinkers were essentially practical politicians. A careful study of the 'Prince' and the 'Discourses on Livy' of Machiavelli, of the Memoirs of Cardinal de Retz, and of the Notes for the Court contained in the 'Correspondence of Mirabeau with La Marck,' gives more insight into the probable action of men and of communities and of nations under any given conditions than all the speculations of the most distinguished theorists. From this point of view Mirabeau has never yet had justice done to him, and, with Machiavelli and De Retz, his importance as a political teacher of profound wisdom will never be recognized until political philosophy is rightly understood to mean something more than the examination of theories or the explanation of the inception and growth of existing political institutions.

Von Holst—and it is not the least of his merits—understands Mirabeau's greatness as a political philosopher as well as a practical politician. But it is with the latter side of Mirabeau's character that he is mainly concerned in his latest book. No previous writer has grasped more firmly the fact that Mirabeau's surpassing merit as a statesman lay in the fact that he thoroughly understood the political situation. While the vast majority of Frenchmen were dreaming roseate dreams of the peaceful regeneration of France, and fancying that a Declaration of the Rights of Man and representative institutions would peacefully inaugurate a new era for France, Mirabeau saw beneath the surface and understood that "revolutions are not made with rose-water," and that anarchy was the almost inevitable result of the swinging back of the pendulum from despotism. The pathetic part of Mirabeau's destiny was that he could not make others see what he himself saw so clearly; his was the voice of one crying in the wilderness, and the words of ripe wisdom and experience were wasted on the dull impotence of the Court and the excited expectations of the popular party. Clearly, although the task has been attempted before, does Von Holst set forth the efforts of Mirabeau to make the blind to see and the deaf to hear. Distrusted by the Court, which he alone could save, hated by the majority of the Constituent Assembly, which trembled at his oratory, feared his ambition, and could not comprehend his aims, he had to solace himself for being reduced to political insignificance with the ardent attachment of his personal friends and the love of the poorest classes in Paris, who dimly felt the greatness that was in him, and termed him, in their market slang, "our little mother Mirabeau." With justice and truth, Von Holst points the wisdom of Mirabeau and his vigorous efforts to save France from the disasters that were surely approaching, by dwelling on the benevolent ineptitude of Necker and the empty vanity of Lafayette. Again and again he insists on the lamentable behavior of Lafayette during the early period of the French Revolution, and with absolute sureness of judgment he says: "Not many persons who have cut a prominent figure in great times have lost so much by having the search-light of critical history turned upon them as Lafayette" (vol. ii. p. 58). But even if there had been no Lafayette and no Necker to oppose Mirabeau and to thwart his most cherished schemes, it does not follow that he would have succeeded in imposing his ideas on the Court or the people; his career previous to the Revolution had not unnaturally ruined his reputation, and it is not to be wondered at that respectable people found it hard to believe that the desperate roué, whose escapades and family troubles had made him notorious throughout France, was the one man able to see clearly the progress of events, and capable of directing it. Mirabeau himself knew that it was his bad reputation which nullified his political influence, and bitterly did he feel, when too late, the fatal result of his former passionate and disorderly life.

Dr. Von Holst disarms verbal criticism by stating in a prefatory note that he has published in the volumes under review the exact words of the lectures he delivered at the Lowell Institute. "This accounts," he says, "for some peculiarities of style. I have amply availed myself of the liberties deemed admissible in speaking. But I have undoubtedly

taken also other liberties with the English language, simply because I did not know any better." It is as a rule more agreeable to listen to popular lectures than to read them after they have been printed, just as it is more delightful to deliver lectures than to read the proof-sheets of their text as they pass through the press. Both these impressions are forced upon a critic by a careful and prolonged perusal of this 'French Revolution Tested by Mirabeau's Career,' which is chiefly valuable because the eminent historian confirms so strongly the opinion now generally held of the marked superiority shown by Mirabeau over all the statesmen of his time in genuine honesty, rare perspicacity, and profound political wisdom.

DEAN CHURCH.

Life and Letters of Dean Church. Edited by his daughter Mary C. Church, with a preface by the Dean of Christ Church. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

A SMALL duodecimo of 422 pp. is an agreeable variation from the biographies of Trench and Tait and Stanley, each in two volumes octavo, and the biography of Pusey, which doubles their amount, especially as it does not appear that Miss Church could not have successfully competed with the bulk of her forerunners' books. Such was the breadth of Church's mind that its various products might easily have tempted his biographer to an expansive exposition. Naturally the daughter did not care to be the critic of his life and writings, however well equipped she found herself for a sound appreciation; and to what little criticism we have here she has helped herself from others' hands, first in an elaborate preface by Dr. Paget, Dean of Christ Church, Oxford, a son-in-law of Dean Church, a piece of admirable discrimination, and next in a section by Canon Scott Holland of St. Paul's, a very noisy celebration of the Dean's cathedral administration, in really painful contrast with the Dean's quiet tone and modest self-depreciation. There are also interesting recollections from Dr. Barrett, in 1894 the president of the Congregational Union. The book has one exasperating feature in common with all English ecclesiastical biography: it speaks of the Dean of this cathedral and the Bishop of that diocese without giving the name of the incumbent. Now, not only do these great men die, but, while they live, preferment is a movable feast, and they go from place to place. One must have a better memory than Macaulay's for his senior wranglers not to be baffled here even with a file of *Whitaker's Almanack* to fall back upon. A little trouble on the writer's part would save the reader a good deal.

The life of Dean Church lends itself with singular felicity to the purposes of his biographer. He went to Oxford when he was eighteen years old; he stayed at Oxford, as student and teacher, eighteen years, at Whatley nineteen, and then nineteen at St. Paul's. But Miss Church, instead of giving a chapter to each of these periods of so nearly equal length, has given only ten pages to his youth, and has incorporated these with the chapter which covers the entire period of his Oxford residence. Yet his youth had much of special interest, much that was influential on his later life. That this had in it not a little that made it strongly individual, and distinguished it agreeably from the lives of many others to whose party he belonged, is to some extent explained by the fact that his father was an Irish merchant and his mother Anglo-German, that his grandparents were Quakers, and that his father was not "disunited" from their connection until 1814. This was the year of his marriage. Richard William Church, the subject of this memoir, was born at Lisbon April 25, 1815, where his father was engaged in business, but only till the next year, when he went to Italy and resided with his family in Florence until his death in 1828. Thus the boy had thirteen years of Italy, and they made a deep impression on his mind and heart. Leaving Florence when his father died, he did not visit it again for many years, but it remained for him the most fascinating place on earth, and his "Essay on Dante" has an accent of familiarity which no mere visit, however studious and prolonged, could possibly have given it.

His English schooling, like the latter part of Newman's, was intensely evangelical on the religious side, and when he went up to Oxford in 1833 he was sent to Wadham because it had a set of tutors noted for their evangelical sympathies. It was the very year of Keble's sermon (July 14), from which Newman dated the beginning of the Tractarian Movement. He met Newman and Keble for the first time in 1835, but his adhesion to the Tractarians was a matter of very gradual development. The letters are disappointing because they add so little to what we know already of the Movement in "the joyous swing of its advance" before the days of opposition and defeat. We have little even of young Church's personal impressions, mainly because his letters of the time were largely to his mother, and he softened to her as much as possible the sorrow which he knew his Newmanism would entail. His translation of St. Cyril for Newman's series in 1837 marked his definite adhesion, and when in 1838 he was a successful candidate for the Oriel Fellowship, it was understood that he was Newman's man. Mark Pattison was a competitor, and to him we are indebted for the contemporary testimony of another: "There is such a moral beauty about Church that they could not help taking him."

For the meagreness of the story here there is less call for sorrow because in the Dean's 'Oxford Movement' (1891) we have the best account of it that has yet been written. The exception to the average thinness is a long letter to Frederic Rogers, late Lord Blachford, the dearest friend that Church and Newman had in common, about the appearance of 'Tract 90,' and Newman adds a postscript about "the scrape he had got into." If Church's interest in the matter was profound, it is obscured by his humorous treatment of it, especially of Golightly's active and malicious subjection of it to his purposes in paying Newman off for a personal affront. Another letter to Rogers, in 1843, gives an elaborate and very humorous account of the row excited by the degree given to Edward Everett, then American minister to England, and understood to be a Socinian. It was pleaded in extenuation that he conformed in England and would sign the Apostles' Creed. The degree was smuggled in by the Vice Chancellor under cover of the uproar that prevented him (he said) from hearing the *non-placets*. The same year saw Pusey's suspension, and the secessions to Rome were getting ominous; but Church never felt himself to be in any danger. He was one of the proctors at the time of Ward's degradation in February, 1845; and when in connection with that it was proposed to condemn 'Tract 90,' their veto interposed an obstacle to this which could not be overcome. Nevertheless Newman's secession was consummated in the following October. Church was the last of his old friends to visit him on the eve of his departure, but after that they had no communication of any kind for fourteen years. Then the old friendly relations were resumed, and Newman was a visitor at Whatley and made his home at the Deanery during his London visits. Church's letters afford many interesting glimpses of the oratorian and cardinal. His children send him 'Alice's Adventures in Wonderland,' confident of his admiration. In and between the lines Newman's cordial dislike of Manning comes out plainly enough. Stanley's relations to Church at Oxford are particularly interesting because of their subsequent relations in London as Deans of Westminster and St. Paul's, with quite opposite ecclesiastical ideals. Always attractive in his depiction of personal character, Church is never more so than in his letter about Stanley, written soon after his death. Stanley had been very kind to him, and he could not help seeing that the kindness was for him personally, in spite of the line he took and the company he kept. It would appear that, in general, Church was much less dependent on ecclesiastical agreement than Stanley as a basis for friendship or esteem. Nothing in these pages is more beautiful than his cordial appreciation of men from whom he was separated ecclesiastically by an impassable gulf.

In 1852 he went to Whatley, an agricultural village of 200 people near Wells, in Somersetshire. The chapter devoted to his life there is the most interesting in the book, but the interest has very little to do with his duties as a parish clergymen. Concerning these there is little said; but, for "the quiet and still air of delightful studies," there could not be a better place, nor for the friendships that afford us entrance to the secrets of his beautiful and pleasant mind. Church's interest in science is a circumstance that will make his ecclesiastical position more problematical than any other. He wrote so intelligently of the discovery of Neptune that he elicited Le Verrier's ardent approbation. He corresponded frequently with Dr. Asa Gray, the Harvard botanist, and in perfect sympathy with his Darwinian opinions. He was no late convert to these, but, before the appearance of Darwin's epoch making book, took kindly to the famous 'Vestiges,' and in general to the idea of organic evolution. He wondered at the "shortness of thought" that found Darwinism incompatible with ideas of a spiritual order in the world. But towards the 'Essays and Reviews' that came out almost simultaneously, he was much less sympathetic, though the little finger of Darwin was thicker than the loins of that in its suggestion of a coming change. Applauding Darwin, he at the same time applauds Mozley's Bampton lectures on Miracles, and regrets "Stanley's insensibility to the immeasurable difference that miracle or no miracle makes in our ideas of religion." In fact there seem to be two Churches in the field—one secular, scientific, historical, literary, human; the other traditional, ecclesiastical, apologetic. And there are not wanting intimations that the basis of his mind was sceptical, and that he clung to the traditional opinion the more resolutely because he dared not trust himself to his own strength in the wide stream of modern thought.

The change from Whatley to St. Paul's was a remarkable one in point of worldly standing, but many will feel that it was not favorable to Church's genius. He did good work in literature in connection with his cathedral charge, notably the 'Spenser' and the 'Bacon' in the

"English Men of Letters," but he would have done much more in the Whatley rectory. He was too good to waste on the details of business management which a much smaller man could have attended to as well or better. Classed as a Puseyite and Ritualist, he was very different from Pusey in the breadth of his intelligence and sympathy, in the uncloistered quality of his learning and his thought; and as for ritualism, he cared little or nothing for its vestments and its posturings. What he did care for was the liberty of worship in the English Church. Nothing in his letters is so surprising as the absence of any desire on his part to make his way the universal law of doctrine or of ritual. The man is never lost in the official personage, however sometimes fettered and obscured. We always know that he is there with his beautiful intelligence and gentle heart, a man whose praise must be extremely sweet for those who are alive, to find it here; as where it is written of Mr. Goldwin Smith, "I think he has given us up too soon. So much nobleness and elevation are a loss to any society, and we can hardly spare him."

His letters have the apparently inevitable felicity of style that marks his various books, and it is interesting to find one of them written at the request of some one who would learn the secret of his charm. He can only say that he has watched against the temptation to use *unreal* and *fine* words, and read good English, Newman's in particular, with Shakspere's, Wordsworth's, and the rest. It is eloquent for his catholicity that Lucretius was his favorite classic, and Matthew Arnold's books an indispensable resource. But the evidences of this quality are many. His character was transcendent of all sectarian distinctions, and the adherents of every sect will find much to profit them in this practically autobiographic record of his scholarly and thoughtful life.

A History of Spain, from the Earliest Times to the Death of Ferdinand the Catholic. By Ulick Ralph Burke, M.A. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. xx, 384; viii, 360.

We confess to a certain prejudice when taking up these volumes, for there is so much so-called history encumbering library shelves which is only pouring old wine into new vessels that the presumption is against the new claimant on the reader's attention. A fairly close examination of the book has, however, won our respect both for it and for its author. It is true that there is but little new material from inedited sources, but Mr. Burke has sedulously drawn his information from a very wide range of reading, not only on his direct subject, but on all related collateral topics; he has sifted out the more important points and has presented them clearly and impressively. A trustworthy history of Spain within moderate compass, presenting the results of recent researches, is a desideratum for English readers, and this he has succeeded in giving us, from the time of the Roman conquest to the advent of Charles V. and his dreams of a universal monarchy. No land in Europe has a history so varied and so romantic, in none is the national character so sharply accentuated, and it would require especial talents of the Dryasdust order to render the story dull. Mr. Burke has a keen eye for the picturesque, and the antitheses and contrasts of Peninsular annals lose nothing at his hands. Occasionally, indeed, the cautious reader may regard his judgments as too absolute or too vigorously expressed, but this exuberance is pardonable in one who evidently feels an intense interest in the events of his narrative, and an intense pleasure in the narration, and his conclusions as a rule are just, although more moderation in the presentment might be desirable.

There are occasional marks of hasty composition, which a careful revision or a friendly proof-reader would have removed. *Armes blanches* (i. 305) does not mean plate-armor of white steel, but edged weapons as distinguished from fire-arms. Sciarra Colonna did not cuff Boniface VIII. in the Vatican, but at Anagni (i. 286). There was no massacre at Carcassonne in the Albigensian crusades (i. 207, 208). "The enlightened Gregory XIII." was not Pope till a hundred years after the act attributed to him (ii. 189, 190). Confiscation was not an innovation introduced in the Inquisition of Ferdinand and Isabella (ii. 110), but had been remorselessly enforced from the thirteenth century. In vol. ii., p. 173, the battle of Seminara is described as a defeat for the Spaniards, and on p. 175 as a victory. On p. 103 the Inquisitor Torquemada is said to be the nephew of the cardinal of the same name, and on p. 104 is spoken of as his cousin. Such mistakes as these are trifling, and in no way detract from the substantial merits of the work, which we trust may pass to another edition and give the author the chance of removing them, for he evidently is one who is not disposed to spare himself in the perfection of his labors. Possibly in such a revision he may be able to introduce some improvement in the arrangement. He alludes in his preface to the difficulty he encountered as to this, which is self-evident from the very nature of a composite history of half-a-dozen warring States eventually united; but surely it was not necessary to sandwich an elaborate chapter on Spanish music between a narrative of the stirring events which placed Ferdinand and Isabella on the throne and a description of the measures which the new sovereigns took to reorganize the State.

The researches of Dozy have effectually stripped off the legendary glamour which so long glorified the protracted war of the Reconquest, and have enabled us to compare with some approach to accuracy the comparative civilizations of the courts of Cordova and Oviedo—not much to the advantage of the latter. Mr. Burke is under no illusions and does not allow his readers to remain under any. The picture he draws of mediæval rapacity and faithlessness is repulsive but true, and may serve to relieve the regrets of those who grieve over the progressive deterioration of modern times. His presentation of the character of Isabella is far removed from the rhapsodical adoration which has surrounded her with an aureole, and is fairly just, though we think he estimates unduly her share in the rehabilitation of the kingdom. The portrait presented of Ferdinand is, perhaps, too highly colored, for though it would be difficult to exaggerate the evil portion of his nature, he was not wholly bad according to the standard of the period. He was simply a typical man of his time, and his time was one which had few redeeming features. The sketch presented of his miserable ending, after a life of almost uninterrupted success, is vigorous and impressive, and conveys a wholesome lesson as to the worthlessness of human ambition.

We shall be glad to meet Mr. Burke again, especially if he will complete his work by carrying out the history of Spain from its apogee under the early Hapsburgs to its perigee under the later Bourbons.

The Works of Edgar Allan Poe. Newly collected and edited, with memoir, critical introductions, and notes, by Edmund Clarence Stedman and George Edward Woodberry. Vols. I.-III. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. 1895.

Forty five years have elapsed since the collected works of Edgar Allan Poe were published by his literary executor, Dr. Rufus William Griswold. The recent expiration of copyright has been taken advantage of by Messrs. Stone & Kimball for the publication of a revised and probably definitive edition in ten volumes. The editors, Prof. G. E. Woodberry and Mr. E. C. Stedman, have collated the various texts published during Poe's life, and, aided by his own marginal MS. notes, have doubtless arrived at the form finally approved by him. They have not tried to show the nature of Poe's revision of his prose, but have given a complete variorum of the poems.

To Mr. Woodberry has fallen the somewhat difficult task of writing the introductory memoir, the bare sketch of the author's unfortunate and unlovely actual life. The facts Mr. Woodberry has to deal with are not pleasant; by contrast with the brilliancy of Poe's literary achievement, they are pitifully sordid and squalid. The things he is known to have done need all the benefit of stress upon what he resisted to make him appear, outside of his genius, worthy of any more kindly sentiment than tolerant contempt. This memoir seems to us to express contempt without tolerance. The tone is given not by the necessary narration of that sequence of disasters entailed by Poe's constant relapses into drunkenness and by his vain and irritable temper, but by the mention of insignificant incidents which, in a short memoir not designedly censorious, might as well have been omitted. Such are the references to his questionable method of increasing his reputation; his untruthfulness in trifles; his working off on an admiring lady a poem long before addressed to a predecessor in his homage, and other unimportant but depreciatory facts. Prof. Woodberry is not guilty of deliberate disparagement, for he includes the best testimony to be found in Poe's favor; but he gives the impression of one whose attitude is not merciful to a fellow-man whose worst faults were as surely congenital as was his genius.

To Mr. Stedman is allotted the far more grateful duty of the literary introduction. That to the five volumes of tales (included in the first volume) displays the best critical spirit, being illuminative and sympathetic, cordial yet temperate. It shows how naturally the tales fall into well-defined groups, discusses their animating motives, form, and style, and their author's strength and limitations. Especially valuable as a corrective of harsh impressions derived from the memoir is his comment on the man as revealed in the work. He finds all of that, even the tales composed with purely artistic intent, vividly self-explanatory. "Their author," he says, "was a being of extreme physical and spiritual sensibility, proudly reliant upon his mental force, and terribly cognizant of his infirmities; so intent upon the one and the other as to bound a world by his own horizon." This seems to us an exact expression of the problem of Poe's character. The clearest inference from his work is that nothing really *was* for him except his own imagination, his own intellect, his own temperament. Unfortunately, his recognition of his defects took the shape of passionate resentment, passionate exculpation, minute reasoning-why, not of cool criticism;

hence the intensity of self-presentation in fiction and the woful failure in living.

The new edition is in every respect a very beautiful one, a fitting tribute to an apostle of the creed that "in perfect beauty consists the fullest Truth."

Ueber Vorkommen und Gewinnung der nutzbaren Mineralien in der Südafrikanischen Republik (Transvaal), unter besonderer Berücksichtigung des Goldbergbaues: Bericht . . . von Schmeisser, Bergrath. Mit 19 Karten und Tafeln. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer. Pp. 150.

THE teachings of political economists and scientists, notably of the great Austrian geologist, Prof. Ed. Suess, also a financier and member of Parliament, who attempts to prove in his published works that the available supply of gold in the earth's crust is already showing signs of exhaustion, had produced so much uneasiness in Germany as a gold-standard country that, under the direction of the Minister of Commerce and Industry, one of its official mining engineers, Herr Schmeisser, was sent in the summer of 1893 to the gold-fields of South Africa to examine into the mineral resources of that region and report upon its industrial conditions and the probable permanence of its supply of gold. The report, which has recently been published in a handsome royal 8vo volume, with abundant maps and sections, as the result of his four months' examination, is most opportune at the present moment, when gold-mining has received such a sudden awakening the world over. It has hitherto been difficult to learn what little is accurately known with regard to the geology or industrial conditions of this far distant region, and most accounts have appeared to be tinged with the exaggeration common to new mining districts. Herr Schmeisser's report deals, in German thoroughness, not only with the geology and mineral resources of the country, but also with its history and politico-legal relations, and has apparently been prepared with discrimination and due conservatism, yet his cold statement of facts shows a condition of things that might readily have aroused the most phlegmatic nature to enthusiasm.

As not only the language but the figures are intended for a German audience, we present a few of the striking facts in an English dress. The great bulk of the gold product of South Africa comes from the Witwatersrand district, though there are many other mining districts in which valuable auriferous quartz veins exist, and where already important mines have been opened. In the Witwatersrand the gold is found in beds (there called "reefs") of conglomerate, of which there are some forty or fifty in a sort of basin which dips southward in the Orange Free State. It has been considered by some that these conglomerate beds are old placer deposits, but the microscopical examination of specimens brought back by Herr Schmeisser seems to negative this idea. The outcrops of these beds have been traced for about fifty miles, but only a small number of the beds, and these for not more than a fifth of the distance, are at present actively developed. Within this area there were over seventy active mines in 1893, the deepest workings of which were not over 500 feet below the surface. Drill cores had been obtained, however, from five times this depth, which showed that conglomerates exist at that point which are equally rich with those in the mine workings.

The fact that the product of the mines is reported in unrefined gold, which varies in value, introduces an element of uncertainty into the figures of production, which are given here, however, in the estimated equivalent in fine gold. The product of the Witwatersrand district has increased from less than $500,000 in 1887 to over $26,000,000 in 1893. Herr Schmeisser estimates that the product for 1894 will be found to be $36,000,000, and that this will be doubled in less than ten years. He also enters into a somewhat elaborate calculation of the amount of gold that will have been produced in this district when the mine workings in the area now developed shall have reached vertical depths of 2,500 and 4,000 feet respectively, at which he considers it possible that the ores may still be extracted at a profit. These figures, which are in general accord with the estimates already made by the American mining engineer, Hamilton Smith, are for the lesser depth 1,070 millions of dollars, which is approximately the gold product of California up to 1890, and for the greater depth 1,745 millions, which is but little less than that of the whole United States up to 1892. If the estimates of Herr Schmeisser for South Africa and of Director Preston for the United States of the gold product for 1894 prove correct, the world's gold product for that year will exceed 180 millions, which is nearly 40 per cent. greater than that of 1891, and is double that of 1874.

The British Fleet. By Commander Charles N. Robinson, R.N. With illustrations. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.

WE have, in this stout but not unhandy volume, an interesting treatise upon the functions, organization, administration, and personnel of the British fleet. The subject is dealt with exhaustively, so far as the size of the volume will permit, and in an authoritative manner, both as to the origin of the navy, its history, and its present state.

The first part of the book, dealing with the functions of the navy, discusses the subject of naval power. The author credits Prof. Seeley, in his 'Expansion of England,' with having to some extent first recognized the true place of the navy in English history; but no writer has so ably expounded the real meaning of naval history as Capt. Mahan of our own naval service, though Vice-Admiral Colomb is regarded as the chief English authority for the ruling principles of naval warfare. The dawn of sea power is dated about the time of the discovery of the New World, which made a pathway of the ocean that had been heretofore a limit, and which changed the centre of gravity in affairs in the Old World from Italy and the countries of the Mediterranean to those bordering upon the Atlantic Ocean. In discussing the various changes in the sovereignty of the seas—a sovereignty not recognized by the laws of nations, but of whose existence, subtle but positive, there is no doubt either now or in the past — Commander Robinson quotes what Washington many times said, that to the independence of the American colonies the French navy was all-important. "Upon decisive naval superiority," Washington wrote, "every hope of success must ultimately depend." But our author, with others, draws a lesson from the Franco-Spanish coalition of this war, as well as from the similar coalition during the wars of the French Empire, respecting the inherent weakness of maritime coalitions. This lesson should be commended to those who favor an Anglo-American naval coalition, with the inevitable naval (and political) subordination of the weaker naval power.

In giving an interesting account of the flags and signals, past and present, of the British navy, the author dates the custom of carrying the national colors from an international agreement made in 1297, about which time are mentioned instances of ships hoisting false colors with a view to deceive; some Spanish vessels attacking English ships under the Portuguese national flag. The established custom of the present day allows the use of false colors to entice an enemy within reach, but forbids the exercise of any hostile act under any other flag than that of the nation to which the vessel belongs.

The second part of the book treats of the administration of the English navy. The wretched victualling and hygiene of the early days were probably no worse than those of the French, who used to have the custom of temporarily burying the dead, after action, in the ballast stowed in the bottom of the ship. Much curious information is given as to early laws and customs in both the navy and the merchant service of England, taking us back to what was known as the laws or Code of Oléron. These laws, though upholding the authority of the captain of a merchant vessel, especially enjoined upon him to take the opinion of the crew under certain circumstances (as to the weather, for instance), and requiring him to be governed by the decision of the majority. The treatment of the wounded, even as late as the time of the Restoration, when surgeons' warrants were bought and sold, can be imagined from Pepys's description of a man he saw just back from a fight with the Dutch, with a plug of oakum filling the socket from which he had just lost an eye.

But Commander Robinson does not confine himself to matters of the past; he describes in terse and graphic language the state of the British navy of to-day, less as to its material than as to its personnel, without which the service is nothing. He gives interesting details of the requirements for officers and men, which have gone far to make the English naval service not only the most efficient navy of the present time, but upon the whole the most efficient that the world has known. Of the requirements exacted of the officers, he says: "The high qualities which would have sufficed to make an efficient naval officer in Nelson's time would no longer be sufficient, at supreme moments, in these days. Every step in mechanical invention as applied to ships of war, every new complexity, every added means of attack or power of defence, has added, little by little, to the burdens borne by naval men, until at length to those placed in full command the charge might well appear unsupportable." Of the seamen he says: "These men also must possess the high qualities of moral and physical courage in such degree that they may stand calm and ready in the presence of dangers they can neither measure nor wholly understand."

Upon a question much under discussion in our own service he fully agrees with those who believe that our seamen, like our ships, can no longer be improvised, but that the training must be begun in boyhood, when the sense of duty and discipline can be awakened and the qualities of will and courage developed so that responsibility will be met without shrinking and danger without fear. Most of the officers of the British navy, and those whose opinion is counted of the greatest value, believe that the best qualities of a

seaman in bravery, hardihood, quickness of eye, and alertness can be developed only by a course of training under sails. The training of the officers and men of the British naval service is intended to be a war training, and its efficiency is tested by the annual manœuvres and the celerity of previous mobilization. With the advantages gained by rapidity of movement in these days, the efficiency of a navy depends largely upon the quickness of assemblage of men and material. The pathway of the sea is always open to the ready fleet, and the maritime frontier is now recognized by the strategic authorities of the day as the enemy's coast line and his seaports.

We can most heartily commend this book to all interested in naval matters.

An Introduction to the Study of Society. By Albion W. Small and George D. Vincent. American Book Co. 1894.

"Sociology," say the authors, is "the organization of all the material furnished by the positive study of society." It is first "descriptive"; *i. e.*, it gives an account of Society as it is; second, "statical — the ideal which right reason discloses of Society as it ought to be; third, dynamic—the available resources for changing the actual into the ideal." This is obviously a large field, and our conception of its extent is not lessened when we are told that descriptive sociology alone is concerned with all the positive knowledge *of man and of society* included under "Biology, Anthropology, Psychology, Ethnology, Demography, History, Political and Economical Science, and Ethics." Surely Jurisprudence ought to be added to this list, though perhaps it, together with Art, Literature, Music, and Architecture, is included under History.

We shall not attempt any elaborate criticism of this hand-book, but merely wish to point out that it has the usual peculiarities of treatises on this subject, peculiarities which may tend to explain why the science of sociology does not make the headway that its devotees would like. In the first place, the authors begin by showing that the teachers of the science have never agreed upon what its fundamental dogmas are. Comte was the first of them, and Professor Lester F. Ward, who has made himself responsible for two sociological treatises, one on 'Dynamic Sociology,' and the other on 'The Psychic Factors of Civilization,' is, according to the authors, the latest. And this is the way in which Professor Ward speaks of Comte: "So far as M. Comte's views on social status are concerned, they may be classed as generally unsound; *but with him this is nothing new.*" As for Herbert Spencer, the authors say that his sociology "ends precisely where sociology proper should begin." And we cannot find anywhere in the book any evidence that the various writers on sociology have agreed upon a single fundamental doctrine of their science. Now it is generally admitted that a branch of knowledge cannot be classed among the sciences unless there is an agreement of this sort among its teachers. Sociology, therefore, as presented to us by Messrs. Small and Vincent, no more demonstrates its claim to existence as a science than astronomy would if we found some astronomers insisting that the sun went around the earth and others contending that the earth went around the sun. Before the world can accept sociology, in the way, for instance, that it accepts economic science, there must be a consensus of opinion as to what it tells us. No doubt there is in economic science, as in every other science dealing with man, room for a great deal of controversy and difference of opinion, but that there is at the bottom of it a body of systematic truth, capable of exposition, as to the main points of which its teachers are agreed, is the only thing that keeps it in the rank of sciences.

Another peculiarity of sociology is that, while it professes to be the crown of all the sciences, its method seems to be such as has never hitherto produced any science, certainly any science dealing with man. The process by which the truths of political economy are arrived at, has been described very justly as a process of *abstraction.* We look at man from one point of view only—as a wealth-producing animal. For this purpose we neglect for the time all his other attributes, cease to think of him as a husband, father, son, or brother, warrior, artist, or diplomatist, and consider him as governed solely by economical motives. Of course, we are all well aware that a modern school of writers says this is all wrong, and very "narrow," and that it would be much higher and nobler to consider man in all the fulness of his attributes; but what we desire to point out is that this is not the way in which the science was created, or in which any generally accepted additions to it have been made. In the same way, if we examine such a body of truth with regard to man as is to be found in the pages of the 'Federalist,' we find that it has been arrived at by studying man as a political animal—and nothing else. The same thing is true of law. All the attempts made to evolve a *science* of law have been founded on the study of man as a law-producing and law-obeying animal.

Sociology is the only science in which the attempt is made to reverse this process; indeed, it reverses it *ex vi termini.* It introduces itself to our notice as the one science which, instead of proceeding by abstracting some one human tendency and considering that, undertakes to put together all the sciences relating to man in society and to tell us what the result is. But we ask at once, How can this be done? Man has a great many different and opposite tendencies; so has society. A synthesis of the whole would not be science; it could be the work only of omniscience.

If what we have said be true, such books as that before us are thoroughly misleading, because they teach the young to attempt the unattainable. When the authors say, for instance, that "social doctrine which omits to take account of *all available biological data*, is obviously partial and premature," we can only point out in reply that all the body of truth which we possess about man in society has been attained by people who have paid about as much attention to "all available biological data" as they have to counterpoint. Of course with sociology in the sense of the *sum* of all the knowledge that we have about man in society, no one can quarrel; but that, in our authors' view, would never do. A cycle of social sciences will not content them. What they insist upon is a brand-new science, which puts the others all together and evolves new truth from the compound. But when we modestly ask, What is it? they reply only in the mysterious language we have quoted above.

The Real Chinaman. By Chester Holcombe. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1895.

Despite its manifest limitations, this work is destined, we think, to take high rank in the army of books on China. It is calm, clear, and fair. It has those two qualities which, while necessary, are almost invariably lacking in the works of men who try to interpret the Chinese to us Western folks. It is really very uncertain which, in mutual relations, is the more hidebound, conservative, and bigoted in his notions, the average Chinaman or the average American. The first requisite, therefore, in trying to get two men of antipodally different worlds to understand each other is fairness. Mr. Holcombe, who spent more than fifteen years in China as missionary, interpreter, secretary of legation, and acting Minister of the United States, was and is, above all, at home in the language. He could understand both the compliments and the anathemas of Chinese, both high and low. He has been able, through familiarity with the vernacular literature, to see the moulds of thought and to know what ideas are foreign to the mind of the sons of Han. Fortunately for those who want to get at the truth, he attempts no defence, apology, criticism, or panegyric. He simply explains, and he does this with such a wealth of anecdote, narration from experience, and clear interpretation that we can fully and frankly stamp his work as the honest verdict of a judicially minded man. We are even inclined to believe that he has told the truth in certain chapters that will cause some little private irritation, and possibly profanity; for it is an open secret that the American Legation in Peking has not always been the elect place or means to assist the Chinese in understanding the best thought, purpose, or behavior of Americans.

What is still more remarkable about the book is, that it is positively interesting. We have read every word from the top of the title-page to the bottom of the last chapter, and we have been led along as if in a novel to the place where the index ought to be. The book is positively lively. There are some defects, however, which are manifest to the student. The author is uncritical in his methods; he seems to accept the fabulous and immeasurable eras of antiquity as if these were historical spaces well plotted out with indisputable landmarks of chronology. He seems to have very little insight into religious growth, and to be unacquainted with the methods and results of the study of comparative religion. There is a certain Chinese-likeness of mind in the book itself. The English is not immaculate, despite its limpid flow and charming style. So often does the author speak of a "custom as old as the Empire" that one is tempted to find in Mr. Holcombe's book a fresh argument for the late lamented Professor Lacouperie's thesis that civilization came from Chaldean regions in a substantially perfect form and was at once adopted by the Chinese, so that it has had neither decay nor growth. In furnishing his book with abundant illustration, the author has studied truth rather than art, all the pictures being reproduced from photographs. As they issue from the acid in tones which are sometimes "half" and sometimes a good deal less than half, we have the truth, as it were, out of the bottom of the well, undressed, and occasionally bedraggled.

The initial chapter pictures in strong light and with consummate skill that old world of Chinese Asia, now fast passing away, in which the Middle Kingdom was surrounded by vassal or pupil nations; the Chinese Emperor being the sun which shed light, and the sun of Heaven which gave rule, to the peoples who basked in the favor of the mighty orb, beside which they were as planets. Japan was the erratic and dangerous comet. Between China and the great circle of nations there was a

definite and well-understood relationship and intercourse established. Japan was the one exception, destined in due time to shatter and dissolve the system. The chapter on the government of China is one that could have been written only by one familiar with what goes on behind the scenes. With surprising freshness the author treats of the language, and adds the sauce of humor by serving up on his literary bill of fare the amusing blunders of missionaries and diplomatists. The home life of the people is set before us attractively, but in Chinese social life there is no woman's world. When, despite the explanations and protestations of Mr. Holcombe, a certain American minister at Peking insisted on congratulating the grandees of the Foreign Office upon the marriage of an honored Chinese envoy to an American lady, the only result was a silence that reminded one of the North Pole. Then, after prolonged terror and stupor, Prince Kung remarked, "It is very hot to-day." The chapter on religion does not add much to our scientific knowledge, but is attractively set forth. More clearly and convincingly than any of the writers that we have specially consulted on the subject, Mr. Holcombe explains the real facts in regard to so-called infanticide. It is not that Chinese parents systematically cast out their female children, declining to rear them, especially when sickness or famine prompts to exposure, but it is rather in bondage to the idea of demoniacal possession that they daily fill the dead-carts, and dump in heaps their awful loads on the rubbish-heaps. When a child falls sick, Chinese parents will equal the mothers and fathers of Christian homes in trying to save the child's life; but the moment they discover that nursing and remedies are of no avail, they place the child, usually naked, in an outer room, regardless of season or temperature, to see whether it will live or die. If it lives, it is a true human being. If it dies, it was an evil spirit come to torment and defile the family. Such a changeling or incarnation cannot be reared, or buried in the ancestral grave. Hence the awful mortality of children. Luminous and interesting descriptions of the courts of law, the civil-service examinations, etiquette and ceremony, trade and its tricks, and finance make up a singularly valuable and timely book on a subject of real interest.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A New Dictionary of the Spanish and English Languages, Containing the Latest Scientific, Military, Commercial, Technical and Nautical Terms. Appletons. $1.
Berlitz, M. D. Méthode Illustrée pour l'Enseignement des Langues Modernes. Partie Française. The Author.
Boothby, Guy. The Marriage of Esther. Appletons.
Brandes, Georg. William Shakespeare. Erste Lieferung. Leipzig: Albert Langen; New York: Westermann.
Browne, G. W. A Daughter of Maryland. Novelist Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Conybeare, F. C. Philo about the Contemplative Life. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Crockett, S. R. Bog-Myrtle and Peat. Appletons.
Ellis, E. S. The Path in the Ravine. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Ely, Gertrude H. Chaucer, Spenser, Sidney. [English Men of Letters for Boys and Girls.] E. L. Kellogg & Co.
Fenn, G. M. The Tiger Lily. Cassell. $1.
Finck, H. T. Lotos-Time in Japan. Scribners, $1.75.
Froude, J. A. English Seamen in the Sixteenth Century. Scribners. $1.75.
Gardner, Alice. Julian, Philosopher and Emperor. Putnams. $1.50.
Hobbes, John Oliver. The Gods, Some Mortals and Lord Wickenham. Appletons.
Jones, H. A. The Renascence of the English Drama. Macmillan. $1.75.
Lavisse, Prof. Ernest. Un Ministre: Victor Duruy. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Lawrence, E. G. Simplified Elocution. The Author. $1.00.
Lee, Mary C. A Soulless Singer. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Long, C. C. Home Geography. American Book Co. 25 cents.
MacLean, J. P. Introduction to the Study of the Gospel of St. John. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.50.
Manson, G. J. A Diary of the Grand Army of the Republic. Fowler & Wells Co. 25 cents.
Marshall, H. R. Æsthetic Principles. Macmillan. $1.25.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Fanged—Fee (Vol. IV.). Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Murray, T. D., and White, A. S. Sir Samuel Baker: A Memoir. Macmillan. $6.
Philips, F. C. A Question of Color. London: A. Constable & Co.
Porter, L. H. Cycling for Health and Pleasure. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Prall, Rev. William. Civic Christianity. Whittaker. $1.
Prime, W. C. Among the Northern Hills. Harpers. $1.
Réville, Jean. Les Origines de l'Épiscopat. Première partie. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Rhys, Ernest. Lyrical Poetry from the Bible. Vol. I. London: Dent: New York: Macmillan. $1.
Richards, Mrs. Laura E. Jim of Hellas. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 50 cents.
Rood, H. E. The Company Doctor. Merriam Co.
Roswell, Mary C. The Friend of the People. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Russell, Dora. A Country Sweetheart. Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Schoenaich-Carolath, Prince. Melting Snows. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Scott, Michael. Tom Cringle's Log. Macmillan. $1.25.
Scudder, H. E. George Washington: An Historical Biography. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 30 cents.
Simond, Capt. Emile. Le Capitaine La Tour d'Auvergne. Paris: Perrin & Cie.; New York: Brentanos. $1.
Southworth, Mrs. The Lost Heiress. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Sparhawk, Frances C. Senator Intrigue and Inspector Noseby. Boston: Red-Letter Publishing Co. $1.
Tracy, J. P. Shenandoah: A Story of Sheridan's Ride. Novelist Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Vincent, Frank. Actual Africa; or, The Coming Continent. Appletons.
Vines, Prof. S. H. A Student's Text-book of Botany. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Walker, F. A. The Making of the Nation. 1783–1817. Scribners. $1.25.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. Marcella. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Warming, Prof. E. A Handbook of Systematic Botany. London: Sonnenschein: New York: Macmillan. $3.75.
Wells, Prof. B. W. Zola's Débâcle, Abridged. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 80 cents.
Whately, Richard. Historic Doubts relative to Napoleon Bonaparte. Putnams. 75 cents.
Wilde, Oscar. The Picture of Dorian Gray. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
William M. Taylor, Pastor of the Broadway Tabernacle. Randolph. 50 cents.
Wise, T. J. Spenser's Faerie Queene. Illustrated by Walter Crane. Part V. London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan. $3.

Selections from Newman.

Edited with Notes and an Introduction, by LEWIS E. GATES, Instructor in English, Harvard University. 16mo, lxi+223 pp. Cloth, teacher's price, 90c.; boards, 50c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 9, 1895.

The Week.

THE Treasury receipts do not come up to expectation. From the new sugar duties less than $20,000,000 is likely to be realized during the fiscal year instead of the $40,000,000 which it seemed reasonable to estimate. Nor does the higher tax on whiskey appear to have increased sensibly the internal-revenue receipts. All told, the Government's income up to May 1 has been $260,000,000, as against $245,000,000 last year. Expenditures, meanwhile, have been cut down from $311,000,000 in the corresponding period of the last fiscal year to $305,000,000, but even so a deficit of $45,000,000 appears, which is not likely to be diminished in the two months remaining before the annual accounts are made up. This does not mean that the Treasury is or will be bankrupt. It has now, as the result of borrowing, of course, a net cash balance of $89,000,000, in addition to the gold reserve, at present $91,000,000. Thus it will be easy enough to pay all demands till Congress meets. But unless the outlook greatly changes by that time, it will be necessary to put the Government in funds by new measures of taxation—especially with the income tax already cut in two. Doubtless a supernaturally wise Republican Congress will devise taxes which nobody will have to pay, and which therefore will prove odious to no class of voters. Everybody must rejoice to observe, in the meantime, that almost exactly half of April's income of $24,000,000 was paid out in pensions. We all ought to be glad, that is, that the Grand Army and the claim agents have left us even a half to run the Government with.

Chancellor Harcourt's budget speech shows what responsible government can do in the way of forecast and control of revenue and expenditures. The revenue turns out to be some £500,000 greater than the estimates, and the actual expenditures £84,000 greater than the estimated; the surplus being £776,000 instead of £291,000 as estimated. Such precise results are possible only where a party leader can keep a firm hand on both taxes and appropriations, and is not subject, as he is under our headless system, to having his best-laid plans overriden by a log-rolling combination of the grabbers of both parties. Sir William's account of the generally prosperous condition of the country will be sad reading for President Andrews and the other prophets who were going to bring gold-standard England to her knees in six months. The savings-bank deposits are one of the surest tests of the well-being of the working classes, and when these have mounted from £35,000,000 in 1893 to £45,000,000 in 1894, it is clear that the kneeling process is hardly going to begin yet. As the chancellor intimated, with such proofs of a sound financial condition before her eyes, England will not be such a fool as to take a plunge into bimetallism, with or without ratios or international labels.

The reason why the Nicaraguan trouble could not be arbitrated is plain enough. The thing complained of by Great Britain was an insult to and outrage on one of its own officers. Nations do not arbitrate on insults. They arbitrate about nearly everything else, but do not submit to arbitrators the question how much they ought to get for being kicked or having their noses pulled. They may arbitrate about injuries to individuals by riots, or about territory or boundary lines, or abuse of power by naval and military commanders; but deliberate ill usage of one of their own officers by a foreign government no self-respecting power lets any third person pass upon. The trouble in such cases as the Nicaraguan is, that if such acts on the part of a small semi-barbarous government are allowed to pass, they are pretty sure to be repeated, and bombarding them or using force in such a way as to destroy life or property seems cruel. So that on the whole the seizure of a custom-house seems about the most humane way of settling the matter, if Government property cannot be got hold of in any other way. Most of our discussions of the affair here have been worthy of Bloomingdale or the State asylum. Where a lunatic has the advantage of sane dialecticians is in being released from all attention to facts or precedents.

While blatherskite Republican legislatures in Connecticut and New York are passing resolutions bewailing to high heaven the "open and flagrant violation of the Monroe doctrine," the State Department is having the said doctrine printed in a separate leaflet for distribution to all applicants. We may be sure, however, that the blatherskites will not apply. The last thing in the world they want is to know what the Monroe doctrine really is; and if they could be summoned before a body of trained logicians and asked to point out wherein the Monroe doctrine had been violated, they would refuse if the leaflets were as plenty as blackberries. What they mean by the Monroe doctrine is a general warrant for ignorance and insolence applied to foreign relations—that is to say, they mean it as long as they are out of power and irresponsible. Once in control of the administration, they would knuckle under to England as meekly as ever Blaine or Harrison did, when the pinch came.

There is gratifying evidence of the growth of sound-money ideas in the State of Indiana. It is only five years since both parties were badly infected with the silver delusion, and the Republican State convention welcomed the passage of the Sherman act as "a long yet prudent step towards free coinage." But now the Republican press of the State is fast becoming unanimous in its opposition to free coinage. The Indianapolis *Journal* in a recent issue published brief extracts from nearly twenty newspapers in different parts of the State, not one of which favored the 16-to-1 policy, while many put the arguments against it very forcibly. Indeed, the country press in all parts of the nation is making a far better showing than would have been expected by most people. Alabama, for instance, is a Southern Democratic State whose Senators, Pugh and Morgan, have been giving everybody to understand that their constituents were all crazy on this subject. In point of fact, however, not only are the Montgomery *Advertiser*, the Mobile *Register*, and other such leading journals in the large cities fighting the free-coinage scheme, but a canvass of all the newspapers, large and small, which have declared their position, shows that sixty-nine are against the 16-to-1 policy, and only twenty-eight for it, of which latter eight are Populist organs. The truth is that there is more noise than substance in the silver claims everywhere.

The fate of Mr. James Irving Burns of Yonkers, who introduced in the New York Assembly the bill for the practical repeal of the civil-service law, is one which frequently happens to statesmen who live too exclusively among men of their own way of thinking. Mr. Burns heard all his fellow-statesmen damning the civil-service law and expressing a desire to get it from between them and the offices. He, too, was looking for offices for his followers, and had discovered that he could not get them. So he thought he would please all good Republicans and get what he wanted by bringing in a bill to repeal the offending law. He brought it in, but as soon as it got before the public he discovered that the sentiment which statesmen expressed in private was so different from that which the public entertained, that few of them dared openly to support the bill, although it met the deepest longing of their hearts. Instead of making himself popular, Burns found that almost nobody was willing to stand with him, that even Speaker Fish said his bill must be withdrawn, and accordingly he withdrew it. There is no hope of its passage, therefore, and Burns will lapse back into the obscurity from which he emerged when he presented it. He has received his first lesson in the politician's art of

"pandering a little to the moral sense of the community."

We understand that the mayor adheres to his determination to leave the selection of the new police magistrates to prominent members of the bar. We trust this determination will not be overborne by the politicians urging him not to "delegate his powers," and to "use his prerogative," and so on; because any mistake about these appointments will be very serious for the city, and they are appointments about which it is easy to make mistakes. There will be a large number of candidates in whom politics and law will be mixed in about equal proportions, and a large number, too, whose character as politicians will stand higher than their character as lawyers, and many whose character as lawyers will be considerably puffed by influential lay friends. Nobody knows so much about the fitness of lawyers for judicial positions as other lawyers, and nobody is more interested in having good judges and magistrates. So that if the mayor will take the advice on these appointments of well-known members of the bar, he will not only confer a great boon on the city in the present case, but establish a most valuable precedent, which will bear fruit hereafter.

The Tammany police justices are naturally very unwilling to go. They have occupied a unique position. Never, we presume, since man established courts of justice, has such a body discharged judicial functions on a salary in a civilized state. There have been such judges before now, but they owed their offices to their ability to "lick" anybody who objected to them, or else have been members of a semi-barbarous community. The oddity of our men lies in the fact that they have held office in one of the foremost countries of the world in both arts and arms, and that some of the leading lawyers of Christendom might have appeared before them. This makes them extremely interesting, and both historians and sociologists ought to take a look at them before they leave the bench and go back to their old roosting-places, with no trace of their judicial honors left except the empty title of "jedge." Tom Grady is, however, the only one who laments aloud, but his lamentations are tinged with joy. He says people are beginning to see the mistake they made last fall, or, as he expresses it, are beginning "to see things in their real perspective." Tom knows bigger words than any Tammany man except Bourke Cockran. What troubles him most, however, is not so much the loss of his place as the charge that he and his fellow-justices "oppressed the poor." He feels this imputation keenly, and thinks it a rather ridiculous one to come from the Chamber of Commerce, which is engaged constantly in combinations to raise prices on the poor. Their last exploit in this line was raising the price of beef. Men who meet to raise the price of beef on the poor ought, Tom thinks, to keep silent about his qualifications as a police justice.

The announcement that Austin E. Ford is to have a fire commissionership cannot be wholly due to the labors of his "Civic Union" in the late canvass. We have no desire to underrate the earnestness and zeal of this organization, but it never numbered more than one hundred members, and one hundred men cannot do much in any canvass, let them be ever so well disposed. Its dissolution immediately or very soon after the election we ourselves ascribe to over-exertion. The members were exhausted and incapable of continuing their efforts in the cause of good government, and retired simply to recruit their strength. This, at all events, is a much more charitable theory than the one propounded by some malicious persons, that the "Civic Union" was simply intended to impose on Mayor Strong, and, having made its "claim" on him, retired from the scene. Nor do we ascribe Ford's fire commissionership wholly to the "Civic Union." We feel sure he has personal merits which he has not yet had an opportunity of displaying. But over and above these he had, as nephew of Pat. Ford of the *Irish World*, and assistant editor of that publication, an experience of explosives which must be useful to a fire commissioner, and which none of his colleagues will have. He filled this editorial office while the *Irish World* was preparing for the destruction of the British monarchy by chemical means, and undoubtedly made himself acquainted with the force, or "energy," as the scientists call it, of the various compounds used against life and property by anarchists and other evil-disposed people. The value of such a man in a department which has to deal with the results of the crimes of such people is easily seen.

We see there has been a split in the "O'Brien Democracy." A considerable portion of it has gone off and founded another "Democracy," which will, of course, have to be "recognized," for a Democracy without recognition would be like a tavern without liquor. The consequences of this split will, in our opinion, be serious and far-reaching, for there can be little question that all the other Democracies, and indeed all the other "organizations" which supported Mayor Strong, will split too. The advantages of splitting are so obvious that the tendency to disintegration which will now set in, will probably go far. City Democracies, like certain low forms of animal life, in fact propagate by splitting. They are, in scientific language, fissiparous. Each part, after the split, enters on a life of its own, fully furnished with the parental organs, and as capable as the parent of office-getting and office-holding. As the next election draws near, this asexual multiplication of the species will undoubtedly become more rapid, and Mayor Strong's successor will probably have twenty times as many "claims" to deal with as Mayor Strong himself. Ten "Civic Unions" is a moderate estimate of what fissiparity will do for that thoughtful society, while the capacity of the larger ones, like the State Democracy, for fissiparous increase in the public interest, is something which no prudent man will try to calculate. We should not be at all surprised to see one hundred and fifty organizations in 1898, carrying the people's candidate into power with an average vote of 50,000 a piece, and held together, as in a vice, by a chosen leader, whose demands for a commissionership or two no mayor will be able to resist. Whence offices are to come for them all we cannot say.

When the secretary of state of New Jersey, Henry C. Kelsey, admitted on the witness-stand last Thursday that, in plain violation of the law, he had been converting to his own use State funds at the same time that the State Treasury was borrowing money to meet its necessities, it would have been natural to look for an announcement of his resignation of his office along with the publication of this disclosure. Not the least indication, however, is given that resignation has even suggested itself to him, nor does the public across the river seem to look for so fitting a conclusion of the matter. One reason for this is that professional politics in New Jersey, no matter under what name, has been for a long time simply a means of jobbery. Take Kelsey's case, for instance. An editor and a county "lay" judge, he was appointed secretary of state as a political reward by Gov. Randolph as far back as 1870, and has filled the office continuously for the last twenty-five years. When his term expired the first and second times, he was reappointed by Democratic Governors and confirmed by Republican Senates. When next renominated, in 1881, the Senate refused to confirm him, but Gov. Ludlow appointed him to "fill the vacancy," and nominated him again in 1882, when a more subservient Republican Senate confirmed the nomination. He was again confirmed by a Republican Senate when nominated by Gov. Green in 1887, and once more in 1892, when he was the choice of Gov. Abbett. Kelsey, therefore, owes his long tenure quite as much to the favor of Republican Senates as he does to his influence with Democratic Governors. How large a part of the profits he confesses he has made improperly out of his office he has divided with his bi-partisan friends, it would be interesting for him at his next examination to state.

There is a slow-growing but encouraging public demand in New Jersey that the punishment of the persons responsible for the grave peculations which the Senate

committee is bringing to light shall not end with the mere exposure of their misdeeds. When the committee began its work, there was a disposition to believe that the inquiry would go no "higher" than State-house employees and men of similar position. Now, however, that the evidence has gone directly against the secretary of state and one ex-Governor, people are asking if the present Governor and other ex-Governors do not share more or less in the responsibility for the scandals. One of the requirements of the Constitution is that the Governor "shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed." An aggressively honest Governor, who is not a politician first and a servant of the people afterward, has all the power necessary to execute this command. The Governors of New York who preceded Mr. Tilden in office could have disrupted the canal ring just as he did, had they made up their minds to do so, and the Governors of New Jersey could have put a stop to the long-continued peculation there at almost any period. This was not to be expected of an Abbett, but it was not too much to look for it from a Werts or a Green. Gov. Werts has an immediate opportunity to show his appreciation of the situation. Three of the persons directly implicated by the testimony are members of his staff, namely, Brig.-Gen. Heppenheimer, Col. Leon Abbett, jr., and Col. John T. Van Cleef. Is the last named the only one who is going to resign?

The Columbia *State* strongly advocates a resort to qualified woman suffrage as a means of insuring white supremacy in South Carolina without any possible collision with the Federal Constitution. Moreover, it says this idea meets with marked favor, and will have its supporters in the coming Constitutional Convention. That such an innovation should be the result of emancipation must seem odd enough to those who remember how the ante-bellum South prided itself on its Chinese wall against isms; yet the situation is so desperate that we may well see woman suffrage enacted in South Carolina before it establishes itself in Massachusetts, the original seat of the agitation. We observe also in the *State* an extract from the Manning *Times* intimating that Col. Dargan, the intrepid editor of the Sumter *Freeman*, should either be confined as a lunatic or, if sane, "*requested* to desist" from stirring up strife between whites and blacks. The *State* thinks there is something sinister in the *Times's* italicising, and no doubt we have here a manifestation of that "Regulator" spirit which warned Mr. Hallowell out of Camden. The town of Manning was, we believe, named after the family of Mr. Richard I. Manning, who lately wrote to us that the Camden menace was only a practical joke. Col. Dargan, by the way, is abused because he addresses the blacks; but when he offers, as just now in Charleston, to present himself before a white audience exclusively, the press gives him the cold shoulder.

President Low's magnificent gift of $1,000,000 to Columbia College for a library building makes, we believe, nearly six millions that the college has received in gifts since he succeeded to the presidency. This may fairly be said to "beat the record" among American colleges, if we except the foundation of the Chicago University. It shows, too, what New York can do in the way of the encouragement of learning when once fairly appealed to. We believe it is not over twenty years since Columbia allowed it to be supposed that she stood in need of or received gifts. Since then the tide of local generosity and sympathy has been flowing towards her steadily, and she promises speedily to be one of the richest seats of learning in the world; and with money, we are sure, there will come steady growth in intellectual capacity and achievement.

The Presbyterian seminaries continue this year, as they did last, to refuse, gently but firmly, to walk into the General Assembly's parlor. This movement to compel them to turn over their funds and management to the Assembly was really a part of the conservative programme mapped out in the days of the Briggs controversy; and its flat failure now is but one of many signs that the fury of those days has largely spent itself. The churches are heartily tired of the whole thing, and of the odium it brought upon the denomination, and want it dropped altogether. In fact, as so often happens in theological controversies, the man over whom all the pother was made is disciplined and orthodoxy thereby vindicated, but the heretical opinion goes on eating its way into the clerical world just the same. Plenty of Presbyterian ministers hold the Briggs views and avow them; they are not troubled, unless it be by their own consciences, nor will they be unless they become unduly aggressive and pugnacious. In the modern theological world, so much at ease in Zion, views (the truth is) are becoming of less and less account, and the emphasis is getting to be placed more and more on good manners, humanitarian labors, and pleasant Sunday afternoons.

Contemporaneous despatches from St. Petersburg, Berlin, and Paris leave little doubt that Japan has agreed, on the joint demand of Russia, Germany, and France, to abandon her claim to permanent possession of Port Arthur and adjacent territory. That she will, in consequence, exact an additional money indemnity from China seems certain, and that therein she will have the support of the Powers that have insisted on her giving up her territorial pretensions is highly probable. It is only the form, not the justice, of the Japanese claim that they contest. Russia's object is sufficiently plain. If there is going to be any dismembering of China, she means to preside over the operation. Meanwhile, pending the completion of her trans-Siberian railway, and until she is ready to move to the south herself, she does not care to have a Japanese stronghold at Port Arthur over against her fortified railway terminus and harbor, Vladivostok. It speaks well for the wisdom of the Japanese Government that their great successes against China have not destroyed their ability to see straight. All the talk about Japan's having at a step taken her place among the first-class powers has not blinded her generals and admirals and diplomats to the fact that moderation and humility are still her wisest rôle in dealing with Europe. Thirty years more of consolidation and nourishing her strength may lead her to take a different tone; but at present not the least admirable part of her sudden rise to the world's notice is the restraint and clear-sighted wisdom that have marked her Chinese negotiations, compelled all the while to keep an eye on Russia and France in the background.

An Hawaiian Grand Army is already full tilt after the offices. It appears to be composed of those who took up arms in the late terrible struggle wherein one man was killed and as many as three or four wounded, and it proposes to let no man hold office under the Government who did not either fight or profess a fierce desire to fight in the recent insurrection. It sent an impudent demand to the executive and advisory councils that certain "disloyal" men in the departments be removed and their places given to true patriots. The ministers replied on April 11, abjectly enough, giving detailed reports in regard to all the men complained of. Nearly all of them turned out to be furious patriots, and retained their offices, but the attorney-general found "several laborers in the garbage department" who were suspected of monarchical sentiments, and whom he promptly discharged to make congenial places for the veterans. The latter were justly incensed, however, by the conduct of Chief-Justice Judd, who resented their inquisition and declared that "the Supreme Court has never required this [membership in a military organization] of any of its employees as a condition precedent to their employment." This looks bad for Justice Judd. As the *Hawaiian Gazette* says, his reply "reads very much as though he was somewhat offended at being thus approached, but it is always quite as well to assume a conciliatory rather than an arbitrary attitude." Evidently his long service under a queen has given him perverse ideas about qualifications for office, and it seems idle to look for impartial justice from a court presided over by such a judge. He should be removed at once to make room for a member of the Schuetzen Club.

SOME MONROE MYTHS.

We doubt very much whether there is any widespread popular interest in the Monroe doctrine, despite all the froth about it in the newspapers and in reform Republican Legislatures that compound for the corruption they are inclined to by damning all attacks on liberty and purity in far-away lands. Every trustworthy test of public sentiment in this country that the Jingoes have elicited since 1873 has shown that the vast majority of the people are peace-loving, that they are wrapped up in the pursuits and arts proper to a great industrial nation, and that they look upon these constantly recurring newspaper foreign wars, first with amusement, then with weariness, finally with disgust. Moreover, it is almost impossible to conduct a rational discussion with those who rage and fume about the Monroe doctrine. Not one of them has advanced a definite policy, in opposition to the policy pursued by the Government, least of all given a reason either for or against the Administration's policy, England's policy, or their own policy, if they have any. They are strong on English trickery, mighty on Gresham's imbecility, but about what they would do themselves, vague in the extreme, though always furious.

Furthermore, the refutation of most of their wild assertions may safely be left to time and the event. A week is usually all that is necessary to cover them with confusion as prophets. Last week they were begging everybody to mark their words that the British would never abandon Corinto. That is not the English way. Look at Egypt if you don't believe us. But the British sailed away on Saturday, and the prophets have nothing left for it except to affirm that this is only a new step in English intrigue and perfidy. This sensation will rapidly become ancient history, like that far-off, forgotten thing, the *Alliança* affair, over which, only seven short weeks ago, Mr. Whitney's blood was boiling at long range and the country was, journalistically, convulsed. Sensible men cannot be blamed for getting tired of chasing down one of these nine-days' wonders after another.

Still, there are some positive allegations about the Monroe doctrine which are brought out afresh at every occurrence of this kind, and of which it is doubtless well to expose the hollowness. Prof. Moore's historical article, published in the *Evening Post* on Saturday, left a whole train of these allegations dead along the track of his calm and convincing exposition of what occasioned the Monroe doctrine in the first place, what it was intended to accomplish, and what the terms in which it was couched meant, as explained by the very men who drew it up. But all that was a good while ago, it is said, and the practice of subsequent Presidents and secretaries has given the Monroe doctrine a different meaning and a new significance. Seward's name, in particular, is one often used in this connection. Didn't he sharply order the French out of Mexico? Why doesn't Gresham send a peremptory message to the British to quit Nicaragua?

Now, Seward's real position in the matter of interference in South American affairs was clearly stated by him in a despatch of June 2, 1866, to our minister in Chili. The state of affairs was very like that between England and Nicaragua. Spain, a monarchical country, was making war upon Chili, one of the sisterhood of American republics. Moreover, our minister to Chili, the not very prudent Kilpatrick, was visibly anxious to interfere and order Spain to the right about. But Seward pointed out the danger, the impossibility, of allowing South American countries to imagine that we could interfere to shield them from the consequences of their own folly. South American statesmen would interpret such an attitude on the part of the United States "in the light of their own interests and wishes." Said the secretary, with an eye to our foreign relations as a whole, "We could claim from foreign states no concession to our own political, moral, or material principles or interests if we should not conform our own proceedings, in the needful intercourse with foreign states, to the just rules of the law of nations." Then he added, as if in prophetic reference to our own Jingoes:

> "Those who think that the United States could enter as an ally into every war in which a friendly republican state on this continent becomes involved, forget that peace is the constant interest and the unwavering policy of the United States. They forget the frequency and variety of wars in which our friends in this hemisphere engage themselves entirely independent of all control or counsel of the United States. We have no armies for the purpose of aggressive war; no ambition for the character of a regulator. Our Constitution is not an imperial one, and does not allow the executive Government to engage in war except upon the well considered and deliberate decree of the Congress of the United States. A federal Government consisting of thirty-six equal States, which are in many respects self-governing, cannot easily be committed by its representatives to foreign wars, either of sympathy or of ambition. If there is any one characteristic of the United States which is more marked than any other, it is that they have from the time of Washington adhered to the principle of non-intervention, and have perseveringly declined to seek or contract entangling alliances, even with the most friendly states."

In the same letter he clearly showed the difference between the case of the French in Mexico and the Spanish in Chili, or, we may add, the English in Nicaragua. The United States were determined not to allow "the republican system which is accepted by the people" in any American state to "be subverted as an end of lawful war by European powers." This says nothing about a monarchical or aristocratic system voluntarily set up by the people themselves. Yet there is an idea abroad that the Monroe doctrine implies that nothing but democratic institutions can be recognized on this continent, however arising or introduced. As Wheaton points out, this is a pure myth. As a matter of fact, the United States were the first to recognize the imperial authority of Dom Pedro in Brazil and of Iturbide in Mexico. There is nothing in the Monroe doctrine, or in common sense, to prevent the people of any American country from setting up any kind of government they please. Nor is there anything in it, as Seward pointed out, to modify or overturn one jot or tittle of that international law by the rules of which the United States must be guided in all their foreign relations, if they are not to be "cut" or called to account by other nations, as surely as a man would be by his acquaintances if he should profess some rules of behavior inconsistent with ordinary good breeding or common morality.

SIX CENTURIES OF BIMETALLISM.

The present bimetallic controversy has given birth to nothing more profound and convincing than a book of some 400 pages entitled 'The History of Currency, 1252 to 1894,' by W. A. Shaw, an English author, who has done for the currencies of the civilized world what Lord Liverpool did for that of England in his classical work, 'On the Coins of the Realm.' Mr. Shaw's work, like that of Lord Liverpool, possesses a permanent historical interest far transcending the present battle of the standards. The efforts of the human race to extricate itself from the coil of the double standard of silver and gold are sketched by Mr. Shaw for a period of more than six centuries. The struggles of Laocoön, or those of the mad Hercules, were not more agonizing. Society was at dreadful strife with itself, and did not know what was the cause of its misery. But it found out at last, and delivered itself from its torment, and now some people propose that it shall voluntarily put on the shirt of Nessus once more. Mr. Shaw rightly says in his preface:

> "The modern theory of bimetallism is almost the only instance of a theory growing not out of practice, resting not on data verified, but on data falsified and censure-marked. No words can be too strong of condemnation for the theorizing of the bimetallist who by sheer imaginings tries to justify theoretically what has failed in five centuries of history, and to expound theoretically what has proved itself incapable of solution save by cutting and casting away."

To enumerate all the changes of ratio between silver and gold in all the countries of Europe during the period covered by Mr. Shaw's researches would be like counting the stars in the Milky Way. For example, in France the ratio "was changed in a single century more than a hundred and fifty times," and these changes were not, as is commonly supposed, mere arbitrary acts of the sovereign to fill the royal treasury. They were due to variations in the market value of the two metals after the legal ratio had been fixed. In almost every instance the initial steps for a change in the legal ratio were taken by the trading community. What took place in France was the common experience of Germany, England, the Netherlands, and Italy. And so they went on

weltering in ratio changes till the nineteenth century, when they found out what was the matter and applied the remedy. And now they are asked to plunge in again and welter a while longer.

The bimetallist contention that the action of France in fixing the legal ratio of 15½ to 1 kept the market ratio of the two metals steady from 1803 to 1873 has been in a staggering way for some time. Mr. Shaw gives it the *coup de grâce*. "At no point of time," he says, "during the present century has the actual market ratio, dependent on the commercial value of silver, corresponded with the French ratio of 15½, and at no point of time has France been free from the disastrous influence of that want of correspondence between the legal and commercial ratios. The opposite notion, which prevails and finds expression in the ephemeral bimetallic literature of to-day, is simply due to ignorance." In order to put the divergence between legal and market ratio in France in graphic form, he presents a chart showing the variations for each year beginning in 1803. In the first place the market ratio was not 15½ in 1803, and the law of that year did not make it so. The market ratio was 15.41, and it continued at that figure throughout the year. In 1804 a change began. Silver fell or perhaps gold rose (no matter which) so that in 1805 the market ratio was 15.79. Then it began to vibrate. In 1806 it was almost identical with the French legal ratio; it was 15.52. This was near enough for practical purposes, if it had only continued, but the next year it was 15.43 and the next it was 16.08. Between two years (1811 and 1813) the variation was from 15.53 to 16.25. To make a long story short, the market ratio, about the year 1820, became decidedly favorable to the exportation of gold, and remained so till 1853, when it became equally favorable to the exportation of silver, remaining so till 1867, when a fresh and permanent change took place. The French monetary commission of 1867, speaking of these fluctuations, said:

> "It is well known by all that this ratio [of 1803], by the simple reason of its being fixed, could not remain current. There was quickly a premium on gold, *and silver remained almost alone in circulation until near 1850.*"

This statement of a fact might be confirmed by a hundred citations from contemporary literature, both French and English. Mr. Robert Giffen, some years ago, presented the quotations of sterling exchange in Paris (which were really quotations of gold) from 1820 to 1853, showing that gold could not have been in general circulation when it commanded such a premium. When these figures were published, the bimetallists with one accord said that the divergencies were not sufficient to carry gold out of circulation. The fact that it did go out of circulation is now proved for the fiftieth time, but whether it will shut the mouths of Mr. Giffen's critics is very doubtful.

As this fallacy appears in 'Coin's Financial Schoo',' it is calmly assumed that the market ratio was steady at 15½ to 1 for seventy years, and that it was so because of the French law of 1803. If it was not steady—if it went wobbling about as Mr. Shaw's chart shows that it did—the whole argument falls to the ground. Yet it is necessary to explain why the market ratio was as steady as it was, and why the great gold discoveries of California and Australia in the fifties did not produce a greater divergence. The answer is easy. Modern commerce took a great start in the fifties. It absorbed the new gold with avidity. Gold was exactly suited to the new state of things because it possessed much value in little bulk and weight. Consequently it was welcomed by commerce, and especially by France, which gladly exchanged its bulky silver for it. So the mystery of the comparative steadiness of the market ratio during the great outpouring of gold in the fifties is explained by natural causes, and without reference to the French bimetallic law.

OUR JURY SYSTEM.

We were in hopes that something would be done at the late Constitutional Convention to adapt our jury system to the needs of modern society. We know very well that such matters ought as a rule to be left to the Legislature, but we have now had experience enough of the difficulty of securing from such bodies the enactment of any real reform in a shape approved by competent men. For permanent and well-considered changes in the structure and procedure of the government, we have clearly to rely in the main on the constitutional conventions. Still, the evils of our jury system are so glaring, and so promotive of crime, that it is surprising that neither the judiciary nor the bar have before now made any effort to reform it. In this city three weeks have been spent, by a judge and the lawyers, in finding twelve men to try a policeman for taking bribes. After these were found, two had to be excluded for fraudulent concealment of facts, so that the process is not yet over. In any other civilized country the whole affair would have been over in three days—one for preparation, one for trial, and the last for sentence in case of conviction. What is the reason for this astonishing difference?

It is in reality quite simple. In a country in which publicity reigns as it has never reigned anywhere before, in which the newspapers record crimes and offences as they have never been recorded elsewhere, we have a rule that anybody who has heard about a crime, and formed an opinion about it, is presumptively disqualified from trying the criminal. He has, the law says, to approach the case in ignorance about it caused by not reading the newspapers, or in the state of mental decrepitude which prevents one who reads of a murder from forming the opinion that anybody committed it. The acceptable juror has, in short, to be in a state of mind about the whole matter which it is difficult to find except among the grossly ignorant or the feeble-minded. Consequently the process of impanelling a New York jury, in a notorious case, is apt to consist in a search for twelve extremely illiterate or half-witted men—a process which it would be impossible to witness anywhere else outside the comic opera.

The encouragement which criminals get from this system, we need not point out. It increases very greatly the chance of escape which even the best jury trials hold out. The spectacle alone of the impanelling of a jury demoralizes the community and distinctly diminishes popular respect for the administration of justice, so that the escape of the criminals is by no means the whole of the evil it works. The worst of it is that it makes the attempt of the state to punish crime somewhat ridiculous. Clearly, nobody but the criminals and the "jury fixers" are interested in the continuance of the present state of things. The only obstacle such a reform would meet with in the Legislature would come from sheer frivolity or dislike of serious subjects; but this might be got over by patience and perseverance.

The truth is, that our jury law belongs to the age before newspapers, railroads, and telegraphs. It is somewhat like the Supreme Court view that the only incomes are incomes from land, and that men pay capitation taxes with something that is not income. However we may feel about it, we must do the work of the world, including the administration of justice, with people that will read newspapers and form opinions about what they read. There is no other class fit to do the work of the world available. Even the judges read newspapers. The old formula, "My attention has been drawn," is no longer available even for them. Nobody can now pretend that he does not see what is in the newspapers till somebody tells him about it. We have to do the best we can with the modern man, seeing that the ancient or mediæval man no longer exists. The earth, in fact, has to be "run" by the living, and not by the dead. We must take decent men's word for it that they can try a criminal according to the evidence in spite of the previous formation of an opinion. We cannot go on much longer picking out imbeciles, knaves, and ignoramuses to bring our malefactors to justice. The mere waste of time of the judges who preside over these processes is a serious injury to the public. Hundreds of important causes wait for adjudication, not while one criminal is being tried, but while a tribunal is being prepared to try him.

RELICS OF THE PAST IN LONDON.

London, April 16, 1895.

The Palace of Whitehall and its grounds, so associated with the names of English monarchs and rulers from the days of Henry VIII. to Charles II., occupied the district between

Charing Cross and Westminster, extending from the Thames up into St. James's Park. Part was burned to the ground in 1691 and the remainder in 1697. The space is now covered with streets, terraces, and public buildings. The boulevard of the Embankment occupies the river front. The ground is intersected by one of the busiest thoroughfares of London—Whitehall. On the east side of Whitehall, opposite the Horse Guards, still stands the old banqueting-hall of the palace. It was built in the Palladian style by Inigo Jones in the reign of James I. The ceiling is embellished with pictures by Rubens—the apotheosis of James I. in the centre, with allegorical representations of Peace and Plenty and scenes from the life of Charles I., the artist's patron. The most striking actual scene in Charles's life was there enacted. He was, on January 30, 1649, led out through one of the windows of the great hall and executed upon a lofty scaffold in front of the building. Under the Georges the pile was converted into a royal chapel, and that it remained until a few months ago.

The Royal United Service Institution, composed of members of the military, naval, and auxiliary forces, was founded in 1830 for the advancement of literary and scientific knowledge connected with the "services." It has a membership of 5,000, holds meetings at which papers are read, and publishes a *Journal*. The society early formed the nucleus of a museum. The collection was until of late wretchedly housed, and admission was to be had only by order from a member. Lately, by arrangement, Government has made over to it the banqueting-hall. Offices and a splendid lecture-theatre have been added. The museum is now arranged in the hall and its basement. It is one of the most interesting collections in London. Admission is at a trifling fixed charge—"soldiers and sailors in uniform free." Old flags wave from the gallery. The walls are covered with the weapons of all times and of all countries. The progress of the musket can be studied from the "brown Bess" to the magazine rifles now adopted by different States. Cannon are there from the rudest of old times and of half-civilized peoples to the most deadly quick-firing ordnance. The uninitiated may learn to realize the difference between "ordinary," "smokeless," and "cordite" powders. The weapons and ammunition of the time of the Crimean war appear almost playthings before present appliances. Large-scale models of war-vessels are there, from the Malay pirate and the ships of the time of James I. and the Hanseatic League, to the great three-deckers of the Napoleonic wars and the destructive 27-knot torpedoes of the present. Everything connected with modern warfare is expensive—these models even must have cost large sums. Perhaps one-fourth of the 6,000 square feet of the great hall is occupied by "models" of the battle of Trafalgar and a plan of the field of Waterloo. This latter is said to contain 190,000 little figures. A passing study of these will tend to a clearer conception of the crowning events in the careers of Nelson and Wellington than would a long course of reading. Much of the armor, weapons, and dresses has been taken in actual warfare.

It is the relics that will perhaps arouse the greatest interest in most minds. There is a heavy anchor taken up within late years from the wreck of a vessel of the Spanish Armada on the coast of Donegal. (How the past and the present are brought together!) The more precious objects are enclosed in glass cases: a portion of the standard presented by Queen Isabella to Pizarro; Commodore Drake's snuff-box; the sword carried by Cromwell at the storm of Drogheda; arms from the field of Culloden; the sword worn by Wolfe when he fell on the Plains of Abraham; scalping-knives and pistols of the Indian auxiliaries on both sides in the War of Independence and in 1812; papers relating to the private signals and the signal-book of the *Chesapeake;* a quadrant and other objects from the wreck of the *Royal George;* Captain Cooke's punch-bowl; his chronometer taken out by Bligh in 1787, and carried by the mutineers in the *Bounty* to Pitcairn's Island—a telescope belonging to the *Bounty*—the prayer-book used by John Adams in his morning and evening services with the descendants of the mutineers. Here, again, are weapons used by the insurgents in Ireland in 1798; Tippoo Saib's pistols found on his body; Sir Ralph Abercromby's pistols. Numerous are the records of Trafalgar—a portion of the *Victory's* flag; Nelson's hat and a lock of his hair; his desk and sword. (The clothes in which he fell are to be seen in the Painted Gallery at Greenwich.) We see before us the officers' sashes used in carrying Sir John Moore from the field at Corunna and lowering him into his grave on the ramparts of the Citadel. There is a memento of an Indian brave in the buffalo powder-horn taken from the body of the Shawnee chief Tecumseh at the battle of the Thames in 1813. Many are the reminders of Waterloo and Napoleon—the skeleton of the charger "Marengo," which the Emperor rode; the pocket-telescope, razors, and shaving apparatus left in his carriage; the desk and chair he used at St. Helena; the saddle of Blücher's horse; a map carried by Gen. Picton and saturated with his blood. A number of pikes used by the "Welsh Chartists at the attack on Newport in 1840" remind us that the present sedate inhabitants of the principality have fiery Celtic blood in their veins, as well as their brethren on the other side of St. George's Channel, whose Fenian pikes are also in evidence. The relics of the Franklin expedition are peculiarly interesting; most of them were brought home by Dr. Rae; one is especially affecting—a silver medal gained by a lad at school in 1830; taken with him (then a lieutenant) to sea in 1845; buried in his grave in the far North three years afterwards; and brought home with his remains in 1880. Numberless are the memorials connected with the Crimean campaign and with the ever-recurring Indian wars of the past century.

I have noted only a few of the principal objects in this absorbingly interesting collection. It was some time before the hurrying crowds and the spring sunshine outside recalled us to the present. D. B.

SOME CONTINENTAL LIBRARIES.—VI.

PARIS, April 12, 1895.

THE English and American nomads who wander up and down the Continent, pitching their tents here and there wherever tent-space proves reasonable and forage good, sooner or later arrive at Florence and meet a new experience. When the date comes which they had fixed for departure, they find that the tent-pegs have been driven within an invisible magic circle over which it is next to impossible to step. Instances are frequent of persons, especially women, who came to stay a year and have stayed twenty; of families who are always going home and never go, even for a visit; of girls who in the enchanted wood have met the fairy prince, etc., etc. Whether it be the beautiful little city itself, which admits of a more intimate affection than a large one; whether it be the enervating influence of the climate, giving rise to a malady similar to that which in the southwestern United States is called the "Texas lingers"; whether it be the unaccustomed presence of all those things which we call "home comforts," it is hard to say. I imagine it is a mixture of the three in proper proportions; but certainly in no other foreign city, large or small, has the English or American resident surrounded himself with so homelike an atmosphere. Shops abound that deal in everything we are used to; churches and doctors, dentists and chemists of our own persuasion are within easy reach; there are enterprising papers edited and published by English-speaking firms; the libraries are much frequented by women, who are made entirely welcome; and finally there is a circulating library of 170,000 to 180,000 volumes, to which popular works, as well as works not so popular, are added as they appear.

Every foreigner who has made use of the Vieusseux Library must regard it as behind our home libraries in only one respect—it is not free. That, however, from a business institution could not be expected. Founded in 1819, it has continued under the management of the same family, with a constantly increasing patronage. Its hours alone would make it popular with the majority of Americans, used to dropping in to their own libraries at almost any time; for the reading-room, with its reviews and journals in all languages, is open from eight A. M. to ten P. M., and the circulating department from nine A. M. to five P. M. Access to the shelves is allowed, and printed finding-lists are kept at the call-desk. When rebound, the books are backed and cornered with Florentine vellum which wears admirably, and in Florence costs much less than elsewhere. Sixteenmos and twelvemos were shown to me the rebinding of which had cost only ten cents, and the largest volumes (a set of Italian Parliamentary Proceedings) had been so bound at a cost of a dollar per volume. The title and number are written in black ink on the vellum back, and a sizing put over it. This prevents the erasure of the ink when the books are washed.

The proportion of Italian readers is small, I was told, and a large proportion of these are Hebrews. The majority of the patrons are the English and Americans, and of these the Americans read the more serious class of books. This is probably owing to the fact that many of the English borrowers are old residents and read for amusement, as they would at home, while the Americans are more likely to be spending a few months only in the city and to be reading up on art matters, Florentine and Italian history, etc. The library sends books not only to other places in Italy, but to subscribers beyond the borders of the country, and is, in fact, the Mudie's of Italy. It circulates single numbers of magazines as well as books, and tries to meet every want of a large reading public. No one who has not subsisted for months on the paper-covered literature of railway book-stalls, or spent a rainy week in a bookless hotel or pension, can appreciate the attraction of such a library in a foreign city.

The specialty of the Biblioteca Riccardiana, in the Palazzo Riccardi, is Italian (and particularly Florentine) MS. history and literature. It is a collection entirely for scholars in these lines, and is therefore less used than the other libraries, but is well worth visiting for the sake of some of its MS. treasures. One that particularly interested me was the note-and-

account book kept by Benvenuto Cellini, and the entry that first met my eye was that recording the amount paid him for the Perseus which now stands in the Loggia dei Lanzi. The Italian Dante Society has its headquarters and keeps its collection at the Riccardiana; hence the library is rich in Dantean books and MSS.

One need not be either a savant or a librarian to feel impressed with one's visit to the Mediceo-Laurenziana, the Library attached to the Church of San Lorenzo and approached through the cloisters. The entrance and the wooden ceiling, as well as the reading-desks or *plutei*, were of Michelangelo's designing, and to the latter the MSS. are still attached by chains. There are eighty-eight of these desks, which, with the accompanying seats, look a little like church pews. In the shelves under the slanting tops lie hundreds of bound MSS., the richest collection in the world, perhaps, as regards merit. The most choice are under glass, lying open on the inclined top of the desks.

Among other things, there are shown to the visitor who is interested a MS. of Tacitus, the only copy extant containing the first five books of the 'Annals'; the Medicean Virgil of the fourth century; the oldest MS. copy of the Pandects of Justinian, dating from the sixth or seventh century, brought from Amalfi by the Pisans, and afterwards taken by Florence in the wars between the two cities; the best MS. of Cicero's Letters; a beautifully illuminated copy of the 'Shah-Nameh'; Cellini's autograph Memoirs; and Petrarch's 'Canzone,' with full-page portraits on vellum, by Simone Memmi, of Petrarch and Laura. The modern department of the library, containing about 600 volumes, consisting chiefly of books of reference and works having relation to the MS. collection, is called the Biblioteca Delciana. The reading-room is circular, lighted from the top, and would accommodate about a dozen persons, I should think.

The history of this library is full of vicissitudes. Founded by Cosimo the Elder in the sixteenth century, it was continued by his sons, and much enlarged by Lorenzo the Magnificent, who sent collectors into all parts of the world to buy manuscripts for it. When the Medici were expelled, the Signoria confiscated it and placed it under the care of the Convent of San Marco, the monks of which finally bought it. Pope Leo X., Giovanni de' Medici, bought it back into the Medici family and had it brought to Rome. On the death of the Pope, Cardinal Giulio de' Medici sent it back to Florence and commissioned Michelangelo to construct a building for it next the cloisters of San Lorenzo. Clement VII. next interested himself in the collection and finished the building. The grand dukes took little thought for it, and it was probably during their time that many of the manuscripts were lost or mutilated; but the house of Lorraine was more careful, and took pains to guard the treasures and to provide catalogues. During its administration various other collections were added to the library, and the suppressed convents in the present century contributed many additions. In all, there are about 9,000 manuscripts and nearly 5,000 printed books.

The Government Library at Genoa is the Universitaria, occupying rooms on the upper floor of the University building. This, too, had for its basis the library belonging to the Jesuits, and its largest room exhibits the same architecture and general arrangement as the Jesuit library room at the Vittorio Emanuele at Rome. It has the right to a copy of every publication appearing from the press of Genoa and the province of Liguria, but this right does not increase its possessions to any extent. The report of 1893 gives the number of volumes as more than a hundred thousand—very nearly the number in the Marucelliana at Florence. Here first I heard candidly expressed the feeling that many of the old books on the shelves were cumberers of the ground and should make way for modern works of greater utility to students, who, after all, are obliged to live in their own century with the rest of us. The opinion did not, of course, apply to those works which have intrinsic value, or which help to reconstitute the past for us; but the majority of old books on theological subjects belong to neither of these categories.

The catalogues here were placed in the corridor through which all persons passed to enter the library, and were freely used. Some of them were manuscript volumes of forty or fifty years' standing, in constant use, yet showing scarcely a tear. The later volumes on modern paper presented a very different spectacle, and, after making due allowance in view of the greater use of the later catalogues, I could not help feeling a little discouragement at the inferior workmanship of our day in this respect. The first dictionary-catalogue that I had seen in Italy I found here—arranged on cards, by authors, titles, and subjects, in one series; but I was told that an excellent one of the same kind existed at Bologna. The work was only recently begun, but the convenience of it was beginning to be felt by those employed in the library. Nearly three hundred periodicals are taken, of which eleven are in English. There is a reading-room for women, though it is not much used. The building has furnace heat, and it is hoped that electric lighting may be supplied soon; all of which signs of modernity were encouraging or discouraging, according to one's view of the functions of a library. Most of us, I think, would look upon them as hopeful.

The Biblioteca Berio, or Municipal Library of Genoa, is one of the best of its kind in Italy. It is better off than many of the Government libraries, having about 7,600 lire per year to expend in books—a sum of much greater purchasing power than its equivalent in dollars. Its *orario* is the longest in Italy, probably, being from nine A. M. to ten P. M., without intermission, the only reduction being on a few feast days and during the summer vacation, when the hours are from nine to three. Its reading-room is large and well-lighted, looking on an open square, and the tables were all occupied. A system of metal checks as receipts for books in use is employed in this room—one I had never seen before except in the public library at San Francisco. Almost no women come to the library, but the librarian, Commendatore Belgrano, assured us that ample provision would be made for them when they desired it. Here, too, furnace heat has been provided for the past three years. The furnaces are built into the walls and are on a level with the rest of the library, and every precaution is taken against fire, though it would seem almost as easy to set fire to "the stern and rockbound coast" itself as to these stone buildings of Genoa. Electric lighting is hoped for here also. The dictionary-catalogue is another of the library's aspirations. The hours of the library being so long, and the readers chiefly men, there is not much demand for books for home use, about two thousand a year going out in this way. The collection numbers nearly a hundred thousand volumes. A most interesting report on the condition of the library was presented by the librarian and printed in 1888, in which the practical view taken of its scope and management and the ambition to extend its usefulness are most refreshing.

In spite of all I had heard of the Biblioteca di Brera, I should have felt it inadvisable to go out of my way so far as Milan if it had not been for a desire to see the school recently inaugurated in connection with the library. When, therefore, on arriving I found that, partly for lack of funds, the municipality had discontinued it this year, I was greatly disappointed. Strangely enough, this fact did not seem to be known at Florence. The school was at first intended to be one of Bibliology, and an extensive course was prepared by Prof. Fumagalli, the author of the leading work in Italian on library systems. It was found, however, that the students who came were in search of instruction that would take less time, and that would give them a commercial knowledge of books rather than fit them for librarianship; and as the continuation of the school depended largely on its ability to attract students, it was thought best to reduce the course and make it more applicable to the needs of this class. The hope was felt that, once interested in the subject, there might be young men anxious to pursue it further and in the direction first planned. Even with this concession, however, the students were few, and the municipality preferred to spend its funds, which were restricted, in work that would show more encouraging results.

As altered, the course contained not more than forty lessons, under the following heads:

(1.) The book before and (2) after the invention of printing.

(3.) The arts associated in the making of the book.

(4.) The selection of a stock of books and its management.

(5.) History of the book-trade.

(6.) Hints on the care-taking of books.

The greatest number of lessons were to be given on the fourth topic, and the next greatest on the second.

Since 1884, the Brera, which had been a general library, has made a specialty of the historical sciences, literature, philosophy, and social science, aiming to coördinate with the other libraries of the city in forming one large and symmetrical collection. Its Manzoni collection, kept in a separate room, and consisting of MS. editions and translations of Manzoni's works, biographical and critical material, autographs and portraits, is a very choice one and attractively arranged. It contains also the larger part of Manzoni's own library. In the line of social science and political economy the library is the richest in Italy. The number of volumes is about 200,000, the library having a right to copies of all books issued in Lombardy. As Milan is a considerable publishing centre, this right is of great value.

The reference-room was the first I had seen in which women might occupy any seats they chose, no table or room being especially reserved for them. About 6,000 books of reference are collected in this room in open shelves to which students have free access; and current periodicals are kept here also. A modification of the card catalogue invented by Staderini of Rome, in use in several libraries I had visited, was suggestive. The cards, which are square and fastened at one edge into a frame, are turned like the leaves of a book, from right to left, and, the frame being placed on a table with a top inclined at an angle of perhaps thirty degrees, one may stand and run through the contents of the cards with great

ease. Usually I had found the frame placed horizontally, so that one was obliged to bend the neck most uncomfortably in order to read the titles. Here, as in most of the Government libraries, the arrangement on the shelves is by the size and form of the book. Even when a library reports its classification to be by subject-matter, I have found that this means a primary division into very large classes and subdivisions by size and form.

It was with much regret that I left this library, knowing it to be the last I should see in Italy. Everywhere I had met kindness and courtesy, and if there are indications in Italy, as I cannot help thinking there are, that the people are making a fresh start in the direction of better education and a higher ethical standard, I am persuaded that the libraries, with their encouragement to study and investigation, are responsible in part. The conception of the library as anything but a *higher* institution of learning is not yet generally understood, it is true. There is no effort made to establish libraries of popular books, in order to induce the people to educate themselves. Such an effort on the part of the Government would be impossible at present, for lack of means. Equally impossible does it seem for the Government libraries to step outside of their present province, to take up the work of free circulating libraries. But it seems that the municipalities might do more in this line than they do. The Communal library at Genoa has a large number of workingmen among its Sunday readers, and the evening hours of those libraries that are open in the evening are among the busiest, people coming then who cannot come at any other time on account of their daily occupations. The reference-library does better for men than for women, whose leisure is apt to come a few minutes at a time in the intervals of household occupation, and for whom it is difficult to go out in the evening. For boys and girls, at the age when intellectual curiosity is at its keenest, the library which makes difficult the home circulation of books, or which has books only for persons already instructed, is of no avail as an educator. The Italians, I was told, are not a reading people, and I think it is quite true; but I cannot help thinking also that in Italy as elsewhere a well-calculated supply of free reading to be taken home would create a demand that would surprise those who should undertake to meet it.

MARY W. PLUMMER.

Correspondence.

SOME GRAND-ARMY POSTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Whatever may be the truth in regard to an influential minority of the Grand Army, or however much politicians have used the supposed soldier vote to saddle huge pension-bills on the United States Treasury, yet the tone of your articles in the *Nation* during the last two weeks does substantial injustice to all the posts of the G. A. R. with which I am acquainted. I am not a pensioner and have no pensionable disability. I have been a member of the order for fifteen years, and have belonged to posts in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, New York, and Connecticut. In all that time I have heard but two subjects that have been at all prominent in the talk and discussions before the post. The first is Memorial Day. The second is the old army life—its pleasures, hardships, trials, and the amusing incidents that occurred. Both politics and pensions seem to be ruled out by common consent and universal desire. I have known an application for membership, already accepted by the post, to be withdrawn because the applicant had learned on inquiry of the members that the post could not help him get his pension claim through, and he is not now a member of the order. Whatever may be the pressure the Grand Army puts upon Congress or upon those in our large cities who have the power of appointment to office, yet I am sure, from my own knowledge, that the tone and spirit of the vast majority of posts in towns and villages is absolutely the opposite of the tone and spirit your articles ascribe to them.

I write this note that you may be apprised of another side of Grand Army life.

Yours truly, T. C. D.

MAY 4, 1895.

THE HELMHOLTZ MEMORIAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A few months ago Hermann von Helmholtz died, one of the greatest scientific geniuses of all time, whose name will not be forgotten as long as men care for the knowledge of Nature. His invention of the ophthalmoscope made the success of the modern oculist possible, his papers on the conservation of energy gave the strongest impulse to modern physics, his books on seeing and hearing became the basis of modern psychology.

It seems a matter of course that the present generation should express its gratitude in a lasting monument. Not only his friends and pupils all over the world, but men of science and physicians everywhere have supported this idea, and so last month an international committee was formed to collect money for the erection of a great Helmholtz monument in Berlin, where for the last twenty-five years he lived and worked. The plan has nothing to do with local patriotism. America, France, England, Italy, and Russia are represented on the committee; not a decoration of the city of Berlin is in question, but a universal expression of devotion to the spirit of natural science.

No doubt America will take a high place in the list of givers. There has been seldom such an opportunity to show that the United States does not stand behind any other country in intellectual interests. But America has a special reason for paying her respects to the genius of Helmholtz, since Helmholtz, in his seventy-second year, paid his tribute of respect to the genius of America. One year before his death he crossed the ocean, to study and to enjoy the scientific institutions of this country from the Atlantic to the Rocky Mountains, certainly the most famous European who has visited America for many years; and nobody who saw his noble personality in New York or Boston or Baltimore, in Philadelphia or Washington or Chicago, will ever forget him. The American members of the International Committee are Dr. Wolcott Gibbs, President of the National Academy of Sciences; Dr. Hermann Knapp, Professor of Columbia College; and Dr. Hugo Münsterberg, Professor of Harvard University. Contributions may be sent before May 25 to the undersigned, Secretary and Treasurer of the American Committee.

HUGO MUENSTERBERG.

38 QUINCY ST., CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

NORDAU'S 'DEGENERATION.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is nothing less than a calamity that Max Nordau, in his remarkable book on the symptoms of degeneration exhibited by certain writers who have made names for themselves in recent years, has not preserved a just mean in his treatment of his subject, but has allowed his idea, which is a plain, scientific fact when applied to the really bad cases, to so far carry him away that he forgets that a certain amount of unhealthiness of nervous temperament is of no consequence whatever in instances of real genius. As Prof. James points out in the *Psychological Review*, he is really learned not only in contemporary French, English, and German *belles-lettres*, but in the literature of neurological medicine as well; and many of the objects whose odiousness he condemns—Parisian "pornographic" novels especially—are loathsome indeed and deserving of any amount of invective. There never was a book in regard to the value of which two disputants might argue long and both be so fully in the right. If one confines himself to the service which Nordau has rendered by his characterization of the incoherency of much that is run after, and especially of the utter inanity of the most offending of the Frenchmen, one can but praise the book; it is only when he extends his shibboleth to writers who, though his detailed criticism of them is in most instances sound, have in the end far more of strength than of weakness, that he makes the judicious grieve. The book is certain to be widely read, and to furnish ground for much discussion of the relation of morality and decency to art. M.

MAY 4, 1895.

BUTCHERY, NOT TRANSLATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of the article in the last number of the *Nation* (April 25) on Mr. Gonino's translation of the work of Perrot and Chipiez on 'Art in Primitive Greece,' I send you, in a reprint from the *Independent* of the same date, an article by myself on the same subject. From it you will see that your reviewer has really spoken in very mild terms of the performance of Mr. Gonino. I write to you in the hope that the *Nation* may make a stronger protest against the repetition of such outrageous work in the important volumes that are to come. The last six volumes of the great work of Perrot and Chipiez have been butchered by Mr. Gonino in a way that makes them not only unendurable, but an abomination in the eyes of intelligent men everywhere. No one who has not had the misfortune to read the books, can form any conception of the crass ignorance and stupidity displayed by the translator on every page and in every *un*conceivable way. The books in their English dress are a blot upon the scholarship of the age, and, until they are retranslated, can only serve to bring the nascent science of archæology to shame and discredit.

In permitting such atrocious work to issue from their press, the publishers, as your reviewer justly says, have been discourteous to both authors and public. Indeed, they have insulted the intelligence of English-speaking archæologists wherever they may be. In atonement for this the publishers should at once withdraw from the market the last six volumes of this work. They should do this not only in atonement, but in the interest of their own

good name and of the good name of the authors as well. It should be done, too, as a matter of business, for no man in his senses will think of paying the great price demanded for these books unless he be ignorant of the fact that they have been foully butchered. The publishers should employ at once some competent scholar to revise, almost to retranslate, in fact, the *whole* of Mr. Gonino's work, and then republish the books. Nothing short of this will make them in any way acceptable either to archæologists or to men of general culture. In point of fact, archæologists should unite in a protest against the sale of the books, and above all things against a reappearance of Mr. Gonino.

Your reviewer's estimate of Mr. Armstrong's work on the first volumes of the series is a mistaken one, for Mr. Armstrong's work is nowhere good. It is merely passable; it may be endured, but he too is not above the commission of blunders that are quite on a par with some of Mr. Gonino's. In point of fact, an evil fate has been in constant attendance upon the publication of the work of Perrot and Chipiez in its English dress. J. R. S. STERRETT.

AMHERST COLLEGE, MASS., April 30, 1895.

"CAPITOL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The earliest citation given by Dr. Murray for *Capitol* as used in this country bears the date 1843, and is by way of England. Previous to the Declaration of Independence, the buildings in which the colonial assemblies held their meetings were known by various names, among them being Assembly House, Capitol, City Hall, Colony House, Court House, State House, and Town House. Capitol and State House seem to be the only terms now used to indicate the buildings in which the State legislatures sit; and the vogue which the former of these has enjoyed in the present century may, with little hesitation, be attributed to the employment of the word when the Federal City was built. Indeed, until that time the term does not appear to have obtained anywhere except in Virginia; and its history there has not been pointed out. Beverly says that originally the term State House was employed in that colony, and this statement is confirmed by evidence obtained from other sources. The State House at James City was burned in October, 1698, and in the following November Sir E. Andros, who had offered to rebuild it in the same place, was succeeded as Governor by Francis Nicholson. It is the latter who is referred to below in the citation from Beverly. In 1780 the seat of government was moved from Williamsburg to Richmond. All of the quotations except the last two refer to the Capitol at Williamsburg.

"Be it enacted . . . that the said building shall forever hereafter be called and known by the name of the *Capitol*, of this his majesty's colony and dominion of Virginia." 1699, *Virginia Statutes at Large* (1823), iii., 420.

"Soon after his Accession to the Government, he caused the Assembly and Courts of Judicature, to be remov'd from *James*-Town, where there were good Accomodations for People, to *Middle-Plantation*, where there were none. There he flatter'd himself with the fond Imagination, of being the Founder of a new City. He mark'd out the Streets in many Places, so as they might represent the figure *W*, in Memory of his Majesty King *William*, after whose Name the Town was call'd *Williamsburg*. There he procur'd a stately Fabrick to be erected, which he placed opposite to the College, and graced with the magnificent Name of the *Capitol*." 1705, R. Beverly, *History of Virginia*, Book i., ch. iv., p. 99.

"Here is a small Fort or rather Battery mounted with 10 or 12 Guns, which were brought thither from *James*-City by order of Col. *Nicholson*, who caus'd a State house or Capitol to be erected" 1708, J. Oldmixon, *British Empire in America*, i., 273.

"The Cause of my being so particular in describing the *Capitol* is, because it is the best and most commodious Pile of its Kind that I have ever seen or heard of." 1724, H. Jones, *Present State of Virginia* (1865), 30.

"I laid the last top Brick on the Capitol Wall, and so it is now ready to receive the roof. . . . I had laid a foundation brick at the first Building of the Capitol above fifty years ago, and another foundation Brick in April last" 1752, J. Blair, in *Dinwiddie Papers* (1883), i, 146. (The Capitol had been burned in 1746.)

"Dined at the Club, and spent the evening at the Councils Ball at the Capitol." 1770, Washington, *Writings* (1889), ii., 281.

"At the ends of this street are two public buildings, the college and the capitol." 1775, A. Burnaby, *Travels*, 4.

"A propos of the Capitol [at Richmond]. Do my dear friend exert yourself to get the plan begun on set aside, & that adopted which was drawn here [Paris]." 1786, Jefferson, *Writings* (1894), iv. 196.

"A chaste plan sufficiently capacious and convenient for a period not *too* remote, but one to which we may reasonably look forward, would meet my idea in the Capitol [at the Federal City]," 1792, Washington, *Writings* (1891), xii., 107.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, April 28, 1895.

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & CO. announce 'Tenement Tales of New York,' by J. W. Sullivan.

'Celibates,' a novel by George Moore, and 'An Experiment in Altruism' are about to be issued by Macmillan & Co.

The younger Dickens has to be more than ordinarily apologetic for his father in his introduction to the reprint of 'Bleak House' from the author's corrected edition of 1869 (Macmillan). Mr. Forster comes in for his share of blame for the failure of the Guild of Literature and Art, Dickens's abolitionist character has to be maintained against Lord Denman, and his criticism of Christian foreign missions against their advocates, while the reproachful shade of Leigh Hunt has to be laid. Not all will agree that the defence is valid at all points. The volume has the merits, including beauty and cheapness, of its predecessors reprinted from first editions.

So much ignorant nonsense is talked and written about Russia, and even most well-educated people have such vague or curious ideas about the land, that we greet every good book on the subject as a valuable acquisition—for example, 'Russian Rambles,' by Isabel F. Hapgood (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Miss Hapgood not only is familiar with the language and ways of the people she describes, she is also capable of feeling with them, of judging by other than a narrow American standard, and of sympathizing with much that was strange to her as it is to her readers. She has, besides, a keen sense of humor and a style that is at times almost too lively. During the two or three years she passed in the empire she learned and observed so much, which she tells so well, that she has given us a volume of distinctly exceptional merit. It is made up of chapters or articles of unequal length, some of which have already appeared in magazines. Moscow and St. Petersburg, a visit to Count Tolstoi, a trip on the Volga, and many interesting scenes in town and country, are equally well depicted. To any one who wishes to get an idea of Russia to-day, leaving out of consideration such serious studies as the great works of Wallace, Rambaud, and Leroy-Beaulieu, we hardly know of any recent book by a foreigner which we should recommend as heartily as 'Russian Rambles.'

Although the little work entitled 'On India's Frontier, or Nepal, the Gurkhas' Mysterious Land' (J. Selwin Tait & Sons), may be quickly read, it suggests the thought that it might profitably have been shortened. It could be boiled down into an interesting magazine article, a narrative of an adventurous journey in a country seldom visited. The attempt to make it something more than this is not a success. The material was sufficiently plentiful, but not every one can write a good book of travel. The author is evidently not a particularly keen observer, and most of his recollections savor of commonplace. His style is usually inadequate, at times positively bad. The headings of the chapters are often sensational, not to say cheap. That of the first of the two numbered xvi, "Impressive Interview with the Maharajah," leads us to expect something more than a few paragraphs which fail to impress the reader in any way. In the second of them, "The Maharajah's Assassination," a good opportunity has been lost for a bit of effective and interesting description. The stirring scenes witnessed by the writer are put into half-a-dozen meagre pages, which are followed by a long extract from the Bombay *Gazette*, containing the irrelevant letter of a French traveller execrably translated, with such expressions as "I know not absolutely why." The last chapter of all is full of rather ill-tempered remarks about English officials in India; then comes a final foot-note with a puff of the author quoted by the publishers from "one of the Calcutta dailies." Still, in spite of its faults, a couple of hours spent on the book is no great waste of time.

It will probably be some time before we know what has happened in Armenia, but it appears certain that massacres have taken place which, whether provoked or not, have been characterized by great and indefensible atrocities. 'The Armenian Crisis in Turkey' (Putnams), by F. D. Greene, "for several years a resident in Armenia," is a contribution to the literature of the subject. It is made up of letters, "largely based on the testimony of refugees from that region or of Kurds and soldiers who participated in the butchery," extracts from magazine articles, general information about the Armenians, about previous massacres, etc. Though the tone of the book is sensational, the comments of the author or compiler are on the whole temperate, even if he makes no allowance for exaggeration or for the fact, which he admits, that "no writer [of the letters] was an actual eye-witness of the massacre," while, like all other advocates of this kind, he is unable to appreciate how difficult and delicate it is for one or more of the European powers to intervene efficiently in such matters. We note the statement that Russian annexation is "a step for which the sufferers themselves are praying," and that "during a residence of four years in eastern Turkey I noticed a marked and rapid alienation of Armenian sentiment from England in favor of Russia, who now seems to them the only source of succor."

We have already reviewed, in the English edition, the first volume of Prof. W. M. Flinders Petrie's 'History of Egypt,' which covers the period from the beginning down to the Eighteenth Dynasty—that is, including the period of the Hyksos domination. The work is now procurable of Charles Scribner's Sons.

Probably it never occurs to men or women of average common sense that they are competent to enter a machine-shop or a cotton-mill and express an opinion upon the methods of work. But the benevolent layman rarely has such scruples about investigating (the technical expression is "visiting") a hospital whose machinery deals with vital material, and whose output measures health and disease. The few who, with the angels, fear to tread where others cheerfully rush in, should be very glad to study the plain and sensible 'Suggestions to Hospital and Asylum Visitors' that Drs. Billings and Hurd have prepared at Dr. Weir Mitchell's instigation (J. B. Lippincott Co.). It might not be a misapplication of charitable funds to distribute to those who are the censors of the charities, the little book these expert administrators have prepared. Zeal might then be equipped with intelligence.

W. Furneaux's 'Butterflies and Moths [British]' (Longmans) is a decided improvement on many similar works. It shows evidence of care in its preparation, is nicely printed on good paper, and the numerous illustrations are well executed. There are 241 in the text, while twelve colored plates add much to the general attractiveness. Part i. treats of the structure and life-history of the Lepidoptera and of their classification. Part ii. is entitled "Work at Home and in the Field," and in its directions for collecting, rearing, setting and preserving butterflies and moths, and their arrangement in cabinets, it will be found of equal service to British and American entomologists. Parts iii. and iv. are devoted to British butterflies and moths. Of the former the species are so few that place has been found for a figure and description of each one; of the larger moths, all the principal genera are represented in description and figures. A chapter on the micro-lepidoptera is included. An appendix "contains the scientific and popular names of all the British butterflies, Sphinges, Bombyces, Noctuæ, and Geometræ, arranged in their various families and genera," and concludes with a calendar for each month of the year, giving the names of the Lepidoptera that are to be sought for, with directions for the search after them.

The tenth and concluding volume of Edmond Scherer's 'Études sur la Littérature Contemporaine' (Paris: Calmann Lévy) is excellent. It contains twenty-two articles, among which must be named a strong one on "La Rime riche," which is a commentary on Banville's theory not to be passed by; one on Victor Hugo, in which, brief though it is, much is contained and a fair judgment rendered; a brilliant cutting-up of Saintsbury's 'Short History of French Literature,' in which some of the English critic's numerous errors are pointed out; two very interesting and impartial reviews of Bourget; an appreciative one of Green's 'History of the English People'; a striking portrait of "Le Grand Condé"; and, finally, a fine study of "L'Artiste et le Critique," of which Maupassant's 'Pierre et Jean' forms the starting-point. To this wholesome volume, serious and earnest in tone, like all Scherer's work, a general table of contents of the ten volumes is added.

M. H. de la Ville de Mirmont claims his doctorate from the Paris Faculté des Lettres in two volumes (Hachette & Cie.) of more than 1,100 octavo pages in the aggregate. One volume, in French, compares the mythology of Apollonius of Rhodes with that of Virgil. The author propounds the thesis that "the mythology of the 'Æneid' would not be what it is if Virgil had known no other Greek epic than Homer's." This we should be ready to admit *a priori* without these 800 erudite pages. How the delicacies of poetry fare in this learned dust-heap may be judged from one example. We are told that the reason why Virgil so often mentions the dawn is that Aurora was the daughter-in-law of Trojan Laomedon and the mother of Memnon, an ally of the Trojans. The other volume, on the 'Mosella' of Ausonius, deals, in excellent Latin and in the author's exhaustive way, with that exquisite little poem, its origin and date, its sources, metre, and style, and the various imitations to which it has given rise. This volume contains much valuable philological matter, and is in every way worthy of a writer two of whose learned treatises have already been "crowned" by the French Academy.

Heinrich von Poschinger's birthday memorial work has duly appeared, but with an important addition to the title under which it was first announced, being now called: 'Fürst Bismarck: Neue Tischgespräche und Interviews.' These "interviews," the collection of which seems to have been a happy afterthought, have swelled the volume to a large octavo of 427 pages, and form by far the most entertaining and instructive portion of it. The interviewers were American and European journalists, and the conversation was conducted in German, French, or English, according to the nationality of the inquisitor. Peculiarly piquant are the interviews with French journalists, especially that held with Henri du Houx, editor of *Le Matin*, on April 24 and 25, 1890. Interesting, too, is the statement made by Bismarck to the representative of a German-American paper in November, 1866. The Conservative party in Prussia had urged King William to recognize the Southern Confederacy soon after the outbreak of the rebellion, but Bismarck steadily opposed this policy, declaring that, whatever might be the issue of the civil war, the North would always be Prussia's natural ally. Poschinger's work is a much more valuable contribution to contemporary history than the extract from it printed in the February number of the *Deutsche Revue* would indicate. In this respect the "interviews" are superior to the "table-talk."

With characteristic patience, Mr. W. M. Griswold continues at Cambridge, Mass., the compilation and publication of his "Descriptiv Lists" of fiction, to whose utility we have frequently testified. We have now before us such a 'List of Novels and Tales dealing with Ancient History'—a dreary tract, for the most part, though it contains a few masterpieces; and a 'List of American Historical Novels,' in which the quoted "descriptions" or reviews are noticeably liberal in extent. Here the arrangement is conveniently chronological, and comes down even to the Charleston earthquake of 1886. At the other end of the line is 'Behemoth, a Legend of the Mound-builders.'

The feature of the *Book-Buyer* for May is a Bibliography of the original editions of the works of Whittier, compiled by Edward H. Bierstadt.

The Roman *Revista delle Biblioteche*, now beginning its sixth year, will be issued regularly every two months, with an enlarged title (*e degli Archivi*) to indicate its new concern for archives as well as for libraries. Its first fascicule under this arrangement contains some Dante anecdotes by T. Casini, and some observations by Hermann Loevinson on the necessity and the means of improving the quality of ink and paper for use in public offices.

The Secretary of Agriculture has instituted, through the agency of the Weather Bureau, a systematic investigation of climate, and its influence on health and disease. The importance of such an investigation, properly conducted, cannot be overestimated, especially to the increasing army of invalids who are constantly migrating from one section of our country to another in the too often illusory search for health. Such a study of the climates of the United States should be of practical value to every community, and the chief of the Weather Bureau asks for the cordial coöperation of the various sanitary authorities, societies, and physicians, who are willing to send "regularly and promptly" to the Bureau reports of vital statistics from their own localities, on uniform blanks, prepared and distributed, free of charge, on application. As compensation to these professional collaborators will be given all future publications of the Bureau bearing on climatology and its relation to health and disease, the hope being expressed that sufficient data will be secured to justify the publication of a climatological journal resembling somewhat the present Monthly Weather Review.

B. Westermann & Co. send us Parts 11–16 in continuation of the eighth edition of 'Ritter's Geographisch-Statistisches Lexicon,' which nearly conclude the first volume—a consummation to be wished by all who know by experience the value of this admirable gazetteer; also, the eighth of the fifteen parts of Langhans's 'Deutscher Kolonial-Atlas,' showing the German "sphere" in southwest Africa and protectorates and extension in Australia and Polynesia. From Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, we have Part xvii. of Kiepert's 'Grosser Hand-Atlas,' with Africa in full; the middle portion of South America; Chili and the Argentine Republic; the German Empire, etc. The South American sheets are particularly welcome. As usual, an index of names, and physical, vital, and commercial statistics, accompany each map.

The Union and Confederate Geographical Divisions and Departments continue to occupy the issues (33, 34) of the Government 'Atlas to Accompany the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies.' The map of the United States is repeated from date to date with fresh boundaries and denominations.

Bulletin No. 3 of the Geographical Club of Philadelphia contains the annual address of the president, Prof. Angelo Heilprin, in which he reviews the recent progress of geographical discovery and indicates some of the tasks remaining for the future explorer. These relate to the regions about the Bering Sea and Strait with a view to investigate the relations between Asia and America; West Central Africa and its pigmy race; and the coral islands, as the Bermudas, for the purpose of determining the nature of their origin. An account of a journey through Alsace and Lorraine by Mr. T. W. Balch, is given in Bulletin No. 4. It is illustrated, and has a map showing the lines of defence of northeastern France.

The latest brochure of the *National Geographic Magazine* contains an essay on Oregon, its history, geography, and resources, by Senator Mitchell. History preponderates; geography is subordinate and unscientific. The early misconceptions of the character of the region are well presented.

The list of geographical publications, for many years prepared by Koner and, until his death in 1887, published in the *Verhandlungen* of the Gesellschaft für Erdkunde of Berlin, has now been replaced by a separate volume issued by the society, with the title 'Bibliotheca Geographica,' prepared by O. Baschin. The first number, lately issued, is for 1891 and 1892, a stout octavo volume of 506 pages (Wester-

mann); the number for 1893 is promised soon. The titles are well arranged; general works in various departments of geography coming first, and descriptive works being afterwards carefully classified according to localities.

The Geographical Society of Munich celebrates the twenty-fifth anniversary of its foundation by publishing a special volume of essays by Ratzel, Penck, Günther, and others. A list of geographical works on Bavaria is contributed by Gruber; and an account by Ammon of the geology of the region around Munich, well illustrated by map and plates, will prove valuable to visitors to the capital who have scientific interests. The glacial phenomena characteristic of the Alpine foreland are excellently displayed in the neighborhood.

Prof. Gustav Hirschfeld of the University of Königsberg died in Wiesbaden on April 20, after a long and heroic fight with cancer. In the vain hope of obtaining relief, he even came to America and became an inmate of the New York Cancer Hospital for a time. In his great and minute knowledge of Asia Minor and all matters pertaining thereto he was easily without a peer. He was a Jew, gifted with intellect and charm of manner as are few men. He died in the very prime of manhood.

By a typographical error we gave a wrong address for subscriptions to the contemplated Stevenson memorial fountain in San Francisco. They should be sent to Mr. W. D. Armes, University of California.

—The event of the month among the magazines is the appearance in *Scribner's* of the first part of Mrs. Humphry Ward's dramatic study in feminine criminology. The action on this rustic stage has already waxed to a crisis of a degree of complexity that only a strong hand could so swiftly and inevitably have developed. The number also supplies to the reader an eclectic review of the crotchets, fads, and interests of divers of his contemporaries. Judge Howland is especially happy on the subject of golf—not, perhaps, tenderly solicitous to instruct and help forward the beginner, but a primed exponent of all (some may even think more than) "there is in" the game the Scot and his imitators hold dear. The article on "French Posters and Book-Covers," by Arsène Alexandre, leaves, with its capital illustrations, nothing to desire—unless to the deeply bitten—in information about the subject of the latest collector's mania, the best-known prizes of which are the work of Chéret, Grasset, or Willette, whose influence may even now be dimly detected on almost any advertisement board or sheet. The district must be remotely rural that can find nothing personal to itself in Joseph Wetzler's discussion, "Will the Electric Motor Supersede the Steam Locomotive?"; while a short, informal account of the Impressionists comes, at the hand of Jean François Raffaelli, from the fountainhead. It is interesting to learn that this artist's own choice of a class-name would have been the "Characterists," as defining "the whole artistic movement of our time"—"the search for what is characteristic." Finally, there is a story, "The Martyrdom of John the Baptist," by Wolcott Le Clear Beard, which gives with skilful reticence and a picturesque concentration of effect an impression of life as it is passed by those who dwell in the adobe habitations of Frog Tanks, at the foot of the Sierra Tucson, in the midst of the Arizona desert.

—It is more than a coincidence, it is a sign of the times, that each of the magazines in turn more or less directly brings into notice this Territory and the section to which it belongs. The *Century* contains a valuable account of the actual and possible redemption of the 800,000,000 acres of desert lying west of the line of the one hundredth meridian. The reclamation of Utah by its Mormon settlers, of Greeley in Colorado, of the Salt River Valley in Arizona, and, better known to the tourist, of Riverside in California, is described by pen, statistic, and picture as part of the accomplished work of the "miracle of irrigation." A forecasting of the stupendous work yet to be done in this region, vast enough to accommodate the entire present population of the United States, with "social and industrial systems better and purer than any the past has known," leads by a logical sequence to two questions of national importance: the first, how the Government shall dispose of its own half billion of irrigable acres, "the priceless heritage of the children of America"; the second, what means it shall take for the preservation of the forests, "nature's storage reservoirs." The loss, "by fire and avarice," that delay in the last issue is involving is only less enormous than the national callousness that suffers it to go on. This paper, "The Conquest of Arid America" by name, is the one completed article of note in the number, though a portrait of Rubinstein is accompanied by some readable reminiscences of the composer.

—The prevailing paucity of matter over which it is worth while to linger in *Harper's* is relieved by the addendum to the foregoing topic. Here the exploitation of sand and oasis is in the form of a story, "La Tinaja Bonita," by Owen Wister. The fictional element sinks promptly into the Lethean regions of the reader's consciousness, and what is left distinct is a haunting impression of the agonies of man and beast in a death in this New World desert, or, to be more exact, in the death that follows to a certainty upon the torture and delirium of drought unless the relieving water, if found, is taken drop by drop—not quaffed with the eagerness of desire. To appreciate the general unsatisfactoriness of the illustrations to a description of the Museum of the Prado in general, and of Velazquez in particular, nothing more is needed than a comparison with the fine frontispiece to *Scribner's*—a reproduction, by still another coincidence, of a work of the same master.

—It is, finally, in the favoring atmosphere of Flagstaff, Arizona, that the series of observations which form the basis of the paper on Mars in the *Atlantic* have lately been made. Although the superscription of this admirable paper is astronomical, and its contents reveal an intimacy with the physical conditions of the ruddy planet that may well make wonder grow at what the specialist's eye and reason combined can discover, its object is one "which appeals romantically, at least, to everybody." This is to determine whether Mars is peopled by intelligent beings, "although physically they be utterly unlike us, more goblins than men or animals." The present paper sums up the proofs from the existence of an atmosphere; the forthcoming one will deal with the proofs from the existence of water, the second of the two things in nature vital "to all forms of life of which we have any conception." Mr. Lowell's graceful literary handling of this scientific theme must strike even the most cursory readers not less than the opposition between his convincingly reasoned conclusions and those of Prof. Holden in the current issue of the *North American Review*. It is a pleasure to be able to praise also the literary form of a paper, "A Week on Walden's Ridge," written from a naturalist's point of view by Bradford Torrey, and also to find that, although Miss Repplier has changed her skies, she has changed nothing for the worse in her apposite manner of disposing of her subject. There are, indeed, features in her description of "Christmas Shopping at Assuân" that incline one to predict an agreeable development in an already agreeable talent. Some letters of Dr. Benjamin Rush, the defamer of Washington, edited by Paul Leicester Ford, fall in, in general drift, with a paper by John Bach McMaster, which has the somewhat thankless task of showing "The Political Depravity of the Fathers."

—New information on Madagascar, even though scanty, is to be welcomed in these days. M. Émile Gautier, in a lecture delivered at the Sorbonne in February, upon his return from the island, and published in the 53d *Bulletin de l'Alliance Française*, tells us that among the Hovas 100,000 pupils are being taught in some 8,000 schools by an equal number of indigenous teachers, the latter having been trained through the agency of 225 missionaries and four primary normal schools—a very satisfactory showing, if we place the entire Hova population, according to a recent German authority, at about one million, or one-third of the population of the island. The native teachers read and write well their own language and know the rudiments of some sciences and of a European language; in fact, there are several hundred thousand natives who read and write their language in Latin characters, and, still better, material for reading is provided for them. From six printing presses are issued books, both sacred and secular, and a considerable number of magazines, some even illustrated, besides two newspapers. Native clerks are already employed in French offices. M. Gautier regretfully adds that the work of civilization has been carried on in a large measure "by the enemies of France." Of the 8,000 teachers only 640, and only 17,000 of the 100,000 pupils, fall to the account of French missionaries, the remainder to English or Norwegian. On the other hand, it is a consoling thought that the Hovas do not seem to care whether their children are taught by English or French, by Protestant or Catholic, teachers; sons of the same family go, one to the French missionary, another to the English, a third to the Norwegian. They are largely attached to a religion which has more adherents in France than in England, the "*je m'en fichisme.*" M. Gautier's account of the bootless endeavors of Norwegian missionaries among the Sakalavas, the other great tribe of the island, seems to leave little room for doubt of their refractoriness, thus far, to all civilizing influences, whether Mohammedan or Christian.

—M. Paul Bourget's 'Outre-Mer' comes again in a new English dress and in handsome binding from the house of Charles Scribner's Sons. It has already been discussed at such length as instalment after instalment appeared in the press, the book itself is so long and parts of it so lacking in genuine interest, that an extended review is unnecessary. It gives the impression of being written too soon, before the "shocks" and "sensations" had resolved themselves into more definite and permanent shape. It is, indeed, a series of notes and sketches with conclusions come to and judgments formed that one cannot always agree with. But it is a singularly interesting work in that it comes from a trained and practised observer, who

sees and notes things which most of us merely glance at and straightway forget. The things are so, for the most part, only they either do not strike us at all or strike us lightly and differently. Americans rebel at being pictured as M. Bourget pictures them, but it is well to remember that as they appear, so they are to him —and in a less degree to the average foreigner. It must be allowed, on the other hand, that the French observer is at times under the influence of a theory, formed too easily, and to which, unconsciously, he seeks to adapt some part of what he notes. Yet there is deep truth in Bourget's description of much that marks American life and character, the crudity in certain matters, the love of display, the garishness, the feverishness, the restlessness. These traits it is unpleasant to be reminded of, especially by a master in the art of torturing analysis. Of the translation it can be said that it is above the average and reads easily, only occasionally calling up a smile or causing a knitting of the brows. In these days of misrepresentations of foreign tongues this is much to be thankful for.

—The first volume of Hatzfeld, Darmsteter and Thomas's 'Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française, du commencement du XVIIe siècle jusqu' à nos jours' (Paris: Delagrave) is completed, and a first instalment of the second volume has appeared. The work maintains the high standard set by its authors, and, even in its incomplete form, is constantly referred to by every earnest student of French, having already acquired the rank of an undoubted and trustworthy authority. Less bulky than Littré or the Academy, the Hatzfeld-Darmsteter is destined to be the dictionary of general reference, the others keeping their position, of course, as on the one hand a storehouse of information, and on the other as the official authority. The plan adopted by the authors consists in first tracing the etymology of a word, and next accurately defining its original meaning, its present standard meaning, and finally its varied meanings, as they happen to be technical, special, or more general as caused by extension. In this way the history of the word is seen at a glance, and how valuable this is in tracing the changes in its signification need not be dwelt upon. For general practical purposes the new dictionary enables the student to dispense with a special dictionary of synonyms, as the shades of meaning are clearly brought out, not by definitions alone, but by abundant and well-selected examples. Idioms and proverbial expressions are in a similar way rendered quite intelligible, as may readily be seen by reference to the word *eau*, for instance, *franc*, with its numerous compounds, or *frais*. The work will be indispensable, and no higher praise can be given to it than this. It should be added that the print is particularly good, easy to read, and that the varieties of type employed greatly facilitate reference. According to the original announcement, the completed work should consist of two volumes; judging, however, by the contents of the first, it may be assumed that it will comprise three.

—The discovery of a new race in Egypt was announced by Prof. Flinders Petrie on April 17 to the Royal Society, Edinburgh. He has found traces of it throughout a district stretching for a hundred miles along the western bank of the Nile south of Abydos, but mainly at a spot thirty miles north of Thebes. Here, on the top of the plateau, 1,400 feet above the river, are the remains of a town with a cemetery in which he has excavated nearly two thousand graves. In them "not a single Egyptian object was found—not one scarab or cartouche, not one hieroglyph, not one piece of usual funereal furniture, a head-rest, or a kohl-pot, not one Egyptian bead, not one god, not one amulet, not a single piece of Egyptian pottery such as was found abundantly in the neighboring Egyptian town. And not one body was mummified or buried at full length; all were contracted, with the knees bent up to the arms." There were in the graves, however, adzes, needles and harpoons made of copper, exquisitely finished flint knives, beautifully formed stone vases, wrought by hand out of alabaster as well as hardest syenite, glazed crystal beads, and exquisitely colored pottery. This, too, was made by hand, the use of the wheel being apparently unknown. There are no traces of writing, beyond personal marks, nor of hieroglyphs, and the figures of animals are rudely drawn. The race was one of remarkable stature, some individuals being over six feet high. They had brown, wavy hair, prominent aquiline noses, and long-pointed beard, having a "strong resemblance to the Libyan and Amorite type." The condition of some of the bodies indicates the prevalence among them of ceremonial funereal cannibalism. From the relations of these remains with other tombs and monuments in this same spot, Prof. Petrie is inclined to regard this race as the people, possibly Libyans, "who overthrew Egyptian civilization at the close of the old kingdom, and so produced that dark age of the seventh and eighth dynasties, when the Egyptians seem to have been narrowed and oppressed by disaster"—that is, about 3000 B. C. Another discovery, of purely classical interest, was that of a more modern Egyptian town within a quarter of a mile of this ancient settlement, which proved to be the Nubt-Ombos mentioned in the 15th Satire of Juvenal. This clears up an old obscurity which has long puzzled his commentators, this town being close to Tentyra [Denderah] as he states, while the only hitherto known Ombi was one hundred miles distant.

ARISTOTLE'S THEORY OF POETRY.

Aristotle's Theory of Poetry and Fine Art. With a Critical Text and Translation of the Poetics. By S. H. Butcher, Litt.D., LL.D. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

To a certain order of minds a revolt against Aristotle is perfectly comprehensible. With Plato it is absolutely impossible to quarrel. He is a manner of divine "Weltkind"; but the master of those who know is so very knowing and so very sensible that the spirit of contrariety is aroused in those who are not perfectly amenable to dictation. When he says, in his cock-sure way, παρὰ ταῦτα οὐδέν, "That's all," the unregenerate soul yearns to prove that there is something else. When he brings out his "irrefutable sign," there are those who sympathize with one Alexinos when he expresses his weariness of the inevitable illustration—nay, more, rejoice to learn that the proof is not an infallible proof, and that milk has been found in men as well as in mothers. When he tells us, with his air of superior wisdom, not less offensive because his wisdom *is* superior, that "the sea-fight at Salamis and the battle with the Carthaginians took place on the same day, but did not tend to the same result," there are those who delight to think him blind to the larger historical aspects of things, who see a concerted movement that has suffered a double check, and who would no more divorce Salamis and Himera than they would divorce Gettysburg and Vicksburg, or would, at all events, say, with Freeman, "Hellas against Canaan, the elder Hellas against the elder Canaan, the younger against the younger, that was the cause to be judged on that memorable day"—only Freeman is another dictator who is apt to provoke dissent.

It is really very much a matter of temperament, as was said long ago, how a man stands affected towards Aristotle; and the revived interest in the great thinker due to the discovery of the 'Constitution of Athens' has evoked a good deal of animosity that manifests itself in many curious ways. Those are not all friends of Aristotle who believe in the Aristotelian authorship of the 'Constitution of Athens.' But the interest is undeniable, and does not seem to diminish with the lapse of time. The great edition of Sandys, which seemed sufficiently comprehensive to satisfy scholars at least for a brief space, was followed immediately by Kaibel's one volume on the style and text of the 'Constitution of Athens,' and Wilamowitz-Moellendorff's two on Aristotle and Athens—both works that deserve the closest attention. Indeed, one looks with dismay at the so-called literature that has gathered about the 'Constitution of Athens' since the time when Mr. Stead, in the *Review of Reviews*, called that important but somewhat disappointing resuscitation "the book of the month." And just as 'Trilby' gives a fillip to 'Peter Ibbetson,' and Hall Caine's 'Manxman' revives his earlier experiments, so the 'Constitution of Athens' seems to have called for new editions and new handlings of the 'Nicomachean Ethics' and the 'Politics,' both prime favorites with English scholars.

But Aristotle's æsthetics are not so much to the fancy of the average Briton as the 'Ethics' and the 'Politics.' The 'Rhetoric,' to be sure, has not been wholly neglected, and we had occasion some years ago to notice Mr. Welldon's translation of that treatise. But a large part of the 'Rhetoric' is applied logic, applied psychology, whereas the heart of Aristotle's æsthetic theories is to be sought in the 'Poetics'; and although Englishmen themselves had led the way to a juster appreciation of the 'Poetics,' there seems to have been an undercurrent of national resentment against a treatise to which French critics and French dramatists appealed for the cramping doctrine of the three unities. To be sure, it had been shown generations ago that Aristotle was not so narrow as he had been represented to be by people who had not studied him, and the famous "purgation of the passions" had been made a more intelligible process by Bernays, who was in close sympathy with the earlier and more robust type of English scholarship, and who counted among his admirers and friends some of the best English scholars of his generation. But the average Philistine would not heed the protest that Aristotle was not responsible for the French three unities. Shakspere had been insulted, and that was enough. And as for the Bernaysian *katharsis*, that was too much in the style of Molière's *ensuitta purgare* in the "Malade Imaginaire." But, whatever the reason, the 'Poetics' has been neglected by insular scholars so that a whole century has elapsed between the critical edition of Tyrwhitt in 1794 and the critical edition of Prof. Butcher.

Prof. Butcher's text steers between Susemihl and Vahlen—between Susemihl, who, ac-

cording to Prof. Butcher, "carries conjecture too far," and Vahlen, "whose adherence to the Parisian MS. borders on superstition"; and, so steering, is more closely coincident with the text of Wilhelm Christ than with any other. The doctrine of the dominant MS., like the doctrine of an infallible church, is a very great comfort to those who stick to it resolutely; but moments of infidelity come to the stoutest believer, and the temptation to make sense of a passage is too much for most of us at times. A luminous correction in an inferior MS. makes one crave some authority outside of the chance divination of a late reader. We swear by our Laurentianus, our Ambrosianus, in theory, but in practice we are prone to follow the example of the Israelites of old and disport ourselves in the groves of strange gods.

However, in this case, points of textual criticism, which cannot be considered here, will hardly affect the reconstruction of Aristotle's æsthetic catechism, which can be reproduced from the 'Poetics' with the help of his other works; and this reconstruction, with a consequent reinterpretation, is the aim of Professor Butcher's book, which he has entitled 'Aristotle's Theory of Poetry and Fine Arts.' The text of the 'Poetics' is faced by an idiomatic translation for which Hellenist and non-Hellenist alike will be grateful, for in an author like Aristotle a translation is often the best commentary, and it may be said here by way of parenthesis that if a translation is to be published with the text, as is very fashionable nowadays, it is well to put it as Professor Jebb has done and Professor Butcher has done—facing the text, and not as an appendix. The rendering ought to look the original in the eye, and not force the unlucky reader to have another copy of the text before him or to "shift from side to side by turns," like the fever-stricken wretch in the hymn-book. The translation is, as was to be expected of such a master as Professor Butcher, clear and fluent and idiomatic, and a contrast in its easy flow to the crabbedness and jottiness, so to speak, of the original; so that the translator has made the 'Poetics' accessible to those who are outside the Aristotelian lecture-room. He has given us Aristotle the man of the world rather than Aristotle the professor, and most people will think it a blessed change. And what is more, it is a legitimate change, for Aristotle has more than one style, and we have been taught of late that he was extraordinarily sensitive to his environment and reflected at every turn the authors with whom he was brought into contact. The association with Professor Butcher has evidently done him good.

The essays which follow the text and translation of the 'Poetics' are not all new; in fact, they are for the most part repetitions and expansions of certain chapters in the first edition of 'Some Aspects of the Greek Genius,' a work which was received with deserved favor, and which has been republished with the omission of the Aristotelian chapters and the addition of other matter. New in this volume are chapter vii. on the "Dramatic Unities," and chapter viii. on the "Ideal Tragic Hero." In view of all the tortures the scholars have suffered from *duplex recensio* and *contaminatio*, one cannot help fancying what would be the state of mind of a student who should try to find out without the help of the prefaces the exact relation of the earlier Butcher to the later, for several of the titles are changed, and the order is varied so that one is reminded of the 'Politics' or Propertius by i (i) ii (iii) iii (iv) iv (ii) v (vi) vi (viii) [vii] [viii] ix (ix) x (v) xi (vii). The new arrangement is a criticism of the old, but neither order seems to be inevitable, and a sketch-map of the ground to be traversed would have been welcome. The headings of the chapters do not quite suffice.

Without derogating from the merit of the new chapters, the two essays that are of most importance and interest to readers and author alike are the essay on "Imitation as an Æsthetic Term" and the essay on "The Function of Tragedy," in which the modern views of the *katharsis* are set forth. Prof. Butcher is not a thorough-paced Aristotelian, and recognizes freely the fact that Aristotle more than any other writer "has suffered from the intemperate admiration of his friends." "A far truer respect would have been shown him," he adds, "had it been frankly acknowledged that in his *Poetics* there are oversights and omissions which cannot be altogether set down to the fragmentary character of the book; that his judgments are based on literary models which, perfect as they are in their kind, do not exhaust the possibilities of literature; that many of his rules are tentative rather than dogmatic; that some of them need revision or qualification." In short, Prof. Butcher seems to have some degree of allowance for the rebellious spirits mentioned in the opening of this notice. But as to "Imitation," he contends that Aristotle is quite right, if we interpret the word as an æsthetic term correctly. It is, to be sure, "a somewhat infelicitous term" which Aristotle had inherited from his predecessors, but he has charged it with a new meaning which it is our business to discover. By "Imitation" Aristotle does not mean "a literal copy, a mere facsimile of the world of experience." "Imitative art in its highest form, namely, poetry, is an expression of the universal element in human life." "Art, in imitating the universal, imitates the ideal; and we can now describe a work of art as an idealized representation of human life—of character, emotion, action—under forms manifest to sense."

The other important chapter on "The Function of Tragedy," or the doctrine of the *katharsis*, has remained essentially the same with slight expansions and little corrective touches. The *katharsis* Prof. Butcher takes, with Bernays, to be a medical metaphor, and the process of purgation a homœopathic process. "But it is only under certain conditions of art that the homœopathic cure of pity and fear by similar emotions is possible." We must rise from the particular to the universal, and it is this universality as the "characteristic note" of Aristotle that commends him to the student of Greek life and human life. And this is the drift of all Prof. Butcher's teaching; this must be the burden of every true prophet of Hellenism, though few prophets of Hellenism have Prof. Butcher's clear vision and his attractive style. "All that has been bequeathed to us by Greece," he said in the preface to his former volume, "is modern almost as truly as it is ancient; for it rests on the essential sameness under all circumstances of man's nature and faculties." Greek literature mirrors our every-day life. Aristophanes comments on the follies of American society, the vices of American politics, and the fallacies of American finance; and when we read the soliloquy of Ajax in Sophocles, we think of Gen. Chang at Wei-Hai-Wei. This essential universality of Greek life and Greek literature shows itself also in the universality of Greek æsthetics as summed up by Aristotle, and it is Prof. Butcher's great merit to have handled not only with complete mastery of the subject, but with clearness, vividness, unfailing charm of style, and spontaneous happiness of illustration, a subject which would naturally escape into the realm of arid technicalities and abstruse formulas.

FLINT'S SOCIALISM.

Socialism. By Robert Flint, Professor in the University of Edinburgh. London: Isbister & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1895.

THE world may well be weary of socialism, both in fact and in name; but it is idle to suppose that the movement is going to die out after a time. It is as permanent as envy and discontent, and it is as truly described now as in the time of Aristotle as the perversion or corruption of democracy. Since this form of government is likely to prevail generally in the future, there is certain to be a steady tendency towards socialistic experiments; and unless the conservative forces of society are concentrated in opposition to this tendency, we may presently witness some episodes as startling as the French Revolution. Prof. Flint justly observes that to ignore a movement of this kind for fear of propagating it by talking about it, is not the part of wisdom. His purpose, therefore, is to study the phenomenon with care, to examine its causes and its consequences, and to watch its progress. Like Gamaliel, he favors no violent measures of repression; inclining rather to wait and see if the socialistic counsel, being of men, will not come to naught.

Socialism, according to Prof. Flint's definition, is any theory of social organization which sacrifices the legitimate liberties of individuals to the will or interests of the community. The objection to such a definition as this is obvious. It is meaningless unless we have a previous definition of legitimate liberties; which it is not an easy matter to furnish. Prof. Flint, in the course of his discussion, does furnish approximately such a definition, and in this way meets the objection. Yet we incline to regard the definition offered by Mr. Bradlaugh in his debate with Mr. Hyndman as having peculiar merit. "Socialism," he said, "denies individual private property, and affirms that society organized as the State should own all wealth, direct all labor, and compel the equal distribution of all produce." Undoubtedly, as Prof. Flint urges, there are many socialists who do not go to this length. But it is immaterial that those who profess a doctrine do not in practice carry it out. The premises upon which socialism rests are undeniably those stated by Mr. Bradlaugh, and without these premises no socialistic movement, whether moderate or extreme, can be justified.

In his criticism of other definitions, however, Prof. Flint appears to us to be frequently very just and very keen. Bishop Westcott, for example, declared that socialism seeks such an organization of life as shall secure for every one the most complete development of his powers. This is exactly the aim of those who believe in human freedom, and who are, properly or improperly, now commonly called individualists. As Prof. Flint says:

"In its two great forms of communism and collectivism, socialism is, of all economic and political systems, the one which most manifestly treats humanity as merely a mass or sum of individuals. The 'society' to which it sacrifices individuals is just the majority of individuals. What it aims at is not . . . the attainment of the highest good of the whole and of every one in relation to the whole, but the attainment of the equal good of all, however much sacrifice of the exceptional and higher good of any may be requir-

ed for that purpose. Socialism as an historical reality demands the equality of individuals in regard to means, opportunities, labor, and enjoyment. It directly appeals to the egoism and selfishness of the great majority of individuals."

In emphasizing equality as the very essence of socialism, these observations of Prof. Flint's go to the bottom of the subject.

It may be doubted if the theories of Karl Marx are worth any one's powder and shot. It is very improbable that those who profess these theories would be affected by appeals to their reason; but in any case we must confess that Prof. Flint's appeals are a little weak in their logic. He does not appear to be quite at home in political economy, and labors under the impression that Ricardo's demonstrations furnish the basis for Marx's inflated superstructures. Marx himself perhaps believed that his conclusions flowed logically from Ricardo's premises, but, as Prof. Marshall has very clearly shown, such a belief is without foundation. It must be admitted that Prof. Flint has better company than Karl Marx in misunderstanding Ricardo, but there is no such obscurity in Ricardo's language as to justify Prof. Flint's economic dogmas. Prof. Flint flatly declares that it does not take even double the quantity of labor to procure a given quantity of gold that it takes to procure the same quantity of silver. "It does not require more labor to extract or gather gold than to work in a coal or tin mine." In other words, he appears to maintain that the labor of a thousand men, applied to producing gold, would procure at least half as many ounces of gold as the same labor would procure of silver, if applied to the production of that metal. Fortunately the refutation of socialistic theories does not depend upon such exceptionable statements as these.

Nor is Prof. Flint more profound in his criticism of Mill. Mill declared "that the sole end for which mankind are warranted, individually or collectively, in interfering with the liberty of action of any of their number is self-protection; that the sole purpose for which power can be rightfully exercised over any member of a civilized community, against his will, is to prevent harm to others." Prof. Flint declares that the production of good is as legitimate an aim as the prevention of harm. It must be admitted that Mill's principle is a purely formal one, and it cannot be denied that the prevention of harm tends to the production of good. But the value of Mill's principle lies in its recognition of human liberty as an end in itself. It compels legislators, or would if they paid attention to it, to have proof that an action is reasonably certain to cause more harm to others than will be caused by its prohibition before they prohibit such action. In short, Mill's doctrine regards individual liberty as intrinsically good, and it regards restraint upon this liberty as an evil, only to be tolerated in so far as it tends to establish more liberty than it suppresses. As a guiding principle in legislation this is far safer than the "promotion of the general welfare" without reference to the liberties of the subject. All the positions that have been won by men in their struggle against despotic rule have been won against the claim of Government to promote the good of its subjects, and through the assertion of the right of individuals to determine for themselves in what their welfare consists. That is the sum and substance of all our bills of rights.

We should be conveying an altogether wrong impression of Prof. Flint's teaching did we not hasten to acknowledge that he practically admits this truth. He maintains that there are simple, definite, and well-ascertained moral laws which both states and individuals ought to recognize. There are certain fundamental human liberties essential to the true nature of man. There are economic laws which cannot be violated with impunity. Moreover, what the state can and cannot do, may do well or must do ill, is determinable by reflection enlightened by experience. Whenever the intervention of the state tends to diminish self-help and individual energy, it is unwise. And, finally, what Government may undertake is very largely determined by the state of public opinion. "It is not enough that a Government should be itself convinced of the justice and expediency of its intervention; it is also important that the justice and expediency thereof should be perceived by the nation at large."

These propositions appear to us to constitute a definite and substantially complete doctrine of the limits of governmental activity, and they are stated and expounded with admirable lucidity and fairness by Prof. Flint. His book is full of suggestive criticisms of socialistic doctrines and tendencies, put in such a way as to arrest the attention and convince the understanding of the ordinary reader. As to the iron law of competition which has called forth so much denunciation, he recognizes at once the principle that humanity requires the State to relieve the destitute and helpless whenever private charity fails; but with this qualification he shows that industrial competition is nothing but industrial liberty—the affirmation of every man's right to labor, and to live by his labor. "The real opposite of competition or liberty is compulsion or slavery, the authoritative assignment to each man of the work which he has to do." Concerning the attitude of socialism towards the institution of the family, he shows that it is impossible to controvert Morris and Bax when they declare that under socialism the development of the family is to take place "on the basis, not of a predetermined lifelong business arrangement, to be formally and nominally held to, irrespective of circumstances, but on mutual inclination and affection—an association terminable at the will of either party." And concerning democracy, he asks the pertinent question whether it raises to leadership the ablest, wisest, and best, or the incompetent and unworthy.

The chapters upon "Socialism and Morality" and "Socialism and Religion" are full of good sense and wise counsel. Socialism is strong in its recognition of the great principle of human brotherhood, but hitherto its application of this principle suggests a paraphrase of the characterization of the Irish—"Fighting like divils for conciliation, and hating each other for the love of man." "As yet it has led chiefly to hatred and strife, violence and bloodshed, waste and misery." "The leaders of Socialism have largely acquired their power by appealing not to the reasons and consciences, but to the envy, the cupidity, and the class prejudices of those whom they have sought to gain to their views."

We could quote indefinitely from the store of wisdom which Prof. Flint has accumulated for us, but it is much to be wished that every one who desires to learn what socialism means should read this book for himself. It would be a real service to the public to revise it, omitting the notes, which are of interest only to scholars, and the tiresome and technical discussion of Marx, and to offer it in a cheap edition.

RECENT FICTION.

Men Born Equal. By Harry Perry Robinson. Harper & Brothers.

The Tale of Chloe, and Other Stories. By George Meredith. Ward, Lock & Bowden.

The Mermaid: A Love Tale. By L. Dougall. D. Appleton & Co.

Entrückt in die Zukunft: Socialpolitischer Roman von Theodor Hertzka. Berlin; F. Dümmler; New York: Westermann.

THE drift of argument in 'Men Born Equal' is not towards proof of the truth and triumph of the idea of natural equality, but of its fallacy and at least temporary failure in the United States. This is a very serious work, and respectable in motive, sentiment, and composition. It would be more entertaining if neither of those qualities was so conspicuous. It is the story of an honest, educated, and intelligent young man who is regarded as one of the leaders of a political party formed by fusion of Populists and Democrats in a Western State. From the beginning he is seen to be uncommonly ingenuous, which is prophetic of a short term in politics and significant of the author's intention to scatter the Populist hosts as the leaves of the forest when autumn hath blown. The young enthusiast, Mr. Marsh, is an orator. The oratorical habit is so confirmed that he cannot resist it at dinners, luncheons, or even afternoon teas. Vainly do elderly important Republicans enter into competition; their most ponderous and stately utterance is but fuel for his consuming flame. No quip or merry jest is allowed to disturb the solemnity of his careful periods, and he seems always to be talking the printed leaders of well-informed country journals whose readers would resent any attempt to please with a rattle or tickle with a straw. The silent and deadly political work is done by an Irish boss, an astute Democratic candidate, and a "delegate" who eggs the Labor Unions on to strikes and riot with an eye sternly concentrated on his own interests. These well-known figures are drawn from life with accurate knowledge of the game and their way of playing it. They, of course, lie and scheme and steal right under young Mr. Marsh's nose, and it takes a series of tragic accidents to open his eyes and show him what they are about. Some of these accidents are quite in the line of expectation, but two at least—a murder and a suicide—are gratuitous, and suggest that the author is offering tardy compensation for a suspected dulness in the lengthy political disquisitions.

The blend of romance and purpose is rather better than in most novels of the kind. The smooth course of Miss Holt's love for Mr. Marsh is naturally broken when she believes that he is engaged in demolishing her father's fortune and character; as naturally resumed when she knows that he isn't and never has been. All the minor characters are carefully drawn and useful in the movement except one Mr. Blakely, a bird of ill omen who hovers about restlessly, leaving a blight wherever he happens to linger. Novels that discuss public questions elaborately are inevitably dull unless the ideas are unusual or the manner light and brilliant. In spite of the common sense and grasp of political complications displayed in 'Men Born Equal,' we fear that most people will find it very hard to read.

Mr. Meredith's volume of tales reprinted from old magazines includes one old-time tragic story and two modern comedies. Though sufficiently marred by the author's idiosyncrasies and affectations, they are still good,

and move both to tears and to laughter. It is worthy of note that there is hardly a sentence in the book the meaning of which may not be grasped on sight; which goes to show that the author is not absolutely dependent on tangled phrases for a fair expression of his genius. The title story tells what a milkmaid duchess did at the Wells under the distinguished patronage of Beau Beamish. Without any set description, Mr. Meredith portrays vividly the manners of the period and place, and, by a masterly exercise of the art of insinuation, places us thoroughly *en rapport* with Chloe, gives us the measure of her keen intelligence, and shows us her capacity for love and for despair.

The situation in the second story is farcical, and in farce Mr. Meredith is not exactly agile. To Americans, the retired draper, Mr. Tinman, may appear an impossible character, but the satire lavished upon him makes clear the reason why the author is not beloved by the Philistines of his native land. The quarrels between the devotedly British Tinman and the home returned Australian are very funny, and Mrs. Crickledon is one of those delightful dames who, like the rustics of George Eliot and Thomas Hardy, make one long to spend a lifetime in their company. The third story is pure comedy, brilliantly sustained, with the old-fashioned happy ending. The limit prescribed for a short story seems to us to make a capital restraint for Mr. Meredith. Though some may miss his profound philosophy, many get a chance to perceive and appreciate his dramatic power and his bold, striking impressionism.

Miss Dougall, who has hitherto been known as a writer of purpose novels, now ventures a romantic love-story. The central situation of 'The Mermaid' is very well imagined, but, being highly fantastic, demands for its support more fancy and a lighter touch than Miss Dougall has easily at her command. By converting the merry mermaid into a devoutly religious woman, heroically nursing plague-stricken inhabitants of the Magdalen Islands, she destroys the mood which she has been at pains to excite, and cheats us into assisting at a melancholy spectacle. From a mixture of motives, one gay, one grave, any sort of good effect is missed, and the transparency of devices for prolonging the mystery shows a marked decline in the ingenuity which contrived the plot of 'Beggars All.'

About five years ago Theodor Hertzka published a Utopian romance entitled 'Freiland,' in which he depicted an ideal community that he subsequently attempted to realize in a colony founded by him in Africa. Whether the colony still exists is not known to us; but, however that may be, Hertzka is again in the field as a contributor to the class of literature that received so great an impetus from the success achieved by Edward Bellamy. His new book is a great deal shorter than his former one, and he calls it 'Entrückt in die Zukunft'—a title which might easily tempt shallow-witted scoffers to the emendation "Verrückt in der Gegenwart." The story employs machinery similar to that used in 'Looking Backward.' The hero, a young French physician, falls asleep in his room in Paris, and, on awakening, finds himself in a new world existing two hundred years later. Everything is different from what it used to be. Poverty has been abolished, as has been also private ownership of land and of the instruments of production. The whole earth is the home and property of the human race united in a single family. Repulsive, unwholesome, and degrading work is done by the forces of nature. There are degrees of wealth, but the differences between the poorest and the richest are not great. Every human being is assured not only the necessaries of life, but all its comforts and many of its luxuries. Children are not dependent on their parents nor wives on their husbands. Men have learned to fly, and for long journeys employ air-ships which are propelled by making use of the magnetism of the earth, and travel at the rate of 300 miles an hour. Expeditions have been sent to the Moon, but have unfortunately not yet returned, although it has been ascertained that the travellers composing them are alive and well, in spite of their inability to leave their lunar abode. The story ends abruptly, without offering a clue to the mysteries it suggests or to the purposes which the author had in mind when he wrote it.

Memorials of St. James's Palace. By Edgar Sheppard, Hon. Chaplain to the Queen. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

THE visitor to London who sees for the first time the low, unattractive mass of red brick buildings at the foot of St. James's Street, will perhaps find it difficult to believe that these insignificant buildings constitute a royal palace of very considerable antiquarian interest. Historians are accustomed to speak of the Court of St. James's or the Cabinet of St. James's, but our minds do not always connect these phrases with the shabby red brick buildings aforesaid. Mr. Sheppard's chronicles of the palace tell how unceremoniously a visitor once entered the cabinet in the reign of George II. It appears that he lost his footing and fell down a flight of stairs, and, bursting open a door at the foot of the stairs, was precipitated into a room, and lay stunned on the floor. When he came to his senses he found a severe little old gentleman with a red face washing his head and applying sticking-plaster to his wounds. This was the King, and the room he had so abruptly entered was the King's closet—the veritable "cabinet of St. James's."

It was in 1532 that Henry VIII. purchased the site of an old leper hospital which had existed from time immemorial, and, having pulled down the old buildings, erected a "magnificent and goodly house," the greater part of which is still in evidence, though the east wing was destroyed by fire in 1809. The Stuarts and the earlier Hanoverian monarchs lived a good deal at St. James's, but during the last century it has been mainly used for drawing-rooms and other state ceremonies. It was here that Queen Anne in 1710 received "four Indian Sachems or commanders of the nations in the North parts of America"; and on June 1, 1785—a memorable date—the first envoy from the United States of America made his appearance in the reception-room. In this very reception-room, and the other rooms connected with it, were formerly hung the priceless Raphaels, Correggios, Titians, etc., collected by Charles I., which were afterwards sold at ridiculously low prices by order of the Council of State during the Commonwealth, and found their way to the Louvre and other Continental galleries.

The unhappy prince known in history as the Old Pretender was born at St. James's on June 10, 1688, and the curious circumstances attending his birth led many people, including Bishop Burnet, to believe that the veritable prince died, and that another infant, introduced in a warming-pan, was substituted. George IV. was also born at St. James's in 1762, and among the earliest presents sent to the young prince were a curious Indian bow and arrow from his father's faithful subjects in New York. Among the deaths we find that of Queen Mary in 1558, and that of Prince Henry, eldest son of James I., in 1612. He seems to have been a very promising boy, of scholarly tastes, and, moreover, "passionately devoted to tennis, golf, and other athletic exercises." If the prescription sent to him by Sir Walter Raleigh, who was at the time a prisoner in the Tower, had produced the desired effect, the Puritan immigration to New England might never have taken place, and many other things might have been different in consequence. In 1737 Caroline, wife of George II., died at St. James's, after an agonizing illness of twelve days, in the midst of which, as the story goes, on her advising the King to marry again, he sobbed out: "Non, non; j'aurai des maîtresses."

The first royal marriage at St. James's was that of Mary, eldest daughter of Charles I., to Count William of Nassau in 1641, the issue of this marriage being William III. In 1734 the eldest daughter of George II. married another prince of Nassau, who was remarkable for his hideous appearance; but as a compensation the wedding music for this occasion was composed and conducted by Handel. In 1795 George IV., then Prince of Wales, married the unfortunate Princess Caroline; and it is related that she disgusted the sensitive George, and probably laid the foundation of future unhappiness, by an injudicious indulgence in onions shortly before her first meeting with "the first gentleman of Europe." The chapel royal in the palace has seen other sights besides royal marriages and funerals. When the eloquent Dr. South was preaching there one Sunday to the court of Charles II., he noticed that many of his hearers were asleep. He suddenly changed his tone and called Lord Lauderdale, who immediately awoke. Then the Doctor said: "I am sorry to interrupt your repose, but I must beg you not to snore so loud lest you awaken his Majesty." Later on, the chapel became too popular as a fashionable meeting-place, so that in 1700 Bishop Burnet had the pews raised higher to stop "ogling and sighing." Queen Anne did not like the chapel, and preferred to have prayers read in the outer room while she dressed. On one occasion she ordered the door shut, whereupon the chaplain immediately stopped; and when the Queen sent to ask the reason, he very properly replied that "he would not whistle the word of God through the keyhole."

From time to time distinguished foreigners have been entertained at St. James's. In 1638 Marie de Médicis established a miniature court there, to the great annoyance of the whole nation, until finally Parliament voted her £10,000 on condition that she quitted the country at once, which she did in 1641. In 1698 came Peter the Great, but the only interesting thing recorded of him is that his favorite beverage was "hot pepper and brandy." After the peace of 1814 the Emperor of Russia, the King of Prussia, and Marshal Blücher spent some time at the palace, the Marshal becoming a prime favorite with the London public, who waited in crowds for the chance of seeing the white-haired veteran smoking his pipe at the window.

Theatrical performances were frequently given at the palace in the time of the Stuarts, presumably in the great ball-room, as there is no permanent stage in the building. In 1633 "The Taming of the Shrew" was given by the King's company, and in 1637 "Julius Cæsar," while Evelyn refers to a number of perform-

ances after the Restoration. In 1837, shortly before the accession of Queen Victoria, a ball was given where the minuet was formally danced for the last time at the English court. At different times great deputations of citizens have appeared at the palace to present petitions of one kind or another. In 1765, for instance, the London periwig-makers appeared in force, carrying a complaint of the fashion, recently adopted by gentlemen, of wearing their own hair. They implored his Majesty to restore the old fashion by wearing a wig. Whereupon some humorist of the period got up a sham petition from the carpenters, requesting the King to wear a wooden leg and cause all his courtiers to do the same. Up to the end of the seventeenth century great numbers of people used to come every year to be touched by the reigning monarch for the King's-evil, but the sound common sense of William III. put an end to the practice.

Mr. Sheppard has gathered together a great mass of information about the palace, its internal economy, and the people who have lived in it, and in so doing has enjoyed special facilities for consulting old documents and official records. He has produced an interesting and readable book, rendered particularly attractive by a variety of excellent illustrations.

The Great Dominion: Studies of Canada. By George R. Parkin, M.A., Hon. LL.D. University of New Brunswick. With maps. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

Mr. Parkin's work is, we are told, a compilation from letters contributed by the author to the London *Times*. The volume is interesting and in some measure instructive reading, for Mr. Parkin knows his country well, and has had the fullest access to official sources of information. The latter fact, however, is a seriously qualifying one, for intelligent and even able as the author is, he has, in preparing his work, placed himself in the position of an advocate holding a brief not only for the Dominion Tory Government, but for its anti-continental and Jingo ally, the Canadian Pacific Railway. The partisan attitude of Mr. Parkin towards the latter may be judged from the fact that while he devotes an entire chapter to the road, he contents himself with but two single-line and belittling references to the Grand Trunk Railway, the great pioneer enterprise of the country. The author's point of view in his work may be further inferred when we recall the fact that Mr. Parkin is a notable colonial apostle of Imperial Federation, that dream of British unification and aggrandizement so dear to poetic minds, and note that his present work has apparently been called into existence to refute the strictures of Mr. Goldwin Smith on the political and economical condition of the Dominion, expressed in that brilliant writer's recent work, 'Canada and the Canadian Question.' It is but fair to Mr. Parkin to say that while he assumes the rôle of reviser of Prof. Smith's judgments, he does so with frank and unembarrassed candor, insomuch, indeed, that the reader who is at all conversant with the subjects discussed is at times in doubt as to the author's real opinions, and asks himself whether Mr. Parkin is what he assumes to be, or, on the contrary, is rather inclined to agree with Mr. Smith in not a few of that writer's sane and ofttimes trenchant criticisms. The difficulty we have referred to will be appreciated if we cite Mr. Parkin's views on some of the chief topics discussed, on which Mr. Goldwin Smith has preceded him in giving readers of Canadian affairs a careful and frequently striking judgment.

"'Rich by nature, poor by policy' might be written on Canada's door," is a dictum of Mr. Goldwin Smith's, expressed, as is usual with that writer, with the telling force of an epigram. The phrase is his summing up of the Canadian policy of protection, applied in a thinly populated and over-governed country, which needs above all things for its economical well-being free access to the great markets of its own continent, together with an honest and enlightened government, and the inducements to make the Dominion a rich rather than a poor country to live in. The criticism covers a number of points which Mr. Parkin attempts to meet either by general denial or by a gloss which is contradicted in detail by his own admissions. Let us take one or two brief examples. Of the national policy of protection and the benefits of the United States market to the Canadian producer, Mr. Parkin has this to say: First, as to the fisheries of British Columbia: "Halibut and black cod are found in the greatest abundance off the Island of Vancouver, but the development of a large fishery is hindered by the difficulty of access to adequate markets" (p. 166). Second, in regard to the tariff and the discontent which it creates among the population in the border constituencies: "It may be admitted that along the borders, where the frontier, with its custom-houses carrying out the regulations of a high protective tariff, offered hindrances to local trade, a certain amount of annexation talk was in past years heard" (p. 186). Thirdly, of the grinding effects of a high tariff and the imperious need of improved economic conditions, Mr. Parkin states: "There seems to be a consensus of opinion throughout the Northwest, in the agricultural communities of the East, and among men of independent thought everywhere, that the first object of Canadian statesmanship should now be to make the Dominion a cheap country to live in" (p. 202). And fourthly, respecting the near market: "In what I have said there has been no intention to question the great value to Canada of the freest trade relations attainable with the United States" (p. 197).

That Canada suffers from being over-governed, Mr. Parkin does not dispute. In the Maritime Provinces, especially, with three Governments for a small area, he thinks over-government fatuous. "A regular system of government by ministries based on party lines tends," he observes, "to become absurd when applied to such small constituencies, and ends by personal considerations and mere wire-pulling taking the place of anything that can be dignified by the name of policy" (p. 237). This expression of opinion seems to indicate that Mr. Parkin, like Mr. Goldwin Smith, is not enamored of party government, and this is more clearly emphasized in speaking also of the Provinces by the sea, where, as Mr. Parkin affirms, "much talent, effort, and time are spent in trying to squeeze public and private prosperity out of politics," and where "the hope is constantly indulged of help from some god's hand thrust out from the political machine," instead of energetically meeting commercial depression and the atrophy which has overtaken the country as the result of its isolation and handicapping trade policy. On the vexed subject of the exodus to the United States, Mr. Parkin is also at one with Mr. Goldwin Smith, though he takes the matter less seriously and treats it as the outcome of mere natural conditions. He also agrees with Mr. Smith in respect of the non-paying character of the Intercolonial Railroad, but explains this on the ground "that rates over the road have been designedly kept low so as to encourage interprovincial trade," which, however, it does little to foster.

The condition of things in the French Province opens Mr. Parkin's eyes to the same evils which Mr. Goldwin Smith notes. The chief of these are the fossilizing character of race isolation, the retarding effects of primitive modes of agriculture, the decadence of Quebec now that the English have left it, the reckless and corrupt system of provincial administration, and the migration of masses of the people to the factories of New England. The sinister influence of French-Canadian parties in Dominion affairs, and the separatist aspirations of the French race in an English colony, Mr. Parkin appears to treat lightly, though he counsels moderation and liberality in both elements of the population, and adds complacently that the English Provinces can afford to be calm under all conditions. "Their real political danger," he affirms, "lies not in Quebec and the Frenchman, but in the recklessness of party conflict, which has more than once tempted their politicians to sacrifice principle in order to win the French vote. The French vote, on the other hand," he adds, "has seemed at times to be won rather by the particular concession it had in view than by a reasoned and honest policy." Here, as in many other instances, Mr. Parkin, so far from disagreeing with Mr. Goldwin Smith, apparently agrees with him, and takes up his parable against the things which Mr. Smith censures and has been deemed disloyal for censuring.

Despite what we have said, and the fact that Mr. Parkin travels over much of the ground which Mr. Goldwin Smith has already so well covered, there is much that is readable and instructive in his volume. Whatever its inconsistencies, the author, from his point of view, is no doubt justified in preparing and setting his work before the constituency of readers who will presumably welcome it. Nor will the candor with which it is written lessen its acceptance by those who are not likely to relish its ultra-British tone and the Imperialist purpose which has admittedly inspired it. That candor, as we have said, will puzzle not a few readers who, with us, discern the ostensible purpose which has called the book into existence, however well or ill it may happen to serve the end in view.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Grant. At Market Value. F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Annual American Catalogue. 1894. *Publishers' Weekly.*
Antæus, and Other Short Stories from *Outing.* *Outing* Publishing Co.
Atherton, Gertrude F. Los Cerritos. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Austin, Alfred. Madonna's Child. Macmillan. $1.
Baldwin, James. Choice English Lyrics. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Bardeen, C. W. A Brief Descriptive Geography of the Empire State. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 75 cents.
Bell, Lilian. A Little Sister to the Wilderness. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Ben Jonson. Vol. III. [Mermaid Series.] London: Unwin; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Björnson, B. Arne. Macmillan. $1.25.
Blunden, G. H. Local Taxation and Finance. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Boothby, Guy. A Lost Endeavor. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Borgeaud, Charles. Adoption and Amendment of Constitutions in Europe and America. Macmillan. $2.
Bosanquet, Bernard. Aspects of the Social Problem. Macmillan. $1.
Bradford, Gamaliel, jr. Macaulay's Life of Samuel Johnson. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 25 cents.
Buchanan, Robert. Rachel Dene. F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Carman, Bliss. A Seamark: A Threnody for Robert Louis Stevenson. Boston: Copeland & Day. 25 cents.
Cash vs. Coin. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 25 cents.
Cavaignac, Godefroy. Pour l'Impôt Progressif. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Clark, W. L. Hand-book of Criminal Procedure. St. Paul: West Publishing Co. $3.75.
Coleridge, E. H. Letters of Samuel T. Coleridge. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin &Co. $6.
Cooke, Matilda V. The Zig-zag Paths of Life. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. $1.

Coleman, Rev. Leighton. The Church in America. James Pott & Co. $2.50.
Cotes, Mrs. Everard. The Story of Sonny Sahib. Appletons.
Chatfield-Taylor. Two Women and a Fool. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.50.
Comstock, Prof. J. H., and Mrs. Anna B. A Manual for the Study of Insects. Ithaca, N. Y.: Comstock Publishing Co. $3.75.
Conrad, Joseph. Almayer's Folly: A Story of an Eastern River. Macmillan. $1.25.
Crane, Stephen. The Black Riders, and Other Lines. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.
Custer, Mrs. Elizabeth B. Tenting on the Plains. Harpers. $1.50.
Davis, M. E. M. Under the Man-Fig. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Defoe, Daniel. The Life and Adventures of Mr. Duncan Campbell. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.00.
Dickens, Charles. Bleak House. Macmillan. $1.
Doyle, A. C. The Mystery of Cloomber. R. F Fenno & Co. 50 cents.
Duval, Georges. The Romance of the Sword: A Napoleonic Novel. Merriam Co. $1.50.
Early Venetian Printing. Illustrated. London: J. C. Nimmo; New York: Scribners. $7.50.
Echegaray, José. Mariana. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Endlich, G. A. The Law of Building Associations. 2d ed. Jersey City: F. D. Linn & Co.
Flagler, L. V. The New Era of Song. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. 35 cents
Francatelli, C. E. Modern Cook: English, French, Italian, German Cookery. Philadelphia: David McKay. $2.
Fretwell, John. Newfoundland and the Jingoes. Boston: G. H. Ellis.
Garnier, R. M. Annals of the British Peasantry. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
George, A. J. Burke's Speech on Conciliation with America. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
George, A. J. Webster's Bunker Hill Oration. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Glascock, W. H. Stories of Columbia. Appletons.
Gorham, F. P., and Tower, R. W. A Laboratory Guide for the Dissection of the Cat. Scribners. $1.
Halévy, Ludovic. The Abbé Constantin. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Hartt, Irene W. How to Make Money although a Woman. J. S. Ogilvie. 25 cents.
Hill, Beveridge. "The Story of a Cañon." Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Leavitt, J. B. The Law of Negligence in New York. Diossy Law Book Co.
Mason, O. T. The Origins of Invention: A Study of Industry among Primitive Peoples. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Moses, Prof. A. J., and Parsons, Prof. C. L. Elements of Mineralogy, Crystallography and Blowpipe Analysis. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Muhleman, M. L. Monetary Systems of the World. C. H. Nicoll. $2.
North American Birds. With colored plates. Parts IX., X., and XI. Milwaukee, Wis.: George Brunder.
Ohnet, Georges. Le Chant du Cygne. Maynard, Merrill & Co
Petrie, Prof. W. M. F. A History of Egypt from the Earliest Times to the XVIth Dynasty. Vol. I. Scribners. $2.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 16, 1895.

The Week.

THE President has performed well the most trying task which confronted him, in the reorganization of the United States Civil-Service Commission. His choice of the one Republican who is to serve in that body was liable to the criticism of all Republicans whose highest conception of partisan duty is partisan querulousness; and any Republican who has been identified with the upbuilding of what may be styled the machinery of civil-service reform is regarded by them with suspicion, as probably a Democrat or Mugwump disguised for some deep and deadly purpose of malevolence. Moreover, three-fourths of the work of the Commission for a few years to come must be done with the Post-office Department, the comparatively recent classification of the free-delivery post-offices having given rise to numberless controversies which are not the less vexatious because obviously short-lived, so that whoever was appointed commissioner was bound to be subject to the keenest hostile scrutiny. Finally, there are reasons which make geographical considerations of more account now than they will be, it is hoped, when public sentiment in favor of civil-service reform has become more evenly distributed over the country. In Major Harlow all the requirements seem to be admirably met. His regular standing as a Republican needs no better certificate than the postmaster's commission voluntarily given him by President Harrison. By the most violent stretch of the spoilsmen's imagination he can hardly be classed as a doctrinaire in civil-service matters after thirty years of service in all grades of public employ. As long as the administration of the Post-office Department remains in Democratic hands, no better guarantee of its honesty could be given than the choice of a Republican expert to watch it and report on its shortcomings. The demand that the civil-service reform movement make itself more distinctly felt in the West is answered by the selection of a commissioner from the heart of the great Mississippi valley. In short, it is hard to discover where the most captious critics will look for material out of which to concoct a complaint against this appointment. A Democrat, Col. William G. Rice of Albany, is named for another of the vacancies. Col. Rice has held office with credit under the State and city governments, and has shown executive ability in business life. Mr. Procter, the holding-over commissioner, has proved himself an efficient administrator, and the board as now constituted will command equally the respect of all good citizens and the hatred of the spoilsmen.

The more one wants to fight foreign nations and "cheek" the universe in arms, the more one ought to desire good discipline in the army and navy. No person ought, therefore, to be so angry with Admiral Meade and so anxious to have him tried and punished as the Jingoes. There is no surer preparation for defeat and humiliation than the appearance of tonguey politicians among the soldiers and sailors. Naval and military "jaw" is the sure forerunner of disaster. A soldier who cannot keep from publicly criticising his own Government is rarely formidable to the enemy. The history of nearly every country in the world has illustrations of this rule. A debating, deliberating army is the curse of any nation, as poor Spain has learned to her cost. The Jingoes, therefore, should now be the foremost in demanding a court-martial on Admiral Meade. He lets the world know that he differed about public affairs with "the Administration," that is, his superior officers; that he was, in common with "the people at large," "disgusted" with it; and that his asking to be relieved, and hauling down his flag, meant that he was unwilling to "continue his connection with it." This shows that the connection was not a military connection, which means silence and subordination, but a political connection, which means free gas, blatherskite, soreheadism, disgruntlement, and sourness. He added that he was "an American and Union man, two things that this Administration cannot stand"—meaning thereby, if he meant anything, that his official superiors were hostile to the Government of the United States and extremely disliked subordinates who were faithful to it. It was this contempt for his official superiors which brought McClellan to ruin, and it was this way of talking about even the *de facto* Government of his country which caused Marshal Bazaine to be condemned to death, and led him to surrender a first-class fortress almost without resistance. The truth is, that this variety of soldier is as a rule not a fighting man. No soldier or sailor when in active service can properly play the part both of a military commander and of a politician. He cannot successfully keep an eye both on the enemy and on home politics. He cannot stand ready both to blow the foe out of the water, or turn his flank on shore, and at the same time stand ready to "quit his connection" with his own Government when he disapproves of its policy. If our Government allowed such talk from its military men to pass unpunished, and at the same time built a large navy, it would pave the way for its own ruin. It is hard to keep any class out of politics in America, but the army and navy must be kept out of it or be abolished. Soldiers must not be allowed to treat their commanders-in-chief as a public enemy.

The Hawaiian minister used to be "pulverizing" Gresham every day or two a few months ago, but even he must admit now that the other fellow is under the millstone. The letter of the Secretary of State demanding his recall, made public on Thursday, contains the record of Mr. Thurston's own abject confession of "official impropriety," and leaves even the head-line editors without a spark of fight in them. What the Hawaiian minister was caught doing was acting as general press agent for the defamers of the Administration and all concerned with it. When confronted with the evidence of his guilt, it did not take his powerful mind long to conclude that he had better take the next steamer home. So far as he is concerned, this close of his diplomatic career is a fitting sequel to its beginning, when he put his name to a document intended to deceive President Harrison and the American people, and which he knew to contain falsehoods. The occasion is a good one to remind the flamboyant press that the net result of their patriotic attacks on their own Secretary of State is, up to date, the wreck of two foreign ministers. No wonder that Mr. Thurston and poor Señor Muruaga thought that Gresham was a spiritless and imbecile creature whom anybody could insult with impunity. Too late they found him as prompt as Washington in the Genest case, ready to take in silence all manner of abuse from the press, but quick to resent attacks on the dignity of the Government by a meddling foreigner.

It is not yet clear what will be the effect of Judge Goff's decision in the United States Circuit Court declaring unconstitutional the registration laws of South Carolina and forbidding the State to take any further action under those laws. The Governor has announced his intention to appeal to the Supreme Court, while still preparing for the convention. The Columbia *State*, organ of the conservative Democrats, points out that the injunction does not apply to the managers of the election, and predicts that the Tillman-Evans element will instruct these managers to go ahead and refuse to receive the ballots of unregistered voters. This would make the election illegal, and, as the Tillmanites can hardly expect to control a convention legally elected, the *State* thinks that they would be glad to escape from the dilemma in this way. Tillman, however, predicts that the convention will be held, and that "it will be composed of

white men principally, who will take care of South Carolina and see that white supremacy is maintained within its borders." Gov. Evans has issued a fire-eating proclamation of defiance, "Constitution or no Constitution, law or no law, court or no court." The leaders of the negroes, however, talk very sensibly. An address issued by the officers of the Colored Ministerial Union says that they will "vote for and with our white friends for good government, seeking only for that minority representation which any reasonable white man will accord us," and that they "recognize the fact that intelligence and money must rule."

For four months the time and attention of the legislators of Delaware have been largely occupied in the intrigues over the vacant United States Senatorship on which a rich gas speculator named Addicks had set his heart. Public business has been neglected, reforms that were urgently needed have been pushed into the background, the air has been full of charges of attempted bribery, the tone of public sentiment has been lowered, the respect of the people for their lawmakers has been destroyed, the reputation of the State has been smirched. The session ended on Thursday in a snarl that leaves the senatorship in doubt, and renders it probable that the seat will remain vacant for two years. Delaware has no such official as Lieutenant-Governor. The Constitution provides that, "upon any vacancy happening in the office of Governor, the Speaker of the Senate shall exercise the office until a Governor elected by the people shall be duly qualified." It is silent as to the effect of the assumption of the acting governorship upon the office of Senator which he had been filling. The Republican Governor elected last fall died a few weeks ago. The President of the Senate, a Democrat, succeeded as acting Governor. A temporary President of the Senate was chosen in his place, and he occupied the Governor's room. On Thursday afternoon, however, he resumed his position as President of the Senate and claimed the right to vote for Senator. Without him there were twenty-nine votes; fifteen constituted a majority, and Dupont had fifteen (four Republicans remaining faithful to Addicks to the end). With him there were thirty votes; sixteen were required for a majority, and nobody could get sixteen. The session closed with the declaration by the acting Governor and Speaker of the Senate that no choice had been made, and a claim from the floor by the Republican Speaker of the House that the acting Governor had no right to vote, that Dupont had a majority of the legal votes, and that he was elected. The controversy will, of course, be carried to Washington. The acting Governor may perhaps appoint a Democrat as Senator, though the decisive majority cast in the Senate two years ago against the proposition that such a vacancy is one which can be filled by executive appointment leaves small chance of his admission. Dupont will doubtless present his irregular credentials, but it does not seem probable that he will be admitted.

The meeting of the State Bankers' Association at Jackson, Miss., on Thursday, and the speech made by Congressman Catchings endorsing President Cleveland's financial policy and Gov. Stone's position on the silver question, will have an excellent effect in carrying forward the plans of the Memphis sound-currency convention to be held on the 23d of this month. It is now announced that Secretary Carlisle will make five speeches in the South, including the one which he will make at Memphis. Already we hear that the silver-men are intending to assail Mr. Carlisle with questions founded upon his early speeches in Congress on this subject. Undoubtedly he will give satisfactory answers, and none could be more satisfactory than the one which Chief-Justice Chase gave when he dissented from the opinion of the majority of the Supreme Court in the Legal-Tender Cases. He said that reflection had convinced him that he was wrong when, as Secretary of the Treasury, he gave his approval to the legal-tender act. Nobody need be ashamed to say that. Another and greater precedent may be found in the example of St. Paul. Obstinacy in following a wrong policy, after one has begun to doubt its soundness or wisdom, is the mark of feeble minds. If everybody who was captivated with the silver heresy back in the seventies had been determined never to change his opinions, we should have had free coinage at 16 to 1 long ago.

Another glib bimetallic assertion breaks in pieces on the hard facts. We refer to the assertion that the exports of gold-standard countries to silver-standard countries must necessarily decrease in volume and finally disappear. You see, the impossibility of maintaining a "par of exchange" in this case is an almost insuperable bar to international commerce under such conditions; and President Andrews has explained to us what a golden opportunity (of course he must have meant silver opportunity) the United States has to wrest from England and Germany their foreign trade with silver-standard nations by ourselves going to the silver standard. Now comes Herr Soetbeer the younger, in the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, and proves that England's and Germany's exports to silver countries have not fallen off as silver has declined in value, but have increased, in proportion to the total exports, since 1889. In that year the per cent. to silver countries of the total English exports was 2.7; in 1893 it was 3.6. The corresponding figures for Germany are 15.7 and 16.1. As Horace Greeley used to say, "Is there to be no end of lying?"

Lord Farrer's question to the English bimetallists, asking what ratio they propose to adopt for international free coinage, has brought out some differences of opinion among them, but has not dampened their ardor. Some of them are in favor of 15½ to 1, others go for 16, still others for 20. One man has hit upon the magic ratio of 23½. Another naïvely asks Lord Farrar whether he would accept 25. But most of them are in the happy frame of our own Tim Campbell, who would not allow a little thing like the Constitution of the United States to stand between friends. A little thing like a ratio ought not to stand in the way of a great reform in the currency systems of the world. The bimetallists remind us of Ben Wade when, as the head of the committee on the conduct of the war, he insisted to President Lincoln that Gen. McClellan should be removed. "Whom shall we put in his place?" asked Mr. Lincoln. "Anybody," said Wade. "Oh, *anybody* will do for you," replied Lincoln, "but I must have *somebody*." So it is with the bimetallists. A broad general ratio will answer for them, but the business world requires a particular ratio. In this emergency Prof. Foxwell has suggested a "climbing ratio," which begins with the market ratio, say 32 to 1, and then climbs (up or down) to the historical ratio of 15½. We fancy that the pupils of 'Coin's Financial School' will have something to say about this when the time comes.

The gradual fall of sterling exchange is the full vindication and complete triumph of the bond-syndicate transaction of last February. That operation had for its main object the quieting of the public mind until business in this country could get on a better basis. The public mind that needed quieting was not merely the American but the foreign as well. It was supremely necessary that the possessors of floating capital on both sides of the ocean should be convinced that the gold standard would be maintained here. The first step to this end was to stop gold shipments and at the same time to turn the gold movement in this direction. A mere replenishment of the gold in the Treasury, if the outflow to Europe continued, would have availed nothing. The second fifty-million loan lasted less than three months. A third one, of the same kind, would not have lasted one month. What killed the panic was the drop of sterling exchange below the gold-shipping point. The Government had no apparatus for accomplishing this end. The syndicate had. It was impossible to pay too high a price for this service, since it was the foundation and *sine qua non* of the business revival which has since taken place, and of which we have gratifying evidence from day to day.

Judge Lawrence is on the war-path again. He writes to the editor of the *Reporter:*

"Unless the New England States stand up strong for adequate wool protection, the country will be driven to favor free woollen goods. You will not believe it. The slaveholders would not believe that slavery extension would endanger them, so they drove on and slavery fell. You are following a similar road. I regret it."

This is the old "howling-waste" argument. Unless the Ohio wool-growers got their bounty, Olneyville should be a resort for jackals, and the bittern should perch on the ruins of Dobson's factories. But the Judge should not be thus envious at the prosperity of the wicked. It doubtless galls him, as it does the *Tribune*, to see the woollen-manufacturers thrive, so humorously careless of protectionist oracles of woe, but he and his fellow-woolites can similarly thrive if they adopt similar means. Enterprise and intelligence applied to wool-growing will do for it what they have done for woollen-manufacturing. Moreover, when American woollens are beginning to be sold right in Bradford, the Judge's threat of free woollens does not carry with it anything like its old terrors.

Commissioner Roosevelt's acts and words since entering upon his duties give gratifying assurance that the high expectations formed of his usefulness in the Police Department will be realized. He says that his personal regret that the examinations for admission to the force have been taken away from the Civil-Service Commission and given to the Police Board is shared by his fellow-Commissioners, and adds: "But, having this duty imposed upon us, we propose to conduct the examinations on civil-service lines: there will be open competitive examinations for all positions, and every man will come in on his merit, without regard to his politics." Mr. Roosevelt's assurance on this point is all that the public will need to convince it that the examinations will be what he says they will. Of course the evil results of the new system will be felt as soon as we get a commission which does not share the views of the present one.

"Lou" Payn's unblushing confession on the stand on Thursday that he was Platt's corruption agent at Albany, buying and selling legislation for corporations at the bidding of his master, merely makes matter of public record what was well known before. We commend also to the attention of the Union League Republicans who are so fond of doing things at the demand of their friends "up the State," Payn's statement that "for thirty-five years he had been interested in the election of Speakers, United States Senators, and that sort of thing," coupled with the remark that he "did not work for fun." The *Tribune*, owing doubtless to "pressure on its space," did not find room for these revelations. But it will not, for that reason, intermit its severe condemnation of corruption at Washington. Speaking of Washington, a great many people are saying that the record of the last Congress for imbecility and corruption and defiance of the popular will is pushed very hard by that of the present New York Legislature. If virtuous Republican editors had not exhausted themselves and their adjectives in denouncing Democratic incompetence, we might look for some remarks on Republican incompetence. But they are too busy getting ready to "pull all together for 1896."

Careful examination of the bi-partisan police law strengthens the conviction that, instead of being in any way an improvement upon the old law, it is in many ways a more objectionable statute. While it was pending, public attention was directed mainly towards its bi-partisan requirement and the provision removing the examinations of candidates for the force from the Civil-Service Commission. Now it is discovered that it contains a provision forbidding the appointment for chief of police of any one except the deputy chief or an inspector or a captain. This makes it impossible to go outside the force for a head, and, of course, adds greatly to the difficulty of reforming the force. Then, too, it was urged for the bi-partisan idea that commissioners of opposite political faiths were especially desired in order that transfers of duty for policemen at the polls on election day might be made by them; the claim being that Kerwin and Murray aided powerfully in the defeat of Tammany last year by ordering such transfers. Now it appears that the bi-partisan law takes this power to transfer from the board and bestows it on the Chief of Police. That is to say, the bi-partisan object of the bi-partisan law is defeated by the law itself. This shows what a wonderful legislator Lexow is, and it shows also what a wonderful lot of legislators the Republican members from "above the Harlem" are when they clamor for and secure the enactment of a law which does precisely the opposite of what they think it is doing.

We hear much of the dangers of socialism, French, German, and other, with its propositions for the confiscation of property, but a nearer danger is that public treasuries the world over will be wrecked by waste and extravagance. The French Minister of Finance goes on his knees to the Chamber to beg that expenses may be kept down, no more sinecures created, no more useless railways built on state account. Ex-Speaker and to-be Speaker Reed sounds a note of alarm in reference to the next Congress, hoping that Representatives from all parts of the country will go to Washington prepared to surrender meekly all their little appropriation bills, so as to keep down the nation's outlay. What the appropriations are wanted for, why they are so swollen from year to year, is clearly shown by the revelations made almost daily in New Jersey, at Albany, and in this city. Direct stealing has to be provided for on a large scale, and indirect stealing on a still larger. By the latter we mean, of course, the creation of useless offices, the payment of extravagant wages, and a general willingness to "work" the Treasury for all it will stand. The report of the Commissioners of Accounts, summarized in the *Evening Post* of Saturday, shows what fine pickings the care of the municipal buildings has afforded. Double the number of employees actually needed, wages far above the market rates, decrepit relatives and absentee friends in a political emergency foisted on the pay-roll—these are the well-known phenomena which the Commissioners set forth. Such methods, given full swing in State and nation, will soon bring government into so miserable an estate that the Socialists will hardly think it worth while to take the bankrupt concern over.

Mr. Balfour's Primrose Day speech was devoted mainly to eulogy of Mr. Chamberlain, and to showing how indissoluble is the alliance between the Liberal-Unionists and the Conservatives. He admitted, however, that the present arrangement could not go on for ever, and predicted complete absorption of the Unionists by the Conservatives. What the united party was to stand for was, of course, defence of the Constitution and the Church, but in addition it was going to be a mighty bulwark of individual liberty, and a strong fortress against socialism. This would go to the very foundations of belief, did we not, unhappily, have a contemporaneous Conservative platform to show us just what Conservative opposition to socialism means. In the Mid-Norfolk bye-election of April 24 the candidate who wrested the seat from the Liberals promised the electors that, "instead of trying to destroy constitutions or pull down churches," he would go in for "useful social reforms, such as providing better houses for the working classes, finding them what land they may require at a fair price, and making some provision for their old age." As Mr. Balfour guarantees this programme to be anti-socialistic, we must infer that the better houses are to grow like mushrooms, the land to be found in unexplored parts of England, and the old-age pensions to be let down from heaven. The whole thing must seem to Chamberlain like one of Mr. Balfour's neatest sallies. Chamberlain has a pretty idea of socialism himself, and, when he gets to be Tory Chancellor of the Exchequer, will develop schemes that will make Sir William Harcourt's confiscatory budget seem fairly Arcadian in its simplicity.

THE SOUTH CAROLINA CRISIS.

It is a singular coincidence that the State which precipitated the war of secession through its attempted repudiation of the Federal Constitution a generation ago should now again bring to the test another question of hardly inferior importance—the question how far the Government of the United States, under the amended Constitution, may interfere with the processes of State laws when those laws affect the highest prerogative of a State in the formation of a constitution for the commonwealth. For this is the issue that has been before Judge Goff in the United States Circuit Court at Columbia, and was passed upon by him on Wednesday week.

By itself, the decision of Judge Simonton, another Federal judge, at Columbia on the same day, practically annulling essential provisions of the Dispensary act as in violation of the Interstate Commerce law, would be important enough to engage general attention, but it sinks into insignificance in comparison with the broader questions and wider consequences involved n the other case. Every citizen of every State is concerned in this latter decision, because the whole issue of State rights is bound up in it.

The present Constitution was adopted in 1868, during the reconstruction era, when the carpet-baggers and negroes were "on top"; and although there has been agitation for a new one ever since the native whites resumed control in 1876-'77, no steps were taken in that direction until Tillman came into power. The last Legislature passed an act providing that an election for delegates to a constitutional convention should be held on the third Tuesday in August next, and that the body should meet on the second Tuesday in September. Certain citizens of South Carolina last month applied to the Circuit Court of the United States for an injunction to restrain the State officials from taking further action under the registration and election laws, on the ground that those laws are in violation both of the State Constitution and of the Federal Constitution. Judge Goff granted a temporary injunction, and on May 8 made it permanent.

The chief points of attack were two. The State Constitution provides that "every inhabitant possessing the qualifications provided for in this Constitution shall have an equal right to elect officers." The qualifications are that one shall be a male citizen of the United States twenty-one years old, a resident of the State one year, and of the county in which he offers to vote sixty days, next preceding the election. The Constitution further provides that "the right of suffrage shall be protected by laws regulating elections," and that "it shall be the duty of the General Assembly to provide from time to time for the registration of all electors."

In 1882 a registration act was enacted, which still remains on the statute-book, and which was enlarged by amendments passed in 1893 and 1894. The practical effect of these provisions is that, for an ordinary election occurring in November, registration ceases early in July (except for those afterwards coming of age), which operates to require a residence in the county of 120 days—in violation, as is contended, of the constitutional requirement of only 60 days' residence. For the election of next August, registration was to be allowed until a month previous, but the difficulties put in the way of getting on the roll the name of any man objectionable to the supervisor are almost incredibly great. A man who is once registered must preserve the certificate then given him and show it at the polls as a condition of voting—which, it is alleged, is a new qualification for the exercise of the suffrage not warranted by the Constitution. If he moves, not simply from one county to another, but even from one precinct to another, and even from one residence to another in the same precinct, he must surrender his old certificate and get a new one. If he loses his certificate, he can get a new one only by proving to the satisfaction of the supervisor, upon such evidence as the latter may require, that he really lost it, and has not destroyed or sold it. If he has never been registered, he must make an affidavit setting forth his full name, age, occupation, and residence when the act of 1882 was passed, or at any time thereafter when he became old enough to vote, "and the place or places of his residence since the time when he became entitled to register"; and this must be supported by the affidavits of two "reputable" citizens who were each twenty-one years old in 1882, or at the time when the applicant became entitled to register. These, and sundry other provisions unnecessary to chronicle, are, it is held, in violation of the State Constitution, as establishing qualifications for the suffrage not required or warranted by that instrument.

The other chief point is the claim that these State laws violate the Federal Constitution. The latter provides that the electors of the lower branch of Congress in each State "shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature." These qualifications, it is contended, must be set down in the State Constitution, and any attempt by State law to establish other qualifications violates the right of the citizen to vote for members of Congress, and so is obnoxious to the Federal Constitution. The fifteenth amendment forbids any abridgment of the right of citizens of the United States to vote "on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude." While the registration law in question does not specifically discriminate against the negro, its rigorous provisions regarding the procurement of a certificate, its preservation, and its restoration if lost, are notoriously directed against the ignorant and migratory blacks. A justification for an appeal to the Federal judiciary is found in the provision of the Federal Constitution that "the United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government," and in the contention that the practical effect of the registration laws of South Carolina is to put that State under the rule of a white oligarchy.

The main reliance of the attorneys on the other side was the argument that the action was virtually directed against the State, and so was forbidden by the eleventh amendment, declaring that "the judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state"—though the present action, it will be observed, was brought by citizens of the State itself. It was also argued that the matters complained of were political rather than judicial, and consequently not the subject of judicial cognizance, and that adequate remedies for any grievance might be obtained at law in the State courts. Judge Goff, however, brushed these contentions aside, and made the injunction permanent on the ground of the unconstitutionality of the registration laws.

The case will, no doubt, be carried up to the Supreme Court of the United States. Unless, however, there is immediate action and that tribunal takes up the question out of order, no decision can be reached until next autumn, as the court's summer recess is near at hand. In that case the election for members of the convention cannot be held, unless the Governor at once summons the Legislature in special session to pass a new registration law. Gov. Evans, who seems as youthful in mind as in years, at first declared that he should "treat the proceeding with the contempt it deserved," but he has learned something during the past fortnight, and now announces that "we will take no action without mature deliberation."

VARIOUS REPLIES TO "COIN."

The amount of literature to which 'Coin's Financial School' has given birth is increasing every day. A pamphlet of high merit, entitled 'Coin's Financial School Answered,' by John G. Floyd, editor of the *Banker's Magazine*, has been issued from the office of the latter publication. This contains not only an exposure of the particular fallacies and falsehoods of the misleading book to which it is a reply, but also special articles on wheat prices and cotton prices—the former by Mr. Alfred C. Stevens, editor of *Bradstreet's*, and the latter by Mr. Samuel T. Hubbard, jr. These articles show that the statistics of production and consumption of wheat and cotton fully account for the variations in price, and

that the money supply has nothing to do with it.

Next in the list is an admirable catechism of 174 pages, entitled, 'What Is Money? A Discussion of the Silver Question, with a Brief Historical Account of the Coinage Legislation of the United States,' by Rozel Weissinger of the Louisville Bar, published by the *Courier-Journal* Printing Company, Louisville. Mr. Weissinger is a practised writer and debater on financial questions, and also knows how to put his ideas in plain language for plain people. Another work, more on the plane of 'Coin's Financial School' itself, is entitled, 'Cash vs. Coin,' and is published by Charles H. Kerr & Co., 175 Monroe Street, Chicago. This is an illustrated work of 121 pages. Still another is entitled '$ or ?' *i. e.*, 'Dollars or What?' by W. B. Mitchell of Chattanooga, Tenn.

Another work, of a serial kind, has been undertaken by Prof. Laughlin in the columns of the Chicago *Times and Herald*. This is a methodical exposure of the falsities of 'Coin's Financial School.' "Coin" had the impudence to introduce the professor as an attendant at his lectures and to put a lot of foolishness into his mouth for himself to answer. This was such a dirty trick that the professor at first intended to pass it over with silent contempt; but when he learned that most of the readers of the book took it *au grand sérieux*, and thought that he (Laughlin) had really been at the "school" and had said the things ascribed to him, he decided to make it hot for the rascal who had put him in a false light before the country. The result is a series of articles showing up the lies in the book and blasting it thoroughly. For example, as to the "crime of 1873," *i. e.*, the charge that the coinage act of that year was passed secretly or silently, he takes up the legislative history of the bill and puts in tabular form the principal events of its course through Congress, showing that it was before that body nearly three years, that it was received in the usual way from the Secretary of the Treasury, was printed and referred to the proper committee of the House, reported back with amendments, printed again, debated, passed, sent to the Senate, printed again, etc., etc.; the dates being given in each case. As the Forty-first Congress expired after the bill had passed one house, but before it became a law, it was taken up again in the Forty-second Congress, and all the proceedings were repeated. This was the reason why it was before Congress so long a time—two years and ten months.

When the silverites are confronted with these facts, they have nothing better to say than that the newspapers of the country did not take any notice of the measure at the time. The author of 'Coin's Financial School' delivered a lecture on this theme at Minneapolis—a real lecture, not a bogus one like those at the Art Institute in Chicago—in which he took pains to read from the files of various newspapers of the time when this bill passed, in order to show that the reporters did not say that silver had been demonetized, although they did say that the coinage act was passed. As silver had been virtually demonetized in 1834, there was no reason why they should say it. But their saying it or not saying it made no difference as to the good faith of Congress in passing the law. Take up the statute-book of that year and see how many other laws the newspapers of Chicago and of Minneapolis reported in detail. If the criticism means anything, it means that the newspaper reporters of that day were in the conspiracy to prevent the public from knowing what Congress was doing in reference to silver. This is a falsehood as barefaced as the statement that the bill was passed secretly.

Perhaps the most valuable contribution in Prof. Laughlin's series is his exposure of "Coin's" juggling with the prices of farm products. He shows that "Coin" took one article only (wheat) because that one had declined in price, and then tried to make people believe that if wheat had declined, everything else had declined, whereas corn, oats, and pork are as high now in gold as they were in 1873. Although wheat has declined very considerably since 1873, it is a fact that a given number of bushels of it will buy more farm implements and machinery now than they would then. The professor presents a table showing the number of bushels of wheat, corn, and oats respectively that were required to buy the seventeen agricultural implements named in 1873 and also in 1889, from which it appears that in 1873 all those kinds of implements required 569.4 bushels of wheat to buy them, and after "the crime of 1873" only 388.1 bushels. "But," continues Prof. Laughlin, "when the comparison is made between implements and corn or oats, the gain of the farmer is something quite surprising since 1873. In 1873 a binder could be bought by no less than 769.2 bushels of corn and in 1889 by only 421.8. The difference is amazing. Corn has not fallen at all in comparison with gold, but the articles bought by the farmer have. All those implements required in 1873 no less than 1,645.1 bushels of corn to buy them, while in 1889 they could be bought by only 886.7, or about one-half. And the same thing is true of oats in nearly the same degree."

Prof. Laughlin's exposures of the other falsities in 'Coin's Financial School,' as far as he has gone, are as thorough as those which we have here noticed. We hope that he will pursue them to the end.

THE MAYOR AND THE BI-PARTISAN BILL.

Mayor Strong's approval of the bi-partisan police bill suggests several considerations. In the first place, we may allege, without fear of contradiction, that had he declared, in answer to the Committee of Seventy, that he would accept such a bill for the city, he would not have been nominated, or, if nominated, would not have been elected. This is as plain an induction from all the facts of the situation last fall as is possible in politics. The platform of the Committee of Seventy, on which he was nominated, says:

> "We demand that the public service of this city be conducted upon a strictly non-partisan basis; that all subordinate appointments and promotions be based on civil-service examinations, and that all examinations, mental and physical, be placed under the control of the Civil-Service Commission."

His answer to this was, that the platform "met with his entire approval," that he would "administer the affairs of the government of the city in the interests of good government, and absolutely non-partisan," and that he "would make all appointments without regard to party lines." It was these declarations that drew the majority which elected him. It is not unfair to assume, that had he said that he would approve and accept on behalf of the city a bill making bi-partisanship compulsory in the composition of the Police Commission, and taking from the Civil-Service Commission the control of the examinations for admission to the force, tens of thousands would have treated his application for their votes as absurd.

In the second place, it does not seem as if the facts of the case left an opening for a misunderstanding of which the charitably disposed could give the Mayor the benefit. There is no interpretation of the terms "bi-partisan" and "non-partisan" under which an honest man can take shelter if he uses the one when people expect him to use the other. Non-partisan appointments mean appointments made without any more reference to the candidate's political opinions than to his religious opinions, and with an eye solely to his fitness for the office. Bi-partisan appointments mean appointments made mainly with reference to a man's political opinions, and for the express purpose of making him in his office a representative of the party to which he belongs. It is impossible to confound them. Mayor Strong has not confounded them. He knows that the bill of which he approves requires that the Police Commission shall contain four partisans, and that the object in putting them there is to enable them to look after the interests of their party. He knows, too, that the Committee of Seventy had not in their mind any such body when they nominated him. They were then filled with horror over the working of a board made bi-partisan solely by usage or courtesy. Had he said, "If you elect me, I shall approve of giving this courtesy or usage, the results of which so shock you, the force of law, and making it permanent and perpetual," would they have thought for a moment of nominating him?

That he did not misunderstand the demand of the Committee of Seventy for the removal of examinations for admission to the police force from the control of the Police Board, is shown by the fact that, almost immediately after coming into office, he so altered the civil-service regulations as to take from the police the partial control they had previously exercised over the conditions of appointment to the police force, to exclude from all share in the examinations the police officers who had previously served on the examining board, and to place every step in the process under the control of the Civil-Service Commission. This was plainly what the Committee of Seventy desired, and his change in the regulations showed that the Mayor so understood them. When they put this plank in their platform, they were filled with indignation over the abuses which had resulted from even the partial control of the Police Board over the nominations. One of these was the conversion of appointments and promotions into articles of merchandise, the proceeds of which the bi-partisan Commissioners divided between them. The present bill, however, destroys even the slight check on them which the Civil-Service Commission formerly exerted, and hands over the whole work of selection and appointment to the Police Commission—an arrangement which even Gilroy did not dare to ask for, much as he would have liked it, or Croker's Legislature, with all its audacity, dare to provide. The only possible excuse for this is that the Mayor will provide such good Commissioners that they will not imitate their predecessors, but the Committee of Seventy had considered this and disallowed it. They did not say that the Mayor was such a good man that he might be trusted to do as he pleased in the matter. They said, "This is our view of what the organization of the force requires, and we will nominate no man who does not agree with us."

We have reserved to the end what we consider the saddest part of this unhappy business, and that is the adoption by the Mayor, without a murmur, of the Platt pretence that a bi-partisan board is necessary to secure fair elections. All we know as to the opinion of the country people on this subject we hear from Plattite politicians. We cannot recall the report of one disinterested person on that subject. That they demand it, we have no trustworthy evidence. But even if they had demanded it, might we not fairly have expected a reform mayor of New York to tell them in manly tones that our experience in this city during the last twenty years proved that they were grossly mistaken; that cheating went on freely at all elections, owing to the low character of the Police Commissioners and the indiscipline of the police force, and that bi-partisanship in the board, instead of curing it, aggravated it; and that the absolute rejection by the Plattites, without reason or discussion, of the plan of taking away the control of the elections from the police, and giving it to a bi-partisan election bureau, showed clearly that the demand for police supervision was a demand not for fair elections, but for the means of rewarding the Murrays and the Kerwins and other paltry adventurers who live on our corruption or supineness? It was a mayor who would have done this in words that would sound like a trumpet-call to the conscience and reason and public spirit of the State, that we hoped we had secured, but whom it is plain we must manage to do without.

We will not go so far as to say with some downcast friends of reform to-day, that we have gained nothing by Mayor Strong's election. How much we have gained it will be impossible to tell till we see what kind of police magistrates he selects. But we are obliged to confess that the good we have got from it is largely due thus far to the badness of Tammany. The city had sunk so low that any change was sure to be a change for the better. Nearly every appointment made, except Col. Waring's, has been made on partisan grounds, and this with a persistence which leads charitable people to suppose that Mayor Strong really understood by non-partisan *multi-partisan*—that is, offices for all parties instead of offices for one party. Let us hope that this explanation has something in it. It is the only road out of the bewilderment which saves his credit without damage to our intelligence.

The consequences most to be feared from what has happened are two in number. One is, that it will encourage the Plattites and the politicians of both parties to believe that there is no fear of their losing New York as a field of intrigue and plunder; that as long as they can retain their hold on the Legislature, the city offices and revenues may be relied on to furnish materials for "deals," and that no popular "rising" will ever really threaten their power. The other is, that the enthusiasm for righteousness which was roused with such difficulty last summer, and, when roused, did such mighty things, and, with the law on its side and the offices in its possession, might, under competent leadership, have laid the foundation of a new city, will fade under this heavy blow. We trust this will not prove true, but there is no disguising the fact that the work of redemption is likely to prove much longer than people supposed, and a severer trial of faith and courage.

EMBARRASSED FOREIGN MISSIONS.

The veteran secretary of the American Board of Foreign Missions, Dr. N. G. Clark, wrote lately in the *Outlook* of "the decline of popular interest in foreign missions at the present time." As a most practical proof of such decline, he mentioned the embarrassed finances of the missionary boards. Some of them are burdened by heavy debts. The treasurer of the Presbyterian Board has just published his annual statement, soon to be laid before the General Assembly, and from it we learn that the fiscal year closed with a deficit of $176,000—about one-fifth of the usual total income. The year before, the deficit was $102,000.

Dr. Clark denies that "the prevailing financial depression" is enough to account for this situation. Money can be had in plenty for religious and charitable work that arouses enthusiasm. But the edge somehow appears to have been taken off the missionary appeal. Tested by the practical response, says this experienced mission secretary, "the argument from the moral degradation and wretchedness of the great masses of the non-Christian nations seems to have lost its power." What is the explanation?

Partly, we think, the passing of the missionary movement from its romantic and heroic into its prosaic and business-like aspect. One reason, we presume, for the high character and remarkable achievements of the pioneer missionaries is that the cause, at the time it appealed to them in their young manhood, was one to stir the pulses of the finest natures. Men like Calhoun and Goodell and Coan and Duff and Livingston were of large mould, could see the immense opportunities to be grasped and the vast influence to be wielded by those first in the field, and went out not simply under the stress of powerful religious motives, but with the zest and eagerness of explorers and adventurers. Seventy-five years have changed all that. System and organization, necessary but deadening, have made a business like any other out of the missionary life. Missionary service is as well established as the India service, as a regular means of livelihood, and missionaries come and go in shoals, with motives doubtless as excellent as ever, but with an inevitable loss of the old-time distinction and influence. This dulling of the interest and imagination that used to attach to their office necessarily affects their cause also in the popular mind.

We can but agree, too, with what Dr. Clark says about the effect of the world's knowing the heathen better. Travel and world's-fairs and parliaments of religion and the going to and fro of the newspaper correspondent have revealed unsuspected heathen virtues, some of which we might copy to advantage. The coming of Buddhist and Mohammedan missionaries to our own shores is rather a grotesque affair, to be sure, and smacks a good deal of a spirit of bravado, yet it witnesses to a growing feeling that the advantages are not all on one side. In the face of this better knowledge of many of those peoples whom we have been wont promiscuously to call heathen, it has been getting more and more impossible to be so sure that they have everything to learn from us, and we nothing from them. It is this, we believe, as much as any relaxation of theological fibre, which makes missionary

speakers nowadays so shy about asserting the damnation of the Chinese or Hindus unless the Gospel is sent them, and so ready to insist upon the humanitarian, brotherly aspect of missionary labors.

But the deepest cause, we suspect, of the decline of interest in missions is the fact that they have been so long conducted on what may be called the crisis theory. The chosen theme of missionary orators for a generation at least has been the critical situation of the heathen world. Japan was evidently going to experience a mighty national change, and how ought Christian efforts and contributions to be directed towards making sure that that change should be a national adoption of Christianity! The millions of India were swaying in the balance, to be won or lost for Christianity, and the next few years would tell the story. That is substantially what has been said in a hundred pulpits and before thousands of missionary gatherings—but it has been said for thirty years steadily. No wonder that the perpetual crisis has got to be a little stale. Hard-headed pew-owners see that the world wags on much as usual. They hear of the new crisis in Japan, but they remember a whole series of Japanese missionary crises, away back to Perry's time, and they button up their pockets as resolutely as Franklin did his in the first part of Whitefield's sermon.

There are signs, however, that a different spirit and a different style of appeal are coming in. Canon Scott Holland recently made a missionary address on the slowness of mission work, in which he distinctly admitted that the old eager expectation of immediate results was mistaken, and affirmed that the real glory and truest success of missionary labors were to be found in long and patient teaching and training and waiting. It seems clear, in fact, that missionary boards must take long looks ahead, and urge plodding work and giving in place of spasmodic. Let them frankly admit, what is practically the truth, that the heathen are very well contented as they are, that they do not want to be converted, that the work of influencing them must necessarily be long and arduous, and must be accomplished more through schools and hospitals and training in the arts of civilization than by impulsive preaching. With such a clear understanding all round, a solid basis to stand upon would soon be reached, and we should not be likely to see this alternation of swollen receipts and a crippled treasury.

VICTORIOUS JAPAN.

TOKYO, April 15, 1895.

To an impartial observer, Japan has preeminently displayed three qualities in her struggle with her gigantic neighbor. The first of these is the moderation of her conduct towards China in declaring war. It is now known* that not Japan but China was the first to contemplate war. As long ago as 1882 the Chinese Government seriously discussed the question of invading Japan and reducing her to a subject State, and Li Hung Chang was repeatedly urged to assume the responsibility of conducting the armies of China against her smaller neighbor. Li Hung Chang was, however, far too astute to undertake the expedition, because he was aware far more than the ordinary Chinese officials that China was in no wise prepared for such an enterprise. Though these proposals were supposed to be a profound state secret, they were soon disclosed to the Japanese Government, and produced at the time the greatest excitement in military circles. The truth is, China has never forgiven Japan for discarding Oriental in favor of Western civilization. It was only a question of time, therefore, when the Chinese Government would seek an opportunity of revenge against her island neighbor for her recreant conduct, and Japan in turn was resolved to be ready and possibly even the aggressor in the inevitable contest. On no theory except that China has been contemplating war for many years, can we explain the enormous amount of ammunition which the Japanese have found stored away in all the places they have thus far captured. Considering all these circumstances, we are bound to acknowledge that the Government of Japan acted with the greatest fairness and forbearance, at least in the preliminary stages of the war.

Not less creditable to Japan, moreover, was her complete readiness for beginning the war. Not only did she have her soldiers in perfect training, so far as the appropriations for the army would permit; not only was her navy in a state of great efficiency; but, like the Prussians with regard to France in 1870-71, the Japanese military authorities had a far better knowledge of the state of China than the Chinese themselves. The military maps of China in possession of the Japanese Government are models of excellence, when we consider the condition of affairs in China and the difficulty of getting accurate topographical information. All roads and distances are so minutely drawn, towns and even villages are marked in such detail, that the wonder grows how the Japanese were able to gather all this knowledge in a country with so few facilities for a careful survey. It is evident that the Japanese Government has quietly been engaged for many years in the preparation of these ordnance maps. The military authorities have shown a perfect acquaintance with the position and resources of the Chinese fortresses, their strong points as well as their defects. Without going into detail, we may say that the Japanese have shown wonderful knowledge, skill, and efficiency, while the Chinese have not understood or appreciated the importance of the simplest defensive tactics.

Most important of all, however, in the present war is the thorough organization of the Japanese army and its entire military equipment. In some respects the Japanese have advantages for carrying on war, even over Western countries, in the peculiarly simple character of their civilization. Their commissariat can dispense with many things which in the West would be considered almost necessities. They do not need draught-horses, since most of the hauling in Japan is done by coolies, who are strong, active, intelligent, and almost invariably good-natured. Good roads are in consequence far less a necessity to the Japanese commissariat than they are in the West. Where roads do not exist at all, they can resort to pack-horses, a mode of conveyance much practised in the interior mountainous districts of Japan. The Japanese artisan is laborious and dexterous. He can quickly adapt himself to new conditions, and, with the simplest tools in the world, he can make almost any article of ordinary utility. For instance, I have seen five or six Japanese carpenters, with perhaps two dozen tools, build a very good house in a primeval forest within a month without resort to machinery or any manufactured commodity except perhaps a few nails and a small amount of paper. The working classes can sleep comfortably on a straw mat, three feet by six, with a single thick quilt. The Japanese Government has utilized to the fullest extent all these advantages for the army and especially the commissariat. Even in Tokyo, which is remote from the seat of war, tinsmiths may be seen busily engaged in putting up meats and vegetables in small tin boxes (each box containing a single man's rations), of which a certain number are packed in a large tin case. A special body of coolies has been organized by the War Department to transport all the military stores to the railways, and the whole process goes on so quietly and smoothly that the ordinary currents of business and commerce are undisturbed. Indeed, so far as Tokyo is concerned, it is difficult to imagine that Japan is engaged in war.

Newspaper correspondents and military attachés testify to a similar orderliness and organization of the forces in the field. The Japanese soldiers have shown courage in action almost at times to the point of temerity. They are as a rule indifferent to danger or death, but courage and audacity have always distinguished the Japanese soldier. On the other hand, organization is a wholly unique element in the Japanese army. In the past history of Japan we have endless stories of individual courage, but very little of the general plan of the battles. But the Japanese at present acknowledge that the distinctive superiority of their armies over those of China lies almost wholly in perfect organization—a result of close study of European models adapted to Japanese conditions. The Chinese often show no lack of cases of individual courage, but of moving and acting in concert we see not a trace. Their armies seem to be merely a collection of atoms in juxtaposition without any cohesive force. Never before, perhaps, has the value of organization and social cohesion been proved more strikingly than in the present contest between China and Japan.

Because of the presence of these excellent qualities in the Japanese, all the more flagrant appear the lapses from them, as in the Port Arthur massacre and the want of provision for the safety of Li Hung Chang. While these exceptions are grave, they stand out in strong contrast to the general conduct of the army and the Government. And if the Japanese have the moral force that they ought to have, they will turn these lapses to good account. A repetition of the Port Arthur affair would to-day be far more difficult than its original occurrence, if for no better reason than that foreign critics have shown the inconsistency between Japanese professions and practices. Similarly, there are signs that public opinion is crystallizing against the *soshi* in a way never before seen, and if the final result of the attempted assassination be the extinction of soshi-ism—this relic of Chinese teaching—the price paid, though a species of vicarious atonement, would not be too high for so great a consummation.

G. D.

* See the London *Times* of Feb. 19, 1895.

THE CURTIUS FESTIVAL AT OLYMPIA.

ATHENS, April 21, 1895.

THE great event of the month to those interested in archæology has been the recent festival held at Olympia in honor of Prof. Ernst Curtius's eightieth birthday—an anniversary which, it will be remembered, was celebrated with much éclat in Berlin on the 2d of last September. It was decided then to postpone the celebration at Olympia until the following spring, that being a better season of the year for visiting Greece. To the archæological world it seemed a peculiarly happy idea to meet at Olympia in honor of the venerable savant who had been the means of bringing its long-buried treasures to the light again, after so many centuries of oblivion. Accordingly, the gathering at Olympia yesterday to witness the unveiling of the bust of Curtius included representatives from many nations and of various branches of art and letters. From an early hour in the morning the sacred Altis was thronged by an immense crowd of country-folk, who, in their gay costumes, grouped picturesquely about under the trees on the surrounding slopes, made up a scene which vividly brought to mind the descriptions of the ancient gatherings at Olympia. In the middle of the large central hall of the Museum, with the gods on either side and the beautiful Victory of Paionios behind, had been placed the draped bust of Curtius, a work of the Berlin sculptor Schaper, being a copy in Pentelic marble of the one which ten years ago was presented to Curtius by his friends and admirers on his seventieth birthday, and which now forms one of the greatest ornaments of the quiet house in Berlin. The inscription upon the pedestal of the Olympian bust runs as follows: "ERNST CURTIUS—ΕΡΝΕΣΤΟΣ ΚΟΥΡΤΙΟΣ. Von Freunden und Verehrern gewidmet am 2ten September, 1894. *'Η ἑλληνική κυβέρνησις τιμῆς ἕνεκεν ἐνθάδε ἵδρυσε.*"

The exercises were opened by Prof. Wilhelm Dörpfeld, First Secretary of the Imperial German Archæological Institute at Athens, who, in a speech of masterly eloquence, gave a rapid sketch of Curtius's work at Olympia, and in conclusion called upon those present to join with him in crowning this latest of the Olympic victors with the crown of wild olive. He then withdrew the light covering which hid the bust, amid great applause. M. Kavvadias, General Ephor of Antiquities in Greece, then spoke in the name of the Greek Government, accepting the bust, and dwelling at length upon the great services which Curtius had rendered to the world of art and letters. Other speeches followed, notably that of M. Homolle, Director of the French School at Athens, whose graceful tribute both to Curtius as a scholar and to German achievements in archæology, was much appreciated. Wreaths of laurel were presented by Prof Percy Gardner, in the name of the British School at Athens and of the Society for the Promotion of Hellenic Studies, and by Mr. Richardson in the name of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. Dr. Dörpfeld then crowned the bust with a wreath of wild olive presented by Miss Jane Harrison in the name of the Empress Frederick of Germany, and with a wreath of laurel from the Crown Princess Sophia of Greece. In conclusion, enthusiastic cheers were given by the audience for Curtius, for Greece, and for Germany.

The ceremony at the Museum was followed by a banquet, under the genial auspices of Dr. Dörpfeld, at which, besides the opening toast to the King of Greece, whose warm interest in the work at Olympia was dwelt upon by Dr. Dörpfeld, numerous toasts were proposed to Curtius by the representatives of the different literary and scientific bodies present. In conclusion, a congratulatory telegram to Curtius was read aloud by Dr. Dörpfeld, to which the company responded with applause, a copy being afterwards passed round for the signatures of all present, to be sent to Berlin by post.

It may not be amiss here to state briefly the facts with regard to Curtius's work at Olympia, which is now a matter of twenty years ago. As far back as 1837, when Curtius, then a youth of three-and-twenty, made his first visit to Greece, the idea of excavating at Olympia had already taken firm hold upon him. It was not, however, until the 10th of January, 1852, when he gave his famous lecture on Olympia before a large and scholarly audience in Berlin, that the matter was brought before the public. The enthusiasm awakened that evening in the minds of all his hearers, but particularly in that of the Crown Prince Frederick of Prussia, was destined to bear its fruit, though at a somewhat distant day. The outbreak of the Crimean war, the financial and political troubles at home, all combined to make an undertaking of the sort an impossibility for many years to come; but at length, after the successful termination of the war with France, the hour arrived for the fulfilment of Curtius's plans. The excavations at Olympia were undertaken by the German Government, at a cost of nearly a million of marks, in the name of the German people now for the first time a great and united nation. The Reichstag passed a unanimous vote for the raising of the necessary sum, and, in 1874, sent Curtius as plenipotentiary to Greece to make arrangements. On the 27th of April, 1874, a treaty was drawn up and signed at Athens, giving Germany the right of excavating at Olympia for a period of ten years, under certain conditions to be observed by both parties. A committee was appointed at Berlin, consisting of Curtius, Friedrich Adler, and Busch. At the same time, a staff of trained archæologists and architects was appointed, which had the direction of the work at Olympia, and personally conducted the excavations during the whole period of six years.

The task undertaken proved to be no slight one. The Altis itself, or sacred enclosure of Olympia, measuring some 200 metres by 175, had, owing to the inundations of the rivers Alpheios and Kladeos, entirely disappeared beneath a sandy deposit some five to seven metres deep. The entire extent of the region excavated included, however, much more than the Altis, as many buildings lay outside the sacred precinct. But the results amply justified the time and money expended. When the Hermes was brought to light, all who saw it felt that it alone more than compensated for the entire undertaking, while the rich harvest of bronzes and sculptures, of coins, inscriptions, and terra-cottas, not to mention the *forty* buildings found, more than fulfilled the hopes of all who had so eagerly followed the course of events.

No account, however, of the excavations at Olympia would be complete without at least a passing mention of the forerunners of the work. The idea of excavating at Elis was by no means a new one with Curtius. Already in the course of the last century, no less than four scholars, representing respectively France, Germany, and England, had called attention to the fact that in all probability a rich harvest awaited the fortunate excavator at Olympia. The learned Benedictine Montfaucon in 1723, Winckelmann in 1763, Chandler in 1766, and Fauvel in 1797, all both felt and urged the desirability of ascertaining what still remained of the ancient splendors of Olympia. The two latter, indeed, were fortunate enough to be able to visit Elis themselves—a difficult thing in those days—and to see the ruined temple of Zeus in the midst of a desolate plain. Curiously enough, it is Chandler who is generally given the credit of having first discovered this temple, whereas in reality it was Fauvel, who, though writing later than Chandler, was the first to rightly identify it as the temple of Zeus mentioned by Pausanias.

In the early part of the present century, three English travellers, Leake, Dodwell, and Gell, successively visited Olympia between the years 1801 and 1808, and to their accounts we owe many facts which otherwise would have been lost to our knowledge. Some twenty years later, in 1829, at the close of the Greek war of Independence, the French, following the example set by Napoleon in Egypt, landed a body of scientific men and scholars in the Morea, where for six weeks they engaged in excavations upon the site of Olympia, this being the first attempt at anything like a systematic undertaking of the sort. The Louvre owes some of its most interesting Greek sculptures to this campaign, which, however, was destined never to resume its labors, and it was reserved for Curtius, as has been said above, to carry out the project of his early youth only after a lapse of thirty-eight years.

Perhaps the most important result thus far of the excavations at Olympia is the unexpected light they have thrown upon the history of Greek architecture. The forty buildings brought to view represent, according to Prof. Adler, a period of more than nine centuries (from circa 670 B. C. to circa 250 A. D.) Some of them are unique of their kind—buildings known to us hitherto only through vague and often contradictory descriptions of ancient writers. Such are notably the Council Hall, the Treasure-houses, the Gymnasium, Palæstra, etc. Very important material has thus been added to our still imperfect knowledge of the development of Greek architecture. Perhaps the most interesting building of all is the Temple of Hera—the most ancient temple hitherto discovered upon the Greek mainland.

But although many questions have been answered by these excavations, many more still remain unsolved. As Curtius himself says, in his official report, "a work like that at Olympia can never be said to be *finished*." Indeed, many new problems have been opened up to the archæologist—a fact for which every true student should be grateful. The chief value of the Olympian excavation lies not so much in the separate finds, however valuable in themselves, as in the fact that it has opened up new horizons to the student of the past, and has added a touch of fresh truth to its somewhat indistinct colors. Curtius's example is one of steadfast devotion to an idea throughout a long series of years and under circumstances which would have utterly discouraged a lesser man. It is to his energy, enthusiasm, and noble perseverance that the world owes to-day one of its greatest advances in the history of Art.

D. KALOPOTHAKES.

BARANTE'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, April 24, 1895.

THE Souvenirs of the Baron de Barante, published by his grandson, M. Claude de Barante, form a very valuable document for the history of our time. The fifth volume, which

has just been published, extends from 1832 to 1837, very critical years for the Government of July, which had to obtain its *droit de cité* among the old governments of Europe, and to put an end to the revolutionary movements which were a natural consequence of the overthrow of the Bourbons.

In 1832 M. de Barante was still at Turin, a most difficult diplomatic post. I have shown how in his despatches he noted the fact that, under a veil of the most reactionary sentiments and of a total subserviency to Austria, the Italian feeling was slowly growing, and that the hatred of the *forestieri* and the aspiration for Italian independence and unity found accomplices in the highest ranks of the nation, even in the royal family of Piedmont. M. de la Tour, the minister with whom Barante had to deal, seems to have had large and clear ideas on many points. Speaking of the state of Greece, he said to Barante: "It is quite possible that Europe will have to occupy itself with Greece. The Ottoman Empire is going to pieces. The Pasha of Egypt is striking perhaps the last blow. The partition would be a great affair." Metternich had already said in Paris, in 1827, during a journey which he made to that city, that Greece was a dangerous spot. "We must know what we want. If it is the destruction of the Ottoman Empire, let us go at once to the end. Let us divide Turkey and reorganize Europe; if not, let us abandon Greece to herself." The battle of Navarino had been followed by the creation of the kingdom of Greece; the Egyptian question was not settled. M. de la Tour wanted a Congress. "It is evident," writes Barante, "that the interest of the House of Savoy would be identical with that of France. It would see a way of realizing what has always seemed to it its destiny—that is to say, the establishment of a kingdom which would embrace all the north of Italy."

M. de la Tour regretted that Europe had not chosen a Piedmontese Prince for the new kingdom of Greece, especially since Europe had made very good terms for this new kingdom:

"Without speaking," said he to Barante, "of our right to Achaia, which still figures among our titles, it would have been better to choose an Italian. The community of manners and of language is greater between Greeks and Italians. Trade has established continued relations; our navy renders the communications frequent. No European establishments have lasted so long in the East as the Italian establishments. We could have offered only the second son of the King, a child, or Prince Carigman, of the younger branch, who is seventeen years old. But, so a regency had been adopted, this would have been no objection."

On July 28, 1833, the statue of Napoleon was replaced with great pomp on the Vendôme column, in presence of the King, the Princes, the Marshals. M. Thiers was there on horseback, in his minister's uniform, and it was at his signal that the veil fell which covered Napoleon. The Duchess de Dino was in London at the time with Talleyrand; she was one of Barante's faithful correspondents, and wrote to him: "At a distance I could not readily imagine this scene in the Place Vendôme, where my little friend Thiers appeared as drum-major, and where, for the greatest glory of all, people screamed at the same moment, 'Vive le roi! Vive l'Empereur! Vive la Révolution!' One must have been there, and have gone successively through the rapid transformations of Paris, to understand it or find it simple. Decidedly, I am horribly *rouillée*, and people will find me so much behind the times that I shall be ashamed."

I would recommend to those who are interested in the diplomatic history of France in our time an official despatch of Barante's dated Turin, May 8, 1834, which gives an account of the relations of France and Piedmont during the year 1832. It is impossible to paint more accurately the difficulties with which the Government of Louis Philippe had to deal during that period, the jealousies of the great Powers, the petty opposition which was made everywhere to a King who was looked upon as a usurper, the animosity of the Legitimist party in Turin, the fears of the Court of Sardinia. The incidents which troubled the Powers are now well forgotten, and in reading the despatches of Barante we feel at times as if we were in a *terra incognita*. We can hardly understand passions which resemble so little our own. *Où sont les neiges d'antan?* says the poet. Where is the Holy Alliance? and where are the Carlists of Turin? The incidents of parliamentary life in Paris formed the chief element of the vast correspondence of Barante. Time has deprived them also of their interest; the letters of Molé, of Guizot, of Thiers, of the Duke Decazes have become less interesting than the more familiar letters of the Duchess de Broglie and the Duchess de Dino.

The Duchess de Broglie had a tender soul and a poetical mind; she writes from Coppet: "How sweet it would have been to find ourselves in this place where we were once so young, where we lived such a strong life. Coppet is now a temple, a serene and peaceful temple." She has visited the battle-field of Waterloo: "It moved me much, but makes one think more of the greatness of the fallen man than of those who triumphed over him. The lion which they placed in this great solitary field seems like the image of the conquered more than of the conqueror." The Duchess de Dino wrote generally on politics, but she was not pedantic; at times she had great delicacy of touch. You may judge by this:

"Your own disposition prepares you to receive mild impressions better than painful ones. This is what I call being happily born, and it is also what makes people keep their equilibrium better, and preserve a clearer heart and mind, near you than near anybody else I know. I have often experienced this; I am grateful to you for it, and it is what makes me particularly regret you here [she writes from Rochecotte], where more than one cloud has passed over my thought which your amiable disposition, your sweet and discreet friendship, would certainly have blown away. You are not the person to whom I have told most of the particulars of this life, but you are the person by whom I have always felt best understood; you have never insisted on what appeared to you, and the extreme delicacy with which you indicate without articulating makes your company singularly comfortable, sweet, and agreeable. I am quite pleased to make this avowal to you."

These lines do equal credit to Barante and to the writer: they are singularly delicate, and suggest that Barante must have been a very delightful friend. On the following page we find a long letter of Cavour's, but, such is the exigency of chronological order, Cavour appears in it very different from what we afterwards saw him. He is writing from London, in 1835; he is completely absorbed in political economy; his observations on the state of parties are, I am obliged to say, very commonplace. The true Cavour was still in the bud.

In September, 1835, Barante was appointed Ambassador to St. Petersburg. It was a most difficult post in those times, as the relations of France and Russia, which were very cordial before 1830, had been completely altered by the Revolution of July. The Emperor Nicholas affected to treat Louis Philippe as a usurper; he considered himself the chief representative of the doctrines which had ruled Europe since 1815; he felt great irritation towards a revolution which was in opposition to these doctrines. Moreover, the Revolution of 1830 had had its effects in Belgium and in Poland; it had also drawn France and England together, and this modified the political relations of all the European Powers. Nicholas was an autocrat, and had no need of concealing his sentiments, as Austria and Prussia were obliged to do, to a certain extent. The French embassy to St. Petersburg was, in consequence, almost a post of danger; but it was felt that it could not be in better hands than those of Barante, who concealed the firmness of his doctrines under unimpeachable good manners and great moderation of character. Barante received his instructions from the Duke de Broglie:

"Without being blind to the advantages which the close alliance of the cabinet of Saint-Petersburg formerly had for us, we understand perfectly that, in the present circumstances, not only would it be dangerous to reëstablish it, but even there would be a dangerous blindness in seeming to desire it, and to direct ostensibly towards this end the combinations of our policy."

Barante stopped at Weimar, where he saw the Grand Duchess, sister of the Emperor of Russia. "She is evidently very *spirituelle*, but her deafness, her union with a husband who is evidently so inferior to her, her life in a little provincial town, all gives her an air of sadness and discouragement. Thirty years of such a life do not seem to have inspired her with any resignation." He remained some time in Berlin. "The atmosphere of Germany seems to me even more pacific than the atmosphere of France [in 1835]. Berlin seems to me more *bourgeois* than thirty years ago. Nothing is heard but reasonable words."

Barante was received for the first time on January 10, 1836, by the Emperor of Russia, who treated him at once as if he had always known him, and talked with him on all the affairs of Europe with an easy and familiar volubility. He spoke of Louis Philippe "without embarrassment, without bitterness, but also without any show of affection." He knew how much Europe owed to him for the preservation of peace; he had undertaken a very difficult task. He spoke of the courage shown by the King when his life was attempted, of what the Queen must have felt. "'You will have to make some new laws; you will come to it.' 'That will depend on circumstances,' I replied; 'with our form of government and in our situation, we must wait till public opinion is warned and enlightened.' 'Well, then, the merit consists in taking advantage of the moment.'" Nicholas spoke lightly of the new kingdom of Greece, of the new King. "I think him a little mad." The Emperor was adverse to creating constitutional institutions in Greece. "One of the difficulties of the country is the number of Greeks who have been brought up abroad, and who bring back habits and ideas to a country where they are without application."

How happy Barante must have been, in his exile at St. Petersburg, to receive letters from his French friends. On January 14, 1836, the Duchess de Broglie writes to him:

"Dear Prosper: I write to you amidst the preparations for a ball. Our winter is a succession of festivities of which you can form no idea. People are convinced that they ought to sing and dance from morning till night in

order to consolidate the Government. I sometimes think that something better could be done. When I came back on July 30, 1830, to Paris, silent and calm after such a terrible crisis, with the trees of its boulevards torn, the streets full of barricades, I hardly thought that I should soon be obliged to give parties like those of the old régime. It is fortunate, it is better so, more rational; but somehow the result is a sort of discouragement and of disdain for human affairs. Is there so little difference between things different? The world becomes very uniform; material objects are getting more and more assimilated; we have everywhere the same feasts, the same flowers, the same carpets, the same suppers. Life seems to be taken *à la entreprise*, and governments, too. The originality of which we have dreamt, the seal which we should like to see on all the acts of those we love and our country—all this is a dream. We must take our hearts somewhere else, and it is even better not to speak of it. I finish thus this tirade, which is not very clear."

It is clear enough; it shows in the Duchess de Broglie a person who was better than the world she lived in, a soul tormented by a higher ideal, a pessimist, a dreamer. She had something in her of the genius of Mme. de Staël.

Polish affairs hold a very important place in the despatches of Barante. He soon understood that Russia was particularly sensitive on the question of Poland. Nesselrode complained bitterly of the reception which the Polish refugees had met with in France; Russia had never received nor encouraged the Carlists. The Emperor was in a constant state of irritation on the subject; he complained also constantly of England. Barante was not long in perceiving that Nicholas was even more hostile to England than to France. Orloff told him once: "If you knew Lord Palmerston as I do, you would know that he is capable of anything; he is a man of passion and of vanity. Remember the bombardment of Copenhagen in 1807, in time of peace, when England had been trying to inspire Denmark with full security. Who knows if they don't now want to bombard Cronstadt? We know that there is a difference between England and France: you don't believe that we are preparing to conquer Constantinople or to occupy the Dardanelles; you would not embark in a senseless war with her; it would be a general war, a convulsion for all Europe."

Correspondence.

THE REVELATION CONTAINED IN THE MADISON LETTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Madison letter published in the *Nation* April 25, 1895, *never before published*, is "newly discovered evidence" of the highest character, being the testimony of that witness who is now universally conceded to have stood first in the world of the framers of the Constitution.

It contains a revelation in regard to the intent and purpose of the term "direct taxes" as used in the Constitution, and in regard to the understanding of the people of the United States concerning that term when they adopted the Constitution; and, what is still more extraordinary, it shows that the term, in the estimation of the men who used it, did not refer to the kind, or character, or nature of the tax itself, and that the framers of the Constitution never considered the subject of taxation from the philosophical or politico-economic point of view, but were wrestling with the stern necessities of the question, How shall the people of these several States be induced to pay a Federal tax? The letter also shows that all the learned arguments upon the economic questions what is a direct tax, and what is not a direct tax, and what did the world know about direct and indirect taxes in 1787, may be thrown into the waste paper basket.

On the 29th of January, 1789 (after the adoption of the Constitution, but before the organization of the new Government), Madison wrote to "Col. G. Thompson," setting forth his "sentiments" in relation to a proposed alteration of the Federal Constitution, and giving his reasons why he disliked "a change of that part of it which authorizes direct taxes." He says to Col. Thompson, in the beginning of the letter, "Should I judge amiss, your candour will excuse the communication. Should I judge aright, your discretion will make a proper use of it." Col. Thompson, in the plenitude of his "discretion," did not "make a proper use of it," and Madison, apparently, having submitted the question of publication to Col. Thompson, did not feel at liberty to publish it himself, and the letter has remained unpublished until on the 25th of April last it was brought to light through Mr. Worthington Ford.

Here let it be clearly apprehended that the great question before the Supreme Court is simply this: What is a direct tax within the intent and meaning of the Constitution? If the income tax is a direct tax, it must be laid and apportioned among the several States in the ratio of representation. Massachusetts having, say, a third as many representatives in Congress as New York, the citizens of Massachusetts collectively must pay only one-third as much of the entire income tax as the citizens of New York, etc., etc. This apportionment among the States not having been made in laying the income tax, it is unconstitutional if it is a direct tax. Conversely, if the income tax is not a direct tax, it does not come within these restrictive clauses of the Constitution. It has followed, of course, that the forensic struggle has been to show, on the one side, that the income tax is in its nature a direct tax; that it bears directly on the individnal citizen who pays it; that it is not an excise, etc.; and on the other side that it was not a tax known to the framers of the Constitution; that it was not a tax which they had or could have had in mind when they used the term "direct taxes," and hence that they did not intend to restrict that kind of a tax to distribution among the States in the ratio of representation. In other words, it is argued that the restriction was intended for certain *kinds* of taxation then known to the framers specifically and termed "direct taxes."

Madison first alludes to the apparently conceded fact that the ordinary expenses of the new Government would be met by duties, or by duties and excises. Concerning the ordinary revenue of the Federal Government, therefore, there was then no dispute. It was provided for. Everybody knew what duties were and everybody knew better then than everybody knows now that an excise was an English tax laid upon a domestic commodity. So far there was neither State nor sectional jealousy.

But there would be wars and national "emergencies." Then the future Government would need extraordinary revenues. Blockades might cut off imposts and even reduce the ordinary revenue. The nation already knew by bitter experience what it cost to carry on war without money and without credit. How should this extraordinary revenue be provided when the day of necessity should come?

Manifestly it could be raised by but one of two methods: either *indirectly*, by "requisitions" on the several States, as under the still existing Confederacy, or by taxes laid *directly* by the Federal Government. Duties and excises were not indirect taxes, they were not under discussion or consideration; they were not in the case at all. *Indirect taxes* were taxes procured indirectly by "requisitions" on the States; *direct taxes* were taxes laid *directly* by the Federal Government. The framers of the Constitution evidently had never looked at the subject from a politico-economic point of view; they had never given a thought to the philosophy of taxation; the term "direct taxes," as they used it, did not refer to the kind or character or nature of the tax, but to the fact that such taxes were no longer to be laid indirectly through "requisitions" upon the States, but directly upon the taxpayer by the newly constituted taxing power. Indirect taxes would be a thing of the past, of the expiring Confederation; taxes directly laid by the future Government would supply its extraordinary revenue when needed.

But here State jealousy had entered into the problem which the framers were solving—the difficult problem of taking power from the individual States and transferring it to this new, unknown, and distant central authority. If Congress could lay a tax directly upon the property of the citizens of all the States, might it not be so laid that the citizens of Virginia would have to pay more than the citizens of New York? How should the power so transferred be restrained?

The Convention answered the question by the word population. The new power of direct taxation should be given to Congress, *but the system of quotas*, with which the people of the country were familiar, *should be retained*. The inhabitants of Virginia, thereafter as theretofore, should contribute under this new power of direct taxation only the old quota of the whole amount laid upon all the States. The means would be by the direct taxation of the Federal Government; the amount (or proportion) would be precisely what it had been before. The safeguard of ratio remained inviolate; only the agency of collection was changed. The power of direct taxation should impose no greater liability upon the taxpayer in any State than the power of raising money by "requisition" had imposed.

But here another element of discord came in: Were slaves inhabitants or property? The previous limitation upon the direct powers of taxation was a safeguard; the next concession was a compromise. The slaves, the "other persons," should be reckoned at three-fifths of their actual number; and the power of direct taxation should be exercised, not literally in the ratio of population, but in the modified ratio of representation. And hence we have the clause, "No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken."

Attorney-General Whitney, in his recent argument, said that the term "direct taxes" is not to be found in any law or statute anterior to the Constitution. Madison now explains to us why the new and unknown and undefined term appears in the Constitution at all—because it stands for the power of direct taxation. The framers supposed when they were limiting the *thing* that they were limiting the power. Instead of saying, "The power of direct taxation shall be exercised only in the ratio of representation," they said in effect, "The taxes imposed by the

new power of direct taxation (*i. e.*, the direct taxes hereby authorized) shall be distributed among the States hereafter as they have been heretofore, in the ratio of population as modified by the Constitution (*i. e.*, on the ratio of representation)."

Having now the historical situation plainly in view, let us turn back to the Madison letter and behold how clear the intent and purpose of the term appears, and that it was the two forms of taxation, direct taxes and State requisitions, which were kept in logical antithesis. At the outset of his discussion Mr. Madison states the question and brings the alternatives plainly to the front:

"The question to be considered then is, *which of the two systems, that of requisitions or that of direct taxes*, will best answer the essential purpose of making every State bear its equitable share of the common burdens."

They remain in the front. It is not direct taxes or duties; it is not direct taxes or indirect; the alternatives are: taxes coming direct from the general Government, or taxes indirectly levied by requisitions on the States.

"From the reasoning of many on this subject it would seem as if the question concerning *requisitions and direct taxes* was whether direct taxes shall be levied or not. This is by no means the case. If extraordinary aids for the public safety shall not be necessary, direct taxes will not be necessary. If extraordinary emergencies call for such aids, the only question will be *whether direct taxes shall be raised by the General Government itself, or whether the General Government shall require the State Governments to raise them.*"

He carries these alternative necessities to the end of his argument: Direct taxes or requisitions? Extraordinary revenue, shall it be levied directly by the Government or indirectly through the States? And with the recognition of these alternatives is the recognition of the existing quotas measured by an equal rule of taxation which might be philosophically imposed when each State would contribute only its just proportion.

"But besides these general considerations, which affect every part of the Union, there are others which claim the most serious attention of the southern parts of it, & of Virginia particularly. *If direct taxes be prohibited, and no reliance can be placed on Requisitions* the inevitable consequence will be that whenever public exigencies arise, the duties will be accumulated on imports, until they shall have yielded every farthing that can be squeezed out of them. Now who is it that pays duties on imports? Those only who consume them. What parts of the continent manufacture least and consume imported manufactures most? The southern parts. It is clearly the interest of the southern parts, therefore, and of Virginia particularly, that trade should not be overburdened; but that *direct taxes when necessary* should come in aid of that fund; *since being laid on all the states by an equal rule provided in the Constitution, they tend to equalize the general burden on every part of the continent.*"

His political sagacity was never more incisive than when Madison intimates in this letter that it is the commercial and manufacturing States which have reason to distrust the provision that allows Congress to exercise the power of direct taxation. N.

WASHINGTON, May, 1895.

CAUSE AND EFFECT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Having read your strictures upon the Grand Army with a feeling that it was not a full statement of the case, I greeted with pleasure the mild protest of "C. F. B." from Washington. May I quote as a text the main point of his letter?

"I submit that if you will bring your censure of the pension laws and administration of the last fifteen years or so to the test of reason, you will lay the blame, not on the Grand Army, but on that bad working of our political system that throws the public affairs and the powers of government into the least worthy and capable hands, and leaves the better people to indifference and despair, except when they rise in revolt against some abuse that has grown too scandalous or oppressive to be borne."

In analyzing this plea we have to bear in mind that Congress is made up in one house of 356 members from districts, and in the other of members from forty-four States. There is no person in either house who represents the nation or is responsible for the public interest. No member has any authority or any legitimate influence over any others, so that his interference with them on behalf of the general interest is naturally regarded as an impertinence. There is no leadership and no common rallying-point. Getting a majority, therefore, means an accumulation of units much as the coral insects are said to build up islands in the West Indies, with the difference that these are permanent, while the other structures are as shifting as the kaleidoscope. Of course, party is the chief cement, but party has come to be only one of the instruments by which private interests work out their schemes. Now the building up of a majority in this way is a task of such stupendous difficulty that it can be undertaken only by those possessed of immense resources, either financial or political. But if these resources are big enough, there is not much doubt of the result, because there is no, or very slight, opposition to be feared from the public interest, which is wholly unrepresented. All the circumstances favor attacks on the public purse, while the defence is reduced to a nullity. This is the whole secret of the success of protective tariffs, the free-silver interest, big naval expenditures, and of such combinations as the Sugar Trust and the Standard Oil Company.

It lies at the root, also, of the pension business. There are certain men in Washington, known as pension agents, whose business it is to secure pensions for applicants, for a commission (we will suppose) of 10 per cent. A pension law, therefore, which, by means of arrears, would involve no more than one hundred and fifty millions of dollars—and I believe ours covers more than double that amount—would mean fifteen millions in the pockets of these gentry. As they are past masters in the art of manipulating Congress, all that they require is applicants. Go into any town or village, and you can hear endless accounts how the emissaries of these agents are scouring the country, entering every family and stimulating it to find some member or friend or acquaintance who can present some trumped-up claim connected with the war. Is it any wonder that men should lend a ready ear to a paternal Government anxious to fill their pockets in spite of themselves? Is it any wonder that the Grand Army, from an honorable association based upon patriotic memories, should have been converted to a great extent into an instrument of the pension agents? The disastrous effects of our evil methods of government are far worse than a drain of the Treasury in that they tend to degrade and lower the character of our whole people.

Hear a few words from a French writer (M. Étienne Lamy, 'La République en 1883'), upon similar circumstances:

"For if nations make governments after their own image, it is still more true that governments give to the people their virtues in the long run and their vices with a terrible promptitude. Is it supposed that this people, if it reads impotence or servility on the forehead of its chiefs, will preserve intact its respect for authority, and meanwhile will remain inaccessible to the errors, to the abasement, of those whom it despises? How can the caprice of fortunes which nothing justifies, and the scandals of those which everything condemns, fail to turn aside the modest labor and the conscientious efforts upon which are raised with such slowness the success of honest people? . . . Such is the fecundity of error."

The antithesis to this picture is found in your own comments this week upon the English annual budget which has just been presented. A year ago, Sir William Harcourt, in a total amount of over 400 millions of dollars, estimated a surplus of $1,500,000. The actual surplus was $3,800,000, differing, on the right side, from the estimate by one-half of 1 per cent. on the total budget. The expenditure differed from the estimate by $420,000, or one-tenth of 1 per cent. on the total budget. It is just this thing, repeated in substance every year for half a century, which has made English national finance beyond all comparison the first in the world. Can any one compare it with ours of the last ten years without a blush of shame?

Yet the difference is not in the character of the people, except as the British has been raised by a long period of the example of such government, nor in the character of the House of Commons as compared with our Congress. It is simply and solely because the English finances are managed by one man, not necessarily a trained financier, while ours are managed by a mob. If we wish to rescue our Treasury from becoming more and more an object of contempt and laughter to the whole world, the only possible resource is to put the Secretary into Congress and let him fight his way if he can, and as, in the long run, he in all probability will, to the position of an English chancellor of the exchequer. G. B.

BOSTON, May 10, 1895.

POE'S MORAL NATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit me to correct a statement made in your notice of the new edition of Poe? It is of some consequence because it implies a wrong notion of the copyright law, about which it is important that literary people should not have indefinite or hazy ideas. You say that the publishers "have taken advantage of the recent expiration of copyright," which you date from the issue of the works of Poe edited by Dr. Rufus Wilmot (not William, as you have it) Griswold in 1850. But nothing was covered by the 1850 copyright except the editor's "memoir." Poe's tales and poems had been published from twenty to four years previously, and the copyright on any contribution could not have extended, under the most favorable circumstances, more than forty two years from the date of first publication. If all legal requirements had been complied with, the copyright on 'The MS. Found in a Bottle,' for instance, would have expired in 1875. But, in fact, if there had been any copyright on this production, it would have ended in 1861, and that on Poe's last published article in 1878, the original term of copyright (twenty-eight years) never having been renewed, since neither the author nor his wife was alive at these dates. Nor would it have made any difference, except in half-a-dozen cases, if he or she had then been living, for, with these exceptions,

Poe's writings were published in uncopyrighted periodicals, and were not individually entered.

In view of the additional light thrown of late years on Poe's career, and the fact that the *Nation* has several times pricked the bubbles blown by Ingram and other admirers, it is strange that your present critic should blame Prof. Woodberry for mentioning other faults than his hero's drunkenness and irritable temper. "His worst faults," you say, "were as surely congenital as was his genius." His worst faults, however, were not the ones named, but his utter lack of honor. Nor was this lack the result of ill treatment or misfortune. His first employer, T. W. White, whose honesty and even generosity are admitted even by Poe's defenders, declared, from his early knowledge of him, that "he was an unmitigated rascal." But his moral character is perhaps best illustrated by incidents related in a letter lately written to me by one of his few surviving contemporaries, and which I desire to put on record:

"Jan. 10th, 1895.

"My Dear Sir:

"The incident to which I alluded was as follows: Poe called on me one day in great glee and said: 'I have a good joke on Griswold. I met him the other day and suggested to him that he should get me, through his publishers, to write a review of his last work, "The Poets and Poetry of America." He said it would be a good idea, and that he would speak to his publishers about it, and said, "I am sure they'll pay fairly, and I think you can go on and do the work without waiting." Well, I wrote the review, and, a few days after, handed it to him, when he gave me the money for it from the publishers.'

"'Well,' I said, 'this is nothing more than the ordinary bookseller's device, and I dare say your review was a fair one and will be of use to the work.' 'There lies the joke,' he replied. 'I began at the very beginning and did not allow a single merit in the book: I assailed it to the extent of my powers, and should like to have seen Griswold's face as he read the manuscript.' I looked at him and said, 'That is a very good joke, doubtless, for you, but Griswold and the publishers paid you; of course you returned the money?' 'No,' said he, 'I spent it.' He had not the least idea that he had been doing a very contemptible thing, and it was impossible to get angry with him because, in spite of his unsurpassed ability in certain lines of literary work, he was in morals an absolute idiot.

"In other instances I remember that he showed this lack of appreciation of right and wrong, and one of them was his trip to Boston. He came to me one day looking very dilapidated, and I knew from that fact he was just recovering from indulging to excess in liquor, for Poe was naturally a very neat man in his person, and dressed with great care even when poorest. Whenever you found him slovenly or careless in his dress, you knew that he was on a drinking bout or he had been on one. I said to him rather testily: 'You have been on another of your sprees.' 'Well,' he said, 'it is the last; I never intend going on another.' I said, 'I have heard that so often it has lost its force with me, but what can I do for you? what do you want?' 'Well,' said he, 'I don't know what to do; I am in a strait.' 'What is the matter?' 'Well, you see, they have invited me in Boston to deliver an original poem, and I have been in such a condition that I am unable to do it; I have got to go next week.' 'Well,' I said, 'write to them that you have been indisposed, because you have been (I consider it a case of disease in you), and postpone the event.' 'But,' said he, 'I want the money.' 'Well,' I said, 'you can't get the money without you earn it.' He said, 'I'll fix it,' and went off. The next thing I heard was that he went down to Boston and read 'Al Araaf,' a poem which he wrote when he was a young man (he said when he was a boy, but that is another of his figments). They were disappointed. It was not what they expected, but they treated him with great courtesy, gave him a supper, and, speaking under the influence of champagne and excitement, he let the facts out. Of course, they became very indignant, and when Poe came back he wrote an article in the *Broadway Journal* in which he assumed that he had gone there with this poem in order to test their acumen. He had not the least notion that he was doing anything wrong. He never had. Anything that he did was right, regardless of its morality, or lack of it; and everything he said was true to him, however false it might be. I could cite numerous instances of his recklessness of assertion and bold statement without basis. In morals, as I have said before, he was an idiot. . . ."

Yours, etc., W. M. Griswold.

Notes.

Dr. Elliott Coues's edition of the 'Expeditions of Zebulon Montgomery Pike to the Headwaters of the Mississippi River, the Interior Parts of Louisiana, Mexico, and Texas, in the Years 1805-6-7' is now definitely set down by the publisher, Francis G. Harper, for appearance in the early fall. The reprint will be in three volumes, and Dr. Coues's pious labors have more than doubled the original matter. His annotations have been as minute and painstaking as in the case of his Lewis & Clark, with which the later publication will be uniform in style. The plates of the edition of 1810 will be reproduced in facsimile, and there will be added a folding historico geographical map of the Upper Mississippi. Only 1,500 copies will be printed, in two styles.

Macmillan & Co. announce a new series of "Royal Naval Handbooks," to be edited by Commander C. N. Robinson, author of 'The British Fleet.' First on the list is 'Naval Administration and Organization,' by Admiral Sir Vesey Hamilton.

Archibald Constable & Co., London, have in preparation 'Icebound on Kolguev,' Russia's Arctic island, by Aubyn Trevor-Battye, with numerous illustrations, and a work on Nicaragua by Archibald Colquhoun, author of 'In the Shan Country.'

'Modern Opera-houses and Theatres' is the title of a sumptuous work in three volumes with 220 plates which Messrs. Edwin O. Sachs and E. A. E. Woodrow propose to publish through B. T. Batsford, 94 High Holborn, London. It is to contain descriptions with plans, etc., of all the best of the recent European playhouses; but the prospectus does not suggest any inclusion of American theatres, some of which certainly are worthy of insertion—the Metropolitan Opera-house, the Casino, and the Madison Square Theatre in New York, and the Auditorium in Chicago, for example.

M. François Descoste, who was one of the earliest of the "Ralliés," and who published in 1893 two volumes on the 'Jeunesse de Joseph de Maistre,' which were crowned by the French Academy, will bring out this month a new work in which he continues his previous studies. This will be entitled 'Joseph de Maistre pendant la Révolution,' and it will contain some unpublished letters which display great perspicacity on the part of De Maistre. He predicted the course of the Revolution with remarkable accuracy, and as early as 1796 called Bonaparte the future King of France.

A new volume of the 'Journal' of the Goncourts, the eighth, will appear during the present month. This, unlike its predecessors, will see the light first as a volume, and not in the form of feuilletons; M. de Goncourt being of opinion that his work has been made to seem more fragmentary than it really is through its appearance in instalments. In order to avoid the annoyance which some of the later volumes gave to M. Alphonse Daudet, the author has read the notes of the present 'Journal' to his friend, who repays the civility by lavish praise of the new book.

A book of Charles Baudelaire's, hitherto unknown, will soon appear. The good luck of such a find as that of an authentic manuscript of the author of the 'Fleurs du Mal' fell to the lot of M. Félix Grélot and Professor Mainard of the Collège Chaptal. They discovered and bought it at a public sale. 'Les Mœurs et Coutumes de la Belgique' is the title of it, and it is said to treat the Flemings, men and women, with harsh and brutal satire.

M. Paul Bourget has had much trouble in the choice of a name for his new novel. M. Huysmans forestalled him in the use of 'En Route,' and when he thought to fall back on 'En Marche,' he found that that title also had been advertised some time ago in the announcement of a forthcoming volume by Mme. Séverine. So he is still *à la mer*, if one may venture to say so.

The Appletons have brought out a handy Spanish-English and English-Spanish dictionary—a much-abridged Velazquez. So far as our tests go, no sources have been consulted except the larger Velazquez, as we discover nothing changed in the abridgment except the accentuation; this has properly been made to conform to the Academy's new rules. There is a new sub-title, making claim to "the latest scientific, military, commercial, technical, and nautical terms," but we perceive no enlargement in these lines. The necessary brevity of definition and almost entire absence of idiomatic phrases would often make this little volume a blind guide to beginners in Spanish; but for a traveller's ready reference and quick handling it is well adapted, and its clear print and neat binding are attractive.

As Meinhold's 'Amber Witch,' in Lady Duff-Gordon's excellent translation, has now been before the English-speaking public for fifty years, and as Messrs. Nutt & Co. (London) feel justified in reproducing it in a very handsome illustrated edition, we may presume that criticism has pronounced its final verdict upon it, and that it has the *Genius* (in the Roman sense) without which, as Martial tells us, a book cannot hope to live. It is a little surprising, considering the romantic possibilities and fascinations of horror involved in the witch superstition, that romancers have not made more of it. In fact, Balzac and Hawthorne excepted, we cannot at the moment remember any novelist of really great powers who has made it the motive of fiction. And when it has been handled, it has usually been approached from the wrong side; the romancer taking the modern view, and implying his indignation at the dense stupidity, irrationality, and horrible cruelty which the modern mind sees in the whole thing. But the higher artistic possibilities lie in the treatment from the opposite point of view—that of the thorough witch-believer, to whom humanity is, in very terrible truth, environed by the powers of darkness, and a trifling neglect, a hasty expression, or the malignity of a crippled old crone, may unlock a postern and let the world of horror burst in. It is from this point of view that Meinhold, as Pastor Schweidler, has treated his subject, and it is this that makes his narrative so effective.

A third edition of M. Gaston Paris's 'La Poésie du Moyen-Âge' having been called for, the distinguished philologist thought himself justified not only in issuing it, but in adding a second volume of the work under the same

title (Paris: Hachette), for which all students of literature will be deeply thankful. Two only of the articles in this volume have been composed since 1885, the date of the publication of the first volume, the others ranging from 1871 to 1884. The subjects of these articles vary; "La Littérature Française au XII^e siècle," "L'Esprit Normand en Angleterre," "La Poésie Française au XV^e siècle," being among the most interesting. That on "Les Contes Orientaux" will be read with pleasure in connection with the discussion of the question of their origin in Bédier's 'Les Fabliaux,' reviewed in these columns two years ago. It is gratifying to find M. Paris setting his face like a flint against that wrong-headed chauvinism, one of the forms of protection, which is at the present time seeking to keep out of French literature all foreign influences, even though Sarcey and Lemaître, and occasionally Larroumet, are among its promoters and defenders. "The intellectual world," he says, "is the world of free trade, and the more one imports, the more is one likely to export." These pages of his preface are pregnant with truth.

'La Fortune Privée à travers sept siècles' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.), by Viscount G. d'Avenel, is a summary of his large and important work, 'Histoire Économique de la Propriété, des Salaires, des Denrées et de tous les Prix en général, depuis l'an 1200 jusqu'en l'an 1800.' In this summary the subject is treated no less exactly but more popularly, with the view of placing the results of M. d'Avenel's investigations within the reach of a larger circle of readers. He has the art of making matter which, from the necessary accumulation of facts, risks being dry, quite attractive.

A few years ago Michael Bernays resigned his professorship in the University of Munich and retired to Carlsruhe for the purpose of devoting himself exclusively to literary studies. The first fruit of this leisure is a work entitled "Schriften zur Kritik und Literaturgeschichte," in four volumes, the first of which, 'Zur neueren Literaturgeschichte,' has just appeared (Stuttgart: Göschen). More than one-half of this volume is given to a criticism of Voltaire's tragedy "Mahomet" and Goethe's rather free version of it. The title of this essay, "Der französische und der deutsche Mahomet," conveys a very inadequate conception of the richness and variety of the contents. It is, in fact, an admirable dissertation on the genius of Voltaire, keenly analytical and remarkably suggestive, and showing vast reading thoroughly assimilated. The same broad and truly scholarly treatment characterizes also the shorter discussions of "Goethe's Relations to Walter Scott," "Schiller's Letters to Dalberg," the originals of which are in the University Library at Munich, and "Goethe's and Schiller's Correspondence." Prof. Bernays exhibits a familiarity with the whole range of modern literature, American as well as European. On p. 314 he shows that Buckle's comment on Voltaire's tragedies is taken from Auger's article in the 'Biographie Universelle,' and on pp. 330–33 that a famous verse of four lines in Voltaire's "Alzire" is the almost literal translation of a passage in Rowe's "Tamerlane."

Three new English magazines make their first appearance this month. We have already received *Chapman's Magazine* (published by Chapman & Hall, and edited by the firm's manager, Mr. Oswald Crawfurd), which will confine itself to fiction, without illustrations. The first issue contains a short story by Anthony Hope, a romantic drama by Stanley Weyman, and the first chapters of a serial by Bret Harte. The *Twentieth Century*, "of the familiar half-crown type," will include literary and dramatic criticisms, and among its first contributors are Sir Edwin Arnold and Lord Byron. The *Catholic Magazine* has Lady Annabel Kerr for editor, and promises, for the popular price of sixpence, fiction, literary and religious matter, with pictorial accompaniments. Among its contributors are Lady Burton, Canon Barry, Mrs. Gilbert (Rosa Mulholland), and Mr. C. Kegan Paul.

A late number of the *Westminster Gazette* devotes nearly two columns to the "Football Butcher's Bill" in the United Kingdom for the past season, premising that the cases particularized "do not represent one-tenth part of the accidents." Analysis shows that there were 20 deaths, 53 fractures of the leg, 11 of the arm, 26 of the collar-bone, besides 68 severe injuries of various kinds. "Another distinguishing and peculiarly unpleasant feature of the football play of this season has been the increasing tendency of players and the public to visit their disappointments upon the referee."

Mr. Herbert Welsh will have entire control of a new four-page weekly, *City and State*, which adds another to the list of municipal reformatory publications so numerous at the present time. It will be issued from No. 1305 Arch Street, Philadelphia.

The *American Journal of Science*, now nearing the end of its third series and seventy-eighth year, presents in its current (May) issue a sketch of the late Prof. James Dwight Dana, with a bibliography, and a frontispiece portrait —a fine old Yankee face, comparable in science to Emerson's in ideality.

Visitors to the museum of the Royal United Service Institution at Whitehall, described by our London correspondent last week, will take increased interest in the building—the old Banqueting House—if they peruse the April number of the *Portfolio*. Mr. W. J. Loftie, with much antiquarian industry (not so sure-footed as to dispense with liberal conjecture), and with much intemperate zeal for the cause of Charles the First, exhibits the extent of the palace of Whitehall at the time of its partial destruction by fire, and the two ambitious designs for its rebuilding by Inigo Jones, who would have made of it the largest building in the world. A portrait of this famous architect and copies of old prints illustrate the narrative in a satisfactory manner. The most surprising revelation is, that while the Banqueting House was built with window-spaces, these were not pierced and glazed till a very recent period. "The ground-floor windows were opened first for the United Service Institution." The royal martyr was taken out to be beheaded through a hole knocked in one of the window-spaces.

The One Hundredth Bulletin of the Boston Public Library contains a chronological index of Norse historical fiction, including Denmark, the titles of works by and relating to Goethe, and a catalogue of the Thayer Library. This is the gift of four sisters, and consists of 5,269 volumes, chiefly "works of history and illustrative biography, some of which are rare and valuable." A great number of the volumes are "extended" by the insertion of portraits and plates. An idea of the collection may be gained from the fact that there are seventy-six titles under Theodore Parker. The illustrations of the Bulletin are a series of seven views taken from the State House in 1858, together with a view of the front of the building.

The annual report of the Geological Survey of New Jersey for 1893 contains an interesting chapter by Salisbury and Kümmel on Lake Passaic, a body of water once held between the Newark or Watchung Mountains and the Highlands, when the present outlet of the included lowland was blocked on the north by the ice of the glacial period. The existence of the lake was indicated in Cook's report for 1880; it is now more definitely traced by means of its shore-lines and deltas. During the greatest advance of the ice, an immense morainic embankment was built in front of it, forming the transverse ridge from Morristown eastward. As the ice melted northward, various shore benches were built. They now no longer stand level, but ascend slightly to the north, rising 67 feet in 25 miles, thus indicating a northward elevation of the land since the disappearance of the lake. The outlet of the lake was by a notch in the trap ridge near its southwest end, now 331 feet above sea-level. The discussion is well illustrated by a large-scale map, by far the most elaborate representation of a feature of this kind yet published in this country. It is worth noting that the investigation was facilitated and the conclusions firmly established through that mapping of the surface geology of the State which the Survey has initiated, and in which it is a pioneer. The report concludes with a detailed list of minerals of New Jersey and notes of mineral localities, in the interest of investors and prospectors; this will be elaborated and republished if found of practical value.

The Senatus of Aberdeen University has resolved to confer, at its forthcoming commencement, the degree of LL.D. on a woman. The distinguished recipient of this unusual honor, Miss Jane E. Harrison, is already a member of the council of the Society for the Promotion of Hellenic Studies, presided over by Prof. Jebb of Cambridge, and is an accepted authority on Greek archæology, notably vases. It will be remembered that Columbia College, at its centenary in 1887, conferred the honorary degree of L.H.D. on Miss Amelia B. Edwards, in recognition of her studies in Egyptology; but Miss Harrison will be, we believe, the first woman to receive such a degree from any British University. In international accord with this action of the University of Aberdeen comes the announcement that an English student, Miss Grace Chisolm, has received from the University of Göttingen a Ph.D. degree in mathematics, likewise stated to be "the first degree conferred on a lady by a German university." Miss Chisolm, a daughter of the former warden of the Standards, had previously won first-class honors in mathematics at both Oxford and Cambridge, without, of course, any chance of a degree.

The University Extension Summer Meeting will be held in the buildings of the University of Pennsylvania, July 1-26. There will be a session of the department of Civics and Politics, with lectures from three to four hours daily. The director is Mr. Edward T. Devine, 111 South Fifteenth Street, Philadelphia.

—The reader of President Hyde's 'Outlines of Social Theology' (Macmillan) would be sure to think the author very young, for all his "semilunar fardels," were it not that before now old men have renewed their youth when drinking of the new wine of Hegel. The President of Bowdoin is one of many who are delighted with that vintage, and also one of those who seem to have learned nothing from those "fine days for theology," as Strauss called them, when Hegel himself rejoiced in his system like a conjurer in his bottle, and produced from it the whole body of the Lutheran theology, and even the Lutheran consubstantiation. When,

a little later, Feuerbach proceeded to produce from the same system his atheistic 'Essence of Christianity' with equal facility and as good warrant, the wiser began to suspect that here was the prophet's compass, "which, when I had taken it in my hand, did turn whichever way I would." Ignorant or forgetful of all this, many, since then, have found in the Hegelian metaphysic the rationale of their orthodox theology. As time goes on, "the form of sound doctrine" gets to be more and more purely formal, less and less sound. Dr. Hyde carries himself in quite an orthodox fashion, and has grave admonitions for heretics of various names, but his own doctrine, stripped of all disguises, resembles the traditional orthodoxy far less than it resembles the heresies which it deplores. His Christianity is a neo-Christianity, its several doctrines such as would have cost him his "good and regular standing" in any evangelical church fifty or even twenty years ago. But we have changed all that. Dr. Hyde will not be tried for heresy, and he will get more praise than blame from the traditionalist organs for his ingenious device for keeping up appearances. It should be said that both his general ideas and his neo-Christian doctrines are often reasonable and impressive, but the connection of the latter with the former is purely arbitrary. The conclusion is not in the premises. Hegel did not find the facts more plastic to the idea in his 'Natur-Philosophie' than Dr. Hyde has found those of historical Christianity. Evidently his studies have not taken him in the direction of New Testament criticism. His conception of Jesus is purely subjective—what "social theology" demands, and not what criticism requires. The whole thing is prophetic of the opposition with which a consistent rationalism will have to deal in the near future—an opposition essentially rational, but masquerading in the clothes it has inherited from former generations.

—M. Albert Vandal has just brought to an end the very curious and interesting series of letters of Napoleon which he has been publishing in the *Revue Bleue* in the numbers running from March 30 to April 20. These letters were written in 1808-9 by Napoleon I. to his ambassador in Russia, Caulaincourt, Duke of Vicenza, and until now have been sought for fruitlessly. M. Vandal himself made a long and patient search after them at the time when he was engaged on his 'Napoléon et Alexandre I^{er},' but all in vain, though he, or his correspondents, ransacked public and private archives throughout France and Russia. Caulaincourt's letters were found, but only one brief note, and a fragment of a letter of Napoleon's. M. Vandal, then, had to gather the Emperor's thoughts and plans as best he might from such portions of them as were quoted in the ambassador's replies. A little while ago, however, some papers left by the Count de la Ferronnays, who was ambassador in Russia under the Restoration, were intrusted to M. Costa de Beauregard for a literary purpose. Among these was a *dossier* containing the long-missing letters. It is likely that these were still in the Russian archives at the time when the Count de la Ferronnays was ambassador at St. Petersburg, and that he had them copied for his private collection of state papers. There is no possible doubt of their authenticity.

—The dates of February 2, 1808, and April 10, 1809, mark the beginning and the end of this correspondence. The story that is told is of the course and the ending of the flirtation with the Emperor Alexander which Napoleon began at Tilsit. On the French side, indeed, it seems to have been much more than a flirtation. Napoleon would have been glad to make of Russia the pivot on which his European policy should turn. He even seems to have considered seriously his old dream of the conquest of the East by means of a Franco-Russian alliance. He had captivated Alexander at Tilsit, and he strove by every means to maintain his supremacy over that (as he thought) changeable and flighty soul. So he sent Caulaincourt, a man greatly in his confidence, to St. Petersburg, and wrote him with his own hand, constantly, the most minute directions. Courier after courier bore instructions how best to flatter Alexander's wishes, or dissipate his fears, or excite his hopes. Everybody knows how the attempt failed. The Spanish rose; Austria, unchecked by Russia, attacked; Alexander refused to Napoleon his sister's hand, and so the mirage faded. Besides their historic interest, these letters show once more that amazing mastery of details which was characteristic of the genius of Napoleon.

—The fourth volume of Dr. Hans Blum's 'Fürst Bismarck und seine Zeit' (Munich: Beck) records the history of four eventful years from the formation of the North German Confederation in 1867 to the ratification of the Peace of Frankfort and the close of the first session of the Imperial Diet in 1871. The volume begins with an account of the visit of King William to the Paris Exposition in June, 1867, accompanied by the crown prince, Moltke, and Bismarck, who was made the special object of hostile demonstrations on the part of the Parisian populace. Napoleon, however, showed him marked attention, and even consulted him as to the propriety of introducing parliamentary institutions into France. Bismarck advised him to do so, but at the same time warned him that such a conciliatory measure would not suffice to preserve and perpetuate his power, which could be effected only by a strong and well-disciplined imperial guard, wholly devoted to his interests. Bismarck was convinced that the chief danger of war would arise from the desire of the French Emperor to impart strength and stability to a rootless and rickety dynasty, and that the best means of maintaining peace would be to make him feel that he was firmly seated on his throne and could turn a deaf ear to chauvinistic clamor. The French prime minister, Marquis de Moustier, held himself aloof from these discussions, remembering doubtless the sharp retort which he had received in 1855, when, as French ambassador in Berlin, he ventured to criticise the course of Prussian politics and to suggest that it might lead to Jena. "Why not to Leipzig and Waterloo?" was Bismarck's ready reply. The publication in parallel columns (p. 247) of the original Ems despatch and Bismarck's condensation of it is a complete refutation of the charge that Bismarck provoked the war by the falsification of this important document. The account of what occurred in the interview of Benedetti with the King of Prussia is essentially the same in both papers; Bismarck added nothing and omitted only a few circumlocutional and superfluous phrases, but his terser version of the facts set them forth in a clearer and stronger light, and sent a thrill of patriotic indignation and enthusiasm through the whole German people from the Alps to the Baltic, so that Moltke was perfectly justified in exclaiming: "Before, it was a *chamade*, now it is a *fanfare!*"

—Blum gives a concise and cursory sketch of the war of 1870, making only casual mention of military movements and feats of arms, but dwelling on diplomatic incidents and other occurrences more or less personal to Bismarck. During the discussion of the Luxemburg question in the French Chamber, Thiers made a speech in which he declared that the political unity of Germany was a menace to French power and prestige, and that to sow dissension between the German States and to keep them divided had been "the inviolate policy of France since the days of Louis XIV." When Jules Favre came as a negotiator of peace, and asked, in a melancholy and injured tone, with whom Germany was waging war now after the battle of Sedan and the fall of the Empire, Bismarck, remembering Thiers's remark, replied, "With Louis XIV." The answer also clearly implied that one of the conditions of peace would be the reclamation and recovery of Alsace and Lorraine, which that monarch had annexed to France. At a parliamentary soirée given by Bismarck on July 12, 1869, the Bavarian delegate, Dr. Joseph Völk, expressed his surprise that Prussia had not resented, *vi et armis*, the provocations of France in the Luxemburg affair. Bismarck paused for a moment and then said: "I have passed a long and painful week in thinking over this question of a war with France. Not that I fear defeat, for Moltke assures us that we shall conquer. The point to decide was whether we should enter upon such a conflict even with the certainty of victory, and we resolved not to wage war unless forced to do so. We have considered the immense losses and the sorrow and distress brought upon thousands of families. Believe me, gentlemen, I have a heart as feeling as yours. War is always war. The misery of the countries it devastates, the anguish of widows and orphans—all this is so terrible that, for my part, I should never resort to it except in a case of extreme necessity." Numerous instances are given of Bismarck's kindness of heart as shown in his care for the comfort of the common soldier and especially of the sick and wounded.

—The spirit of Fichte and Vom Stein is not moving the powers which guide the destinies of popular education in Prussia at the present time. According to statistics gathered from the *Pädagogische Zeitung* (Berlin), the leading State of Germany is sadly behind the middle and small States in the care for her common schools. While in Bavaria 13,500 classes, in round numbers, are in charge of 13,600 teachers, aside from over 10,000 special teachers of religion, drawing, singing, etc., there are in Prussia only 70,000 teachers to 82,700 classes, and the number of children under one teacher is sixty in the former and seventy in the latter state. In 1891 the average salary of the Prussian common-school teachers was 1,203 marks, inclusive of all perquisites, and their condition has not been bettered since then; in Bavaria, in 1892, the average income, exclusive of perquisites, amounted to 1,496 marks. In Prussia 30,730 teachers receive less than 1,050 marks (7,600 less than 650 marks, and many of these less than 540), while the minimum figures in the minor States are as follows: Baden, 1,100 to 2,000, according to years of service; Saxony, 1,000 to 1,800; Hesse, 1,000 to 1,600; Saxe-Weimar, 950 to 1,600; Saxe-Gotha, 880 to 1,630; Saxe-Meiningen, 1,000 to 1,800; and in the little State of Anhalt, 1,100 to 2,100. Compulsory attendance at the *Fortbildungsschulen*, which receive the children after the completion of the course in the *Volksschule* and

provide for further instruction from the fourteenth to the sixteenth or even the eighteenth year, is well-nigh an accomplished fact in Saxony, Hesse, Baden, and Saxe-Weimar, while Wirtemberg and Bavaria are not far behind. If a similar requirement existed in Prussia, some 1,800,000 children would be found in these institutions; the actual number, however, is insignificant. There are no recent statistics on the subject, but in 1890 the attendance in the rural schools of this class was little over 11,000, and in the budget for 1895–96 only 30,000 marks is set down for this item. In Bavaria 344,500 children receive instruction during their fifteenth and sixteenth years. The tone in which the above-mentioned organ of the German Teachers' Association discusses the questions of popular education in the fatherland is on the whole admirable in its moderation, independence, and evident conviction of the full import of the deplorable situation.

SAMUEL J. TILDEN.

The Life of Samuel J. Tilden. By John Bigelow, LL.D. Harpers. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. 416, 442. 1895.

Mr. Bigelow's long and close intimacy with Tilden, and his own large experience in politics and in authorship, made him naturally the literary executor of his friend, as he was a trustee of his estate. The resulting biography, now before us, has an assured historical value corresponding to the importance of Mr. Tilden's career by reason, first, of his efforts at municipal reform in the city of New York, next of a similarly wholesome movement in the State, and finally of the memorable contest for the Presidency of the nation in 1876. It raises, moreover, an interesting psychological problem, when the question is asked how he came to be the factor he was in the stirring events of a critical time in the history of his city, his State, his country. What was the physical, moral, and intellectual make-up of the man by which he was fitted to take so prominent, and in the main so honorable, a part as a leader of the best elements of his party in administrative reforms?

The crisis in Tilden's life was, of course, the Hayes-Tilden contest for the Presidency. Before that time he seemed to have been called from the work of a successful and industrious lawyer to sudden glory as the leader of a great popular movement to rescue the city and the State from the fangs of Tweed rings and Canal rings. He was carried on the crest of the wave of popular favor, and was made the leader of his party by a fiat which the political managers of the time had no choice but to obey. If Tilden had any capacity for the enjoyment of gratified and honorable ambition (and this seems to have been the strongest sentiment in his nature), the two or three years before 1876 were the fruition and the satisfaction of his life.

The canvass for the Presidency and the struggle over the counting of the vote opened a period of detraction and vilification which, no doubt, wretchedly embittered the life of both Tilden and Hayes for several years, and left painful wounds which were never wholly healed while they lived. These two men, whose personal lives were pure and who were both singularly free from the vices, grave or petty, which cast stains on private reputations, were yelped down by the dogs of partisan politics till they stood at bay, breathless if not despairing, and might themselves well doubt their own consciousness of honorable purpose, and wonder whether they were not, without knowing it, the vilest of men. One side of this horrible picture Mr. Bigelow has given with full detail, backed by the voluminous documentary support which Congressional investigations and blue-books can give. We wish he had regarded his task more completely that of the historian, and, as he has discriminated between the acts and purposes of Mr. Tilden himself and those of the less scrupulous agents of his party, had judged with equal discrimination in regard to the moral attitude of Tilden's opponent. But to this we shall recur.

Mr. Tilden's physical and mental constitution was peculiar from his childhood. Born of the stock of English colonists of New England and New York, his ancestors for two or three generations were farmers in the lovely valley of the upper Hudson, and he was the first of his stock to exchange country life for a professional career. Severe illness in early childhood left him with a weakened digestive system, and the consequent lack of full nutrition kept him all his life frail in body, and made his existence a long regimen of medication and careful diet. As often happens in such cases, the active brain outruns the body, and the boy who is excluded from the romping pleasures of youth grows precociously old in appearance and manner, and has, according to the old saw, a "gray head on green shoulders." Part of this is only manner, and is due to the constant association with grown people. In Tilden's case, however, the brain itself was of uncommon fibre, and the matter of his thought as well as his fashion of expressing it showed uncommon maturity. He was didactic from the cradle, and seemed impelled to analyze all the problems of life and conduct, and to formulate elaborate judgments for the guidance of himself and others. The gravity with which such children will lay down the law has something comical in it, growing out of the contrast between their lack of experience and their solemn unconsciousness of the need of it to justify their sweeping conclusions. But the crude egotism of youth is soon tempered by contact with the world, and, in Tilden's case, ceased to be offensive while it still remained "odd." Its traces were seen all his life in a tendency to lecture his audience, in the instructive and not in the fault-finding sense. He was sometimes prolix, always seriously argumentative, never oratorical or eloquent; but his matter was pretty sure to have weight and to command the attention of intelligent listeners.

His education was imperfect, for his delicate health interrupted his systematic studies; and although he began a college course at Yale, he spent less than a year in the college, and did not graduate. His zeal in politics was such, however, that although the boy was only a preparatory student in the academic course, he was already discussing political questions with Van Buren and writing practical advice in political conduct for the use of Jackson. He kept up this sort of touch with affairs during life, and both through the newspapers and in pamphlets and letters intended for circulation he loved to give his views on each new situation, even when he wholly refused to accept office or to seek the usual rewards of political activity.

His work at the bar was distinctively characteristic of his mental constitution. His mind was strongly analytic. His strength was shown most strikingly when, in a great mass of facts or of conflicting testimony, he applied his powerful analysis until the true and the false were exposed, and the material things were brought together in an impregnable array, to which simple legal principles were applied with the most telling effect. This power of finding a simple clue to the true theory in the midst of nebulous masses of conflicting statements often had the effect of genius, when it was, in fact, only a sagacious application of laborious and systematic analysis. This talent and power of work was of supreme value in unravelling the complicated affairs of corporations, detecting maladministration through the entangled business of years, furnishing at once the detection of the causes of ruin and the clue to a more hopeful management. He came to be looked upon as a sort of wizard who had magical powers of insight into that which was blind to others. There arose an extraordinary demand for his services, and his professional income surpassed anything before known at the American bar. A judicious and fortunate investment of it made him a rich man.

In all this his methods were those of an almost scientific induction, free from the seductions of eloquent advocacy, if not destitute of the graces of voice and of manner. He was always the equity barrister rather than the jury advocate. Even before a jury he treated the twelve men in the box as he would the chancellor, and made his impression by his lucid simplification of involved matters and his logical application of established legal principles.

His lack of the emotional was seen in every phase of his life. He cared little for poetry; fact, and not fancy, satisfied him. He did not marry, partly, no doubt, because his frail health furnished prudential reasons for the life of a social anchorite, but partly also because he lacked the warmer sympathies which lead to love. His seemed to be a somewhat cold intelligence, but he seems also to have been just, to have admired honesty, to have been true to principle, and to have had high courage when courage was not easy to find. All these qualities were shown in the victorious fight with the Tweed ring and the Canal ring, and he had fairly won the reputation of a fearless as well as a most able leader of reform at a time when scoundrels in power seemed so strong as to make it suicidal to attack them.

Such was the man and such the circumstances when he was made Governor of the State and the candidate of his party for the Presidency. The notorious scandals of Grant's Administration made a loud demand for reform in national affairs. Liberal Republicans hoped to secure it by the election of a reformer tested and tried within the party. Liberal Democrats secured the nomination of Tilden as one whose record was good security for an inflexible rule of good government in the Presidential office. In politics Tilden had been a "Barnburner" in 1848, and had supported Van Buren and Adams. In 1860 he still believed in the manifest destiny of America to be "all free," but fear of the consequences of secession and dread of civil war kept him in the ranks of the Douglas Democrats. During the war he was a war Democrat, and after the war he was earnest in advocating full and final acceptance of the constitutional amendments establishing freedom.

Looking back at the events of 1876 in the light of a fuller knowledge, we can now see that there was no more danger of a reaction against liberty then, had Tilden been elected, than there was in 1884, when Cleveland was elected. The situation did not warrant great excitement, much less revolutionary measures. The questions were really administrative ones

and in no sense constitutional. It is, however, the nature of political controversies to exaggerate the importance of party success; and a great number of Republicans no doubt believed that the election of Tilden meant the loss of nearly all that was gained by the national triumph in the civil war. Feeling thus, they were prepared to be warped in their judgment of the means used to keep their party in power. This does not mean that they would applaud a false return or justify a forgery. It means that they could be easily misled by plausible assertions of unscrupulous managers, and easily blinded as to the real character of the things done by the returning-boards in Louisiana and Florida under the direction and advice of prominent Northern politicians.

Mr. Bigelow has conceived his office as biographer to be that of an advocate for Mr. Tilden and the Democratic party. He is a prosecutor, arraying the evidence of fraud and wrong in the elections in the contested States, in the making up of the returns, in the final count under the decisions of the Electoral Commission. He feels at liberty to ignore the history of the country and of the Southern States from the close of the war to the election of November, 1876. He thinks it enough to show that Mr. Tilden refused personally to authorize attempts to purchase electoral votes that were said to be in the market. At the same time he feels at liberty to hold President Hayes responsible, on the sole evidence of his accepting the office awarded him by the Electoral Commission, for all the detailed frauds and crimes that were committed in New Orleans or Tallahassee. This is not judicial; it does not even represent the settled public opinion which has gradually grown up, as time has quieted passions and given to men of average intelligence a better perspective of the contest of 1876 and the events which led to it. The significance of Mr. Tilden's life is almost wholly in its relation to history in a critical period. His biographer throws away his opportunity to become an authoritative interpreter of those events when he hesitates to take the historical view, and ignores the wrongs on both sides which led to the shocking demoralization of the time.

The civil war ended in the disfranchisement of the dominant and intelligent class in the South. Their struggle to regain leadership and political power was more or less revolutionary. The enfranchisement of millions of uneducated freedmen made them the tools of unscrupulous adventurers, and led to a saturnalia of misgovernment and peculation. This abuse of the governing and taxing power induced a resort to terrorism and "Kukluxism" as a corrective, because the white property-holders could not by legitimate means throw off the yoke. Kukluxism and the appeals to terror led the weaker and less intelligent into every manner of fraudulent stratagem to keep power. Each party could point to real abuses. No party ever did evil that good may come without finding that the slippery downward path led to anarchy, and to vulgar individual crimes of every name and nature, from robbery and embezzlement to forgery and murder. It is only mockery to show the obverse of the medal and refuse to exhibit the other side.

For the men who took part in conscious wrong doing, history will not have mercy. The "visiting statesmen" must stand in the pillory they have erected for themselves, and the only pertinent question will be as to the full extent of their guilty knowledge. Here, however, the biographer, by taking the partial view, weakens his case. As he insists, with justice, that Mr. Tilden is not to be held morally responsible for attempted purchase of corrupt electors by agents whom he disavowed, so he is bound to bring no similar railing accusation against Mr. Hayes without definite evidence of personal complicity with wrong. It is well enough to argue in regard to the vulgar herd of corrupt tools, that promise in advance to "take care of them," followed by appointments afterward to salaried offices, makes a good case of purchase. But to argue that the transfer of John Sherman from the Senate to the Treasury Department was a bargained reward for his visit to New Orleans is ridiculous. So, to say that Garfield's election to the Senate by the Ohio Legislature, and his subsequent nomination and election to the Presidency in 1880, were a similar payment for similar services rendered is equally absurd. The history of those political events contradicts the theory, and no contracting party is strong enough to warrant specific performance of such a bargain if any one were fool enough to make it. The responsibility of the statesmen named may be grave enough, and the task of their biographers may be no light one; but Mr. Bigelow has done much to make it easier by offering so weak an issue for debate.

The historian's point of view will include the general corruption of politics, and the substitution of venal combinations to secure the offices, with their power and profit, for the patriotic organizations to carry out a large public policy for the general good. It will recognize the fact that returning-boards have not been confined to the Gulf States, but have been organized in nearly every Legislature of the Union, and in Congress; for the election committees of these bodies have scarcely pretended to disguise their purpose of "counting in" their own political friends in open contempt of the evidence of honest election. Reformers have demanded in vain that contested elections shall be decided by judicial bodies acting upon judicial evidence. The "counting in" of Gov. Turney by the Democratic majority of the Tennessee Legislature the other day is only the most recent example of the widespread need of the application of the methods of honest business to politics.

While we thus treat Mr. Bigelow's arraignment of the frauds of 1876 as a one-sided statement that does not rise to the plane of history, we must still reiterate the truth that it claims serious and thoughtful attention from every man who loves his country, and who desires, in the words of the reformers of 1876, "to make this a pure government once more."

THE MIGRATION OF SYMBOLS.—I.

The Migration of Symbols. By the Count Goblet d'Alviella. With an introduction by Sir George Birdwood. London: Constable & Co. 1894.

VARIOUS significations attach to the word symbol. As here employed, it means whatever so represents a person or thing, by general agreement or by analogy, that its presence alone may evoke the conception of the other. The cross stands for Christianity; the flag for one's country. Religious sentiment especially makes large use of symbols; those which have served as the figured representations of divinities have always commanded the highest degree of veneration. Such material vestiges of their beliefs transmitted to us by past generations form the subject-matter of this remarkable volume, the fruit of exhaustive labor expended in bringing together the latest discoveries in ethnography and archæology, in history and philology.

There is a kind of symbolism so natural as to be common to the human race—a disk for the sun, a crescent for the moon; possibly this is true of even more complicated analogies—a tree for human life, or an equilateral cross for the four directions of space. On the other hand, the borrowing of symbols is the commonest thing possible. Soldiers take their religious symbols with themselves to foreign lands; coins propagate them over immense distances. Egyptian scarabs are found from Sardinia to Mesopotamia, carried by the armies of the Pharaohs or the ships of the Phœnicians. To determine whether analogous symbols were produced independently, or were derived from the same source, we must look chiefly at the intricacy and singularity of the forms.

The earliest monumental forms of religious symbols are found to be but few in number. Of the most important of them the history is traced by our author, one by one, first among particular peoples, and then over the whole area of countries where they are found. His main purpose, however, has been to investigate the limits within which such symbols have been disseminated, and to discover how far in the course of their wanderings their meaning as well as their form may have been modified. Symbolical figures may have a common origin without necessarily having the same meaning; and they may differ in appearance and yet be genealogically connected. All this is what the title chosen for the book is intended to imply. The conclusion drawn is, that such religious symbols as are common to the different historical races of mankind have not originated among them independently, but have been carried from one to the other, either in the course of their migrations, or by conquest, or by commerce. There are but few exceptions to this rule, the truth of which is demonstrated by an overwhelming induction of instances ancient and modern.

There is, to be sure, another whole class of symbols, consisting in acts or rites, which are not touched upon in the present work. As already intimated, our author has confined himself to figured representations; and of these only such are specially investigated as from their importance or their complexity seem most likely to shed light on the general conditions that govern their transmission. These principal forms, as has been said, are but few in number. The most important are the Gammadion, or Swastica, a cross with its extremities bent at a right angle; the sacred tree of the Assyrians; the sacred cone of the western Semitic peoples; the Crux Ansata of the Egyptians, a cross surmounted by a handle; the winged globe of the Egyptians; the Caduceus, or winged rod, of the Phœnicians; and the Trisula, or trident, of the Buddhists. In our limited space we can do little more than present some of our author's conclusions in regard to these principal figures, so far as it is possible without the help of the illustrations, which form one of the charming features of the book; and we must of necessity pass over much of interest to be found in the vast mass of materials collected by him relating to other emblems.

The Gammadion is so named from its being a combination of the Greek gamma four times repeated. It is the most interesting as it is one of the most widely distributed of all the symbolical forms. It is found among all the nations of Europe and of Asia (with certain significant exceptions), in Africa, and in both the Americas. By the Anglo-Saxons it was called the *fylfot;* while in India it bears the name of the

swastica when the arms are bent to the right, and *sauwastica* when turned the opposite way. If the arms are rounded off while curving backwards, it takes the name of the *tetrascele*, or four-legged figure. From its constant presence upon altars, idols, priestly vestments, tombstones, and sepulchral urns, it is clear that it possessed the attribute of a talisman or amulet. Many have been the attempts to explain its mystical significance. It has been regarded as the symbol of fecundity, both as importing the union of the male and female principles, and as especially the symbol for the female sex; of water, from its resemblance to the meander, or Greek fret, from which it has been supposed by some to have been derived; of lightning, because it can be separated into two zigzags or interlaced Z's; and of fire, or rather of the fire-drill by which fire was generated by certain primitive races. But the tendency of recent investigators is to consider it a symbolical representation of the sun or of a solar divinity. This interpretation may be considered as substantially demonstrated, since Percy Gardner has discovered among the coins of the city of Mesembria in Thrace (a name signifying midday) one struck with the gammadion bearing in its open centre an image of the sun, and others stamped with the legend MEΣ, followed by the same symbol. The four branches are supposed to represent the solar rays in motion in the four directions of space. But the sun does not restrict itself to darting its rays in all directions; it seems also to be animated by a circular movement from east to west. To symbolize this a literal four-legged figure was sometimes employed, or the same thing was indicated by a three-legged figure, as the one form is found to run into the other.

The question naturally suggests itself, Where was the cradle of the gammadion, whence it was carried to the four corners of the Old World? In the attempt to solve this problem one thing, at all events, has been established: it is found to be almost the exclusive property of the Aryans. It occurs among all the Indo-European peoples (except the Persians); but it is completely wanting among the Egyptians, the Phœnicians, and the Mesopotamians. A reasonable explanation for this has been found in the supposition that the symbolism of those nations possessed other figures which discharged a similar function. The real talismanic cross of all those countries, stretching from Persia to Lybia, is the *crux ansata* of the Egyptian monuments; and their principal symbol of the sun is the winged globe. Where the gammadion predominates, neither of these symbols has ever taken root. A natural inference has been drawn from this that the gammadion is the survival of a symbolism of the common ancestor of the Aryans. Accordingly arguments based upon its predominance have been invoked towards the solution of the burning question of the Origin of the Aryans. Our author has provided a table in which he attempts to make out a genealogy for it upon alternative suppositions. According to this table the remotest periods to which it has been traced back are as it has been discovered by Schliemann at Hissarlik upon numerous whorls made of baked clay, and also in his excavations at Mycenæ, on the one hand; and, on the other, as it is found upon sepulchral urns of the so-called Villanova type, in certain cemeteries of northern Italy, classed as belonging to the early Iron Age. From this table it also appears that there have been two successive periods of the dispersal of the gammadion over the whole of Europe: one in prehistoric times, upon pottery with incised geometric decorations (the Villanova type); the other contemporaneous with the imitation of Greek coins. Now, which of those two periods, Hissarlik or the early Iron Age in northern Italy, is to be regarded as the earlier? In which direction did the current of emigration *via* the valleys of the Po and the Danube flow? Was it, as has been heretofore believed, westward at the time when the civilization of the Bronze Age was introduced into Europe, either by the Celts, according to Bertrand, or by the early Italians (Umbrians), as Helbig, Pigorini, and the Italians generally believe? Or was the emigration in the opposite direction, as maintained by those holding to the opinion, steadily growing in favor, that the Aryans originated in northern or central Europe, and spread thence in an easterly and southerly direction? If this were the case, Hissarlik and Mycenæ would be later than Villanova, and thus another burning question, the age of the so-called Mycenæan civilization, is opened up.

We think our author has not discriminated sufficiently in stating that the gammadion is found in Europe in the Bronze Age. That period is best represented by the *terremares* of Emilia, in the valley of the Po, and the gammadion has never been found upon the pottery of the terremares, although so stated by our author. This pottery has very marked characteristics easily recognizable; the most striking is a crescent-shaped handle. On the bottom, it is true, there are to be found various forms of the cross, chiefly equilateral; but these furnish no stronger argument for the presence of the gammadion than for the *crux ansata*. The fact is, that the gammadion does not occur in Italy earlier than in the well-known cemetery of Golasecca (or Sesto Calende), near the outflow of the Ticino from Lago Maggiore, and southward in the cemeteries characteristic of the early Iron Age, to be included among which is the one containing the peculiar "hut urn" shape, found under the lava on the Alban hills, near Albano. So, also, when our author makes the statement that the gammadion "occurs in the north and west of Europe, with objects of the Bronze period, . . . and seems to have been introduced into Germany, Denmark, Sweden, etc., in the same manner as that in which the Runic writing was brought from the Danube valley to the shore of the Baltic," surely he forgets that the Bronze Age in the north of Europe has been proved to be later than the Iron Age in Italy. As for the Runic writing, its introduction into the north was even as late as the sixth century B. C.

In Asia the gammadion occurs as early as upon a bas-relief at Ibriz, and upon a cylinder, both of which are regarded as belonging to the Hittite civilization; but it may very well have been derived by them from Hissarlik. In general the Hittite art seems not earlier than the ninth century B. C. Throughout the far East, in China and in Japan, the gammadion can be easily traced to the swastica of the Hindus; but how it came to the Hindus is a question quite as difficult as how it got to Europe. Our author inclines to the opinion that they derived it from the Caucasus, where an early civilization prevailed closely allied to the Mycenæan industrial and decorative type; but this still leaves a gap to be accounted for—why it is lacking among the ancient Persians. It still remains an archæological problem waiting for future discoveries.

In western Africa the gammadion has also been found upon some curious bronzes captured by the English from the Ashantees; and it occurs in both North and South America. Our author thinks it probably originated spontaneously among the Ashantees, and possibly upon this continent also, although he inclines to the opinion that the fact of its being employed as a religious symbol among the Pueblos implies an early communication between America and the Old World, probably by way of China or Japan. We fail to see much force in this argument upon the theory of its being a solar emblem. On the other hand, he has stated in a different connection that the pre-Columbian cross is a kind of compass-card, representing the four quarters of the heavens, from which come the four chief winds which bring the rain. This is the opinion that generally prevails among American archæologists, who have found a striking corroboration of it in an engraved shell gorget discovered in a mound in Mississippi. On this is inscribed an equilateral cross inside of a square, each of whose sides supports a bird's head turned in the same direction—the whole forming a veritable gammadion. In its simplest form two examples, made out of native copper hammered into a thin sheet, were found by Mr. Moorehead in the Hopewell mound in Ohio, as well as two others of a highly decorated pattern, in which a combination of secondary figures, circular, or resembling the petals of flowers, is set between the arms of the cross. All of these were exhibited at the World's Fair in Chicago and attracted a great deal of attention. When we bear in mind how essential to the support of human life over large portions of our continent was the maize-plant, it seems more natural to suppose that a religious symbol for the rain, on which its growth so much depends, originated here spontaneously, than to search for any foreign origin for it.

The Sacred Tree, one of the oldest of symbols, had its origin in Mesopotamia, one of the oldest civilized centres. From its simplest form, a stem divided at the base, surmounted by a fork or crescent, and furnished with cross-bars midway, it developed into a tree of varying species. Later it grew to be of a highly complex and ornate pattern, but it was invariably associated with religious subjects. Finally, it always stands between two living creatures facing each other. At first these were shapes of monsters, such as winged bulls or griffins, or real animals. Later they were human, or semi human, personages, priests or kings, in an attitude of devotion. The migration of both these types can be readily traced. The tree between two monsters or animals passed from Mesopotamia, on the one hand, to India, where it was employed by the Buddhists, and after them by Brahmanical sects, and it has continued in use in that country down to the present time. On the other hand, it passed to the Phœnicians and from Asia Minor to Greece. From the Persians, also, it was introduced, through the Byzantines, during the Middle Ages, into Christian symbolism in Sicily and Italy, and it even penetrated to the west of France. The other type, placed between two human, or semi-human, personages, followed the same route into India, China, and Eastern Asia. It is also to be found in ancient Mexican and Maya codices, and this our author regards as additional evidence of a pre-Columbian communication between the Old World and the New. The autochthonist theory on the contrary finds in it merely a development of the rain-cross into a tree form, or a representation of the maize-plant in a foliated pattern as is seen in the well-known stele of Palenque.

Wherever found, in the Old World, certain

features seem always to obtain: the attitude and expression of the two human figures, the form of tree, the arrangement of the branches, and the frequent presence of a pair of volutes between which the stem arises. The origin of these volutes may be attributed either to the clusters which adorn the image of the Chaldæan palm-tree, or to the horns which were a distinguishing sign of divinity among the Assyrians. The tree itself varies in different countries; the constant reappearance of these accessories constitutes the essential feature of the symbol. A curious detail occurs among very different peoples, the presence of serpents sometimes twined around the stem, sometimes only placed in the background. From this, Christian art has borrowed the model of the scene of the Temptation. In some creeds the tree is replaced by other objects, an altar, an urn, or a pillar. Christian art frequently places at the side of the cross (its "Tree of Life") two living creatures, lambs, doves, or peacocks. When the use of armorial bearings began to develop in western Europe, heraldic art copied from Eastern fabrics the habit of employing pairs of animals opposed to each other, as supporters, and the fashion prevails to this day.

Among Semitic peoples the veneration of the Sacred Tree implies far more than the almost universal tree worship of primitive races on account of their utility. It stands either as a vegetable symbol of the divine power, as the female personification of the creative forces of Nature, or it is the image of a mythical tree endowed with some supernatural purpose or meaning. What could have given to the people of Mesopotamia the idea of representing their great Goddess of Nature by a tree? The explanation offered by Prof. Tylor is, that on the Assyrian monuments in the greater number of instances the sacred tree is a palm, toward which two figures seem to hold the point of a conical object, with a reticulated surface, which bears a close resemblance to the inflorescence of the male date palm. He finds here a representation of the fertilization of the palm by the artificial transferring of the pollen to the clusters of the female, or date-bearing tree, a process referred to by Herodotus as practised in Chaldæa. This seems to be a more reasonable explanation of the origin of the cone than that proposed by Dr. Bonavia, referred to in a recent number of the *Nation*, in which, objecting to the pineapple theory, on account of the American origin of that plant, he concludes that "the cones were cedar cones used as sprinklers of holy water." If Tylor be right, the Assyrians seem to have drawn from the sexual relations of the palm the same symbolism relating to the renewal and communication of life that other nations have found in human sexuality.

But the Sacred Tree, among the Semitic peoples, as we have stated, also represented a mythical object of varying significance. Sometimes it stands for the Tree of the Universe, whose summit is the sky and whose trunk the earth; or the Tree of Life, whose juice conferred immortality; or the Tree of Knowledge "of good and of evil." The Cherubim with flaming sword who kept the way of the Tree of Life in the Garden of Eden bear a much greater resemblance to the monstrous creatures which guard the approaches of Assyrian palaces than they do to the *Amoretti* of Christian art. The fruit of the Tree of Life, whether it were clusters of dates or bunches of grapes, yielded alike a fermented liquor, that elixir of life which finds an echo in the modern *eau de vie*.

The Aryans also had their mythical trees. Among the Hindus we find a similar Tree of the Universe, a Tree of Life, from whose leaves distilled the celestial *amrita*, the drink of immortality; also a Tree of Knowledge, whose sap begets poetic and religious inspiration. The Greeks had their Sacred Tree in the Garden of the Hesperides, with golden fruit guarded by dragons; and the Scandinavian mythology had its sacred ash, Yggdrasill, whose branches spread over the whole world and tower above the heavens. But our author does not find the explanation of the coincidence in the possession by both Semites and Aryans of the Tree of Heaven, of Life, and of Knowledge in a common origin. He sees only examples of the well-established fact of the migration of fables among nations differing widely in race and language. He thinks they are merely logical coincidences in the application of vegetable symbolism; or that enrichment and approximation of mythologies which follows upon the mutual exchange of symbols and of myths.

TYRRELL'S LATIN POETRY.

Latin Poetry: Lectures delivered in 1893 on the Percy Turnbull Memorial Foundation at the Johns Hopkins University. By R. Y. Tyrrell, Regius Professor of Greek in the University of Dublin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895. Pp. xxiv, 323.

Prof. Tyrrell speaks so warmly of the courtesy of his American hearers in various cities, and his volume shows so much learning, acuteness, and literary art, that it seems ungracious in Americans to review it unfavorably. And, indeed, if a book so attractive in appearance and in the design announced in the preface is disappointing, it is rather because the author seems to work under certain false conceptions than because he does not do with much skill what he sets out to do. He announces his purpose to be chiefly analysis and literary criticism, rather than biography and literary history, which is entirely right if he does not allow the first to override the second. For instance, when he declares that to make Horace's renowned "O Navis" refer to the ship of state is the work of "typehunting editors," he directly sets at naught the words of Quintilian.

His false conception seems to be this: something essentially new was to be said of the Latin poets, and this end of the nineteenth century has brought to light two new metrical canons, one abstract and the other concrete, by which all poetry may fitly be judged. The first seems to be that passion is the true note of the best poetry—a sort of corybantic or dithyrambic furor—enthusiasm according to the ancient sense of the word. He seems to forget that Apollo applied the bridle as well as the goads to the Sibyl. This view of inspiration is a favorite one at the present day; it has operated to revive the study and exalt the glory of Pindar, and, years before Prof. Tyrrell wrote, to exhibit Catullus as the master of Latin poetry to the proportionate disparagement of the controlled and moderate Horace. It stamps with approval some work of Burns which never ought to be reprinted, and raises to fame some much later writers who should be left in their obscurity. By this canon Prof. Tyrrell not only exalts Catullus, as Munro did before him, to a very questionable supremacy, but he finds in Lucretius, and even in Plautus, a passionate and fiery temper which has hardly been detected hitherto. He seems in his literary analysis to confuse such traits as frankness, sincerity, simplicity, spontaneity, and passion—shades of tone far from identical, and often inconsistent.

His second canon, sometimes curiously in conflict with the first, appears to be that Tennyson is the standard poet, both for design and execution; that we may test the work of any poet in any language or period, for praise or blame, by finding his parallels and contrasts to Tennyson. Now, without seeking to deprive this age of a single comfort it takes in its Tennyson, one may say that other ages have taken equal satisfaction in poets of wholly different metal; and to employ him as a new Procrustes strikes a note of agony on some sensibilities. Professor Tyrrell recasts Lucretius's grand sermon on death into the metre and style of "the Two Voices," which is a startling use of octosyllables; yet he cannot recall that Scott used that metre with success without calling his poems "metrical romances." The children of this age must allow old-fashioned people to suggest that when after-times shall discuss the endless question, "What is epic poetry?" they may find "The Last Minstrel" and "Marmion" nearer the ideal than "Elaine" and "Guinevere"; and may insist that, whatever Tennyson's genius, he is essentially the child of his time, and no more fit for use as a standard than any other writer who completely satisfied his own contemporaries—Cowley, for instance, or Pope.

Prof. Tyrrell dwells at the greatest length on Lucretius, Catullus, Virgil, and Horace; dealing with the other Latin poets rather by groups than individually, and giving them distinctly lesser space. On the first two names, though his handling is fresh and lively, he has no very new point to offer; but little not already indicated by Sellar and Munro, the influence of the latter being in some cases more powerful than healthy. To Virgil he shows almost entire justice; yet one must fear that if Lord Tennyson had not laid down the lines for admiration, it might have come less readily; for Virgil's restrained and refined force, and his absolute objectiveness, whereby the man is lost in his work, are in a very different strain from most of the self-proclaiming writers Prof. Tyrrell so generally admires. He does perceive the nameless charm of Virgil's poetry, which fixes it in memory and thought, interpreting just that part of ourselves which our own tongues never will. He gives an interesting appendix in continuance of Conington's essay on Virgil's English translators.

Of Horace himself Prof. Tyrrell takes a strange and, as he says, an unorthodox view; but heresy is not always truth. The universal regard which Horace has received with men of so many different minds seems to him misplaced; Horace painfully lacks originality and poetic sincerity; his satires are largely plagiarisms from Lucilius, as may be detected even from the *disjecta membra* which are all we have left of the Auruncan; his odes are simply mosaics: *tours de force* in the transference of Greek lyric metres, hardly ever revealing the poet's own soul. In one word—though he does not use it—he regards Horace as a good deal of a humbug. One wonders at this point why he regards it as unpoetical insincerity to talk about a love for Lydia which represents no real feeling, and yet only legitimate Fescennine wit when Catullus charges Cæsar with immoralities of which there is no real evidence. If we grant the criticism that much of Horace's most sparkling satire is only a washing of Lucilius's crystals from their native mud, it would only prove what this book

admits is true of Virgil, and is equally true of Shakspere and our exalted Tennyson. One reads Apollonius, and Greene, and Sir Thomas Malory, chiefly because they gave materials to the men who "founded the massy ore, and scummed the bullion dross." The poet is he who makes the poetry. To the second charge, that Horace's odes are merely elaborate and unreal metrical exercises, one very adequate reply is this: Your spontaneous poet, your impressionist, who works over nothing, will, like Catullus, like Dryden, put one glorious stanza in immediate juxtaposition with a commonplace one, and even with a vile one. But the warped and paradoxical nature of Prof. Tyrrell's view is well shown by a single typical instance. "Surely," he says, "Horace was struggling in the shackles of his metre when, in warning Pollio how difficult and delicate was the task of writing a history of the Civil War, he tells him that he is walking on treacherous ashes which conceal a fire beneath," this version being an inversion; and he goes on to say that this does not in fitness of language convey the sense it seems to. Past ages, which have supposed it was an admirably expressive metaphor struck out by a great genius, have been all wrong; it was merely incorrect language imposed by Alcaic exigency. Prof. Tyrrell loves "Maud"; his criticism may be paralleled by this one: to call the evening dew on the passion-flower a splendid tear ought to mean that the flower felt with the hero's passion; but evidently Tennyson forgot what the monks meant in naming the flower.

But to close by naming the crowning discovery of this book: there is a dedicatory sonnet to the city of Baltimore. Its sonorous lines convey the idea that that city felt decorous and tender hesitation about joining the Union arms; but that when she had done so, and not till then, the Southern hosts were swept away, and slavery abolished from the Potomac to the Gulf. This is equal to the legitimist histories, which taught that the armies of King Louis won victories at Jena and Wagram under the command of the Marquis de Bonaparte.

Lotos-Time in Japan. By Henry T. Finck. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. Pp. xvi, 337, with sixteen full-page photographs.

MR. FINCK does not tell us *when* he saw the lotos in Japan; but if, after the manner of historians in fixing the date of ancient texts, we collate the facts that he went in company with Mr. Shugyo, the ex-consul at New York, that he dined with Mr. Robert Blum, and that he possessed a visitor's ticket to the Third National Exhibition, we know indubitably that his trip was made in the summer of 1890. His three months' sojourn was a very profitable one for the enjoyment both of himself and of his readers; for he came to it with the fullest preparation in the way of reading and of experience in foreign travel, and, as he tells us, "a trained observer can see more in five hours than a careless spectator in five months."

Nevertheless, even the trained observer that Mr. Finck is can never quite escape the traveller's ruling fallacy of generalizing from insufficient data. Mr. Finck is marvellously clever in interpretation of national character, but he does sometimes nod as to particular facts. His idea that the Japanese live a domestic life, open to the public gaze, is based on seeing the houses of the humbler classes along the street; but the real charm of life in the house of a well-to do Japanese is exactly the privacy of it. Our author thinks that the Japanese nerves are shattered by "boiled tea-leaves," yet it was, after all, the Japanese who taught us that the boiling water should never remain on the leaves more than a minute. He insists on the propriety of "Mikado" for "Emperor," though scarcely any Japanese who have not lived abroad will understand what one means by it. He misses the beautiful allegory of the carved monkeys at Nikko, who bid us "Hear not [evil], see not [evil], speak not [evil.]"

But we must overlook these trifles in the face of Mr. Finck's success in the main and unique purpose of his book, to give "a convenient bird's-eye view, in a few brief chapters, of the principal points in which Japanese civilization is superior to our own. . . . I have tried to show that the Japanese have as much to teach us as we have to teach them, and that what they can offer us is, on the whole, of a higher and nobler order than what we can offer them." This is not the first time that this has been said, but it is the first time that the demonstration has been made so thoroughly. The spirit of his last two chapters, "The Esthetic Nation" and "A Superior Civilization," is shown in these passages: "The Japanese are the only truly artistic *nation* in the world—the Esthetic Nation *par excellence*." "In morals at least our equals, they are, in general refinement of manners and in social culture, far superior to Americans and Europeans." And these theses he illustrates copiously, from the experience of other observers and himself, by the facts of different phases of art and life. In doing this, he has done what many of us have tried to do, but never as systematically and convincingly as here. Mr. Hearn is of course the great apostle of the Japanese gospel to those who can appreciate the subtilties of character; Mr. Finck has made this gospel so plain that all can understand.

Let us make no mistake about this. Let us read once more the above sentences, that we may appreciate the force of each word and the significance of the whole. Let us understand, if we can, once for all, that our customary attitude of patronizing superiority is narrow, false, and grotesque. "How delightful," we think, "that the Japanese can fight with our modern tools of bloodshed, can work a parliamentary constitution, can build up a factory system. Very creditable, to be sure, this borrowing from us." Well, then, let us understand that if the Japanese are but children and "heathen" as to our material civilization, we are but boors and savages as to what we have to learn from them, and that the balance of self-gratulation and patronizing, if there is to be any, should be on their side. Can an American or a European conceive himself in an attitude of humility, of respectful consideration, of generous and equal fellowship, towards an Oriental nation? It is difficult—as difficult as it was for the sodden Pharisees to appreciate the significance of the New Dispensation in the person of a mere Carpenter. Nevertheless, the day will come, in the international comity of the far future, when our national Pharisaism will be seen in its true light; and Mr. Finck's book will have helped to that end.

Early Venetian Printing Illustrated. Venice: Ferd. Ongania; New York: Scribners. 1895.

THIS beautiful book, intended to "serve as a pattern to the printer and as a document to the student," fulfils the expectations raised by the prospectus. It consists of prefatory historical text, by C. Castellani, on the art of printing at Venice during the Italian Renaissance, on water-marks, and on the printing of music by movable types—an innovation claimed for Venice. Then follow 200 pages of facsimiles of illustrated or decorated works in chronological order, initial letters and other ornaments, printers' marks, and paper-makers' water-marks; and a brief essay on bindings is succeeded by photographic copies of elegant specimens. Borders, initials, marks, and letterpress are printed in color when the original calls for it.

The first facsimile is of the first book printed in Venice, Cicero's 'Epistolæ ad Familiares,' and the list includes fine editions of Terence, Livy, Ovid, Pliny, Quintilian, Justinian, Marco Polo, Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio, the 'Hypnerotomachia Poliphili,' and a few Greek authors, as Strabo in the original, and Herodotus, Euclid, and Plutarch Latinized. The range in years is from 1469 to 1524, with a solitary instance of musical printing, dated 1539. In short, this collection reflects very strikingly the feverish activity of the dawn of printing in Italy, and to students of that art and of book illustration it affords a most convenient source of first-hand information. That printers and publishers can profit by it in the raising of their ideals of workmanship and standards of taste is also certain; yet a part of the lesson for them is lost owing to the failure to specify the occasional reductions in scale (the Justinian on p. 62 must be an example of this), as well as to the fact that the original margins are seldom indicated or preserved. Indeed, with a proper economy, Signor Ongania has utilized such spaces for his water-marks, initials, printers' marks, etc. The student, again, will find the indexing inadequate, in view of such a mixed arrangement. That by years is well enough, though it has some hiatuses; and the several classifications of the ornaments and type are welcome, so that, *e. g.*, we can easily track Aldus's anchor and dolphin through its several delineations. To all these should have been added a page-for-page index, naming and dating every item. But these deficiencies detract very slightly from the praiseworthiness of the execution of a scheme which might well be extended to other Italian cities.

Desideri Erasmi Roterodami Convivia e Conloquiis Familiaribus Selecta. Edited, with notes and vocabulary, by Victor S. Clark. [School Classics.] Boston: Ginn & Co. 1895.

"REVIVALS, too, of unexpected change," says the poet; and concurrently with the renewal of popular interest in Napoleon, scholars have been returning to the study of Erasmus. The slender text-book before us was announced, we believe, at least as early as the appearance of Mr. Froude's work on the great Dutchman, which itself was but the latest of a considerable series in recent years. The editor's aim has been primarily "to provide supplementary reading for Latin classes in secondary schools," and he has made a fairly entertaining patchwork of excerpts, with a liberty in omitting and welding which he frankly avows, but which he certainly carries too far when he confounds the speakers, as on pp. 7, 8, 12, 13, and especially 15, line 4. Mr. Clark has also deliberately disregarded the *formulæ* in which the 'Colloquia' abounds, and which make it preëminently available as a discipline in Latin conversation. Youngsters who have any linguistic aptitude like nothing better than to disport themselves in practising the tongue

they are learning, and Erasmus is prodigal of equivalent and parallel phraseology answering to the needs of polite society. Mr. Clark sometimes seems to have admitted doublets unawares, as on p. 6: "Quid cunctamur capum hunc discerpere? *Quid trepidamus hunc gallum lacerare?*" Again, on p. 7: "Augustine, quid babes quod parum es hilaris? *Quid accidit tibi quod sedes tristior?*" And finally on p. 3, "ut reducam in concordiam, *ut pacem inter eos componam*," where the duplication is masked by printing *et* for the second *ut*. There is a by no means sparse glossary at the foot of each page in addition to a full vocabulary at the end, and notes. These last seem to us pitched rather high for the class of pupils aimed at, and to be somewhat wanting in racy idiomatic renderings when opportunity not seldom offers. The discourse on the Alpine white hare that owed its color to the snow it fed on, ought in these days to have been annotated not by a flout at mediæval superstition, but by a reference to protective mimicry. Had Mr. Clark been a born bookmaker, he might have made a much more attractive disposition of the text. His blanks and his paragraphing are often perplexing. The proof-reading has been very careful. We remark only "sunc" for *sunt* on p. 47, line 12. *Cervisia*, p. 39, line 7, has not found its way into the vocabulary.

We may, after all, doubt whether a better book "studio iuventutem inlectare ad elegantiam Latini sermonis" (as Mr. Clark's epigraph reads) could not have been made out of the anecdotic portions of those philosophical works of Cicero which Erasmus kissed every time he read them (p. 27). Something here, no doubt, is learned of the scholar himself, his lore and the whimsies of his palate; but, to our thinking, a judicious abstract (say) of the "Puerpera" would have given a better idea of the man in his larger aspect, and would have left a more fixed and salutary impression. The interlocutors are but two, the theme single, and the conversation close, and the grammatical difficulties no greater than those encountered in Mr. Clark's selections. This Colloquy, however, would lend itself comparatively ill to pedagogic editing.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Grant. The Scallywag. Cassell. 50 cents.
An Aide-de-Camp of Napoleon: Memoirs of Gen. Count de Ségur. Appletons. $2.
Black, Barbara. Kate of Gotham. G. W. Dillingham, 50 cents.
Caine, Hall. The Shadow of a Crime. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $1.50.
Cambridge, Ada. Fidelis. Appletons.
Crawford, F. M. Sant Ilario. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Crocker, U. H. The Cause of Hard Times. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 50 cents.
Daintrey, Laura. The Arrows of Love. G. W. Dillingham.
Davies, Gen. H. E. General Sheridan. [Great Commanders.] Appletons.
Defoe, Daniel. Of Royall Educacion. London: David Nutt.
DuBois, Constance G. A Modern Pagan. Merriam Co.
Eighty-seven Kisses. G. W. Dillingham.
Eggert, Prof. C. A. Racine's Athalie. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Ford, Paul L. Jefferson's Notes on Virginia. Brooklyn, N. Y.: Historical Printing Club.
Ford, Paul L. The Writings of Thomas Jefferson. Vol. V. 1788—1792. Putnams.
Fowler, Prof. Thomas. Progressive Morality: An Essay in Ethics. 2d ed. Macmillan.
Fuller, H. B. With the Procession. Harpers. $1.25.
Furness, H. H. A Midsummer Night's Dream. [Variorum Shakspere, Vol. X.] Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Getz, John. Handbook of a Collection of Chinese Porcelains. Metropolitan Museum of Art.
Gilbert, Gusfav. The Constitutional Antiquities of Sparta and Athens. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Globe Treasury of Universal Knowledge. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Hanna, Col. H. B. Can Russia Invade India? London: A. Constable & Co.
Harper, Olive. What Do You Think? G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Harrisse, Henry. Americus Vespuccius: A Critical and Documentary Review of Two English Books concerning that Navigator. London: B. F. Stevens.
Hastings, Elizabeth. An Experiment in Altruism. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Hobbes, J. O. Some Good Intentions and a Blunder. Merriam Co. 40 cents.
Holley, G. W. Magnetism, its Potency and Action. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Jarvis, Josephine. Froebel's Pedagogics of the Kindergarten. Appletons. $1.50.
Johnson, Lionel. Poems. London: Elkin Matthews; Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Keon, M. G. Dion and the Sibyls: A Classic Novel. Catholic School Book Co.
Kyle, Ruby B. Paul St. Paul, a Son of the People. 2d ed. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. $1.
Linton, E. Lynn. The One Too Many. F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Lowry, H. D. Women's Tragedies. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Moore, J. W. The American Congress: A History of National Legislation. Harpers. $3.
Morris, Edward E. A Memoir of George Higinbotham. Macmillan. $2.50.
Newton, W. W. Philip MacGregor. Hartford: Student Publishing Co. $1.50.
Norris, W. E. St. Ann's. Cassell. $1.
Oesterlein, Nikolaus. Beschreibendes Verzeichniss des Richard Wagner-Museums in Wien. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.
Owen, Prof. W. B. Cicero de Oratore. Book I. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.
Pauli, Reinhold. Robert Blake, ein Seestück, und Cromwell. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 40 cents.
Pemberton, Max. The Impregnable City: A Romance. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Pendleton, Louis. Corona of the Nantahalas. Merriam Co. 75 cents.
Raimond, C. E. The New Moon. Appletons.
Rathbone, St. George. The Fair Maid of Fez. Home Book Co 50 cents.
Rev. J. A. Weston. Historic Doubts as to the Execution of Marshal Ney. Whittaker. $3.
Roscoe, Sir Henry. John Dalton, and the Rise of Modern Chemistry. Macmillan. $1.25.
Ricketts, Palmer C. History of the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. 1824—1894. John Wiley & Sons. $3.
Russell, W. C. The Phantom Death, and Other Stories. F. A. Stokes Co. 75 cents.
Savage, R. A. In the Old Chateau, F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Scott, the Hon. Mrs. Maxwell. The Tragedy of Fotheringay. London; A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Social Damnation. By One of the Damned. Lovell Bros. Co. 50 cents.
Shumway, H. L. A Handbook on Tuberculosis among Cattle. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Southey, Robert. English Seamen. London: Methuen & Co.
Step, Edward. Wayside and Woodland Blossoms: A Pocket Guide to British Wild-flowers. Illustrated. F. Warne & Co. $2 50.
Sudermann, Hermann. The Wish. Appletons.
Sullivan, Sir Edward. Tales from Scott. Boston: Roberts Bros.
The Curse of Intellect. London: Blackwood. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
The Century. Nov., '94—April, '95. Century Co.
Thudichum, Dr. J. L. W. The Spirit of Cookery. F. Warne & Co. $2.
Townsend, Mary A. Distaff and Spindle. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1 50
Vanamee, Lida O. Two Women. Merriam Co.
Verrall, A. W. Euripides the Rationalist: A Study in the History of Art and Religion. Cambridge: University Press: New York: Macmillan. $1.90.
Watts, H. E. Don Quixote. New ed. Vol. II. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Wayne, C. S. The Lady and her Tree: A Story of Society. Philadelphia: Vortex Co. 50 cents.
Weed, Clarence M. Ten New England Blossoms and their Insect Visitors. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Weise, Prof. O. Unsere Muttersprache, ihr Werden und ihr Wesen. Leipzig: Teubner; New York: Westermann.
Weissinger, Rozel. What is Money? Louisville: *Courier-Journal* Co.
White, Percy. A King's Diary. Cassell. 50 cents.
Winter, John Strange. A Blameless Woman. International News Co.
Wright, Mrs. Mary T. A Truce, and Other Stories. Scribners. $1.
Zangwill, I. The Master. Harpers. $1.75.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 23, 1895.

The Week.

NOTHING in Mr. Choate's brilliant argument against the income tax was more cogent and instructive than the portion which related to the *stare decisis* rule. There has been nearly as much confusion in the popular mind about this as about the "Monroe doctrine." We were told, as soon as the constitutionality of the income tax came up, that inasmuch as the judges at the close of the last century had recognized only two taxes, namely, those on land and capitation taxes, as direct, the taxes on salaries and other sources of income were not direct; and by this rule we must stand, if necessary, for a thousand years. "Stare decisis," cried all the "scientific" taxers, and then closed their ears. The passage in Mr. Choate's argument which disposes of this is worth quoting:

"The reason of the rule is, that it is often better on public grounds, where a question of law has been decided—where it has been repeatedly decided—that the court should let it remain rather than, by the declaration of another though a better rule, dispense with it. Where is that chiefly applied? Where ought it chiefly to be applied? Where has it always been applied? When the former decision has grown into a rule of property, and vested rights in a trusting community, relying upon the past decision, have become fixed, where rules of conduct have come to be governed by it, as in the making of contracts and other arrangements between man and man and between citizens and corporations, I acknowledge that there may often be cases where less damage to the public, less injury upon the whole, arises from letting the bad rule stand. Everybody has acquiesced in the rule, everybody knows it to be the rule, everybody has acquired his property under the rule, and made his contracts under the rule. But what right or reason is there for its application to a constitutional provision respecting the power of Government in the matter of taxation? Let the learned Attorney-General point to one man in the United States, to one woman, to one child, who will be affected detrimentally, whose rights will be in the least impaired, by a correction of that former error here—if such error has ever been committed, and I do not believe it has been."

See the effect of letting human reason play around a thing. As soon as we ask how the *stare decisis* rule came by its sanctity, we see its exact value. But when somebody who has never examined the matter at all tells us that on no compulsion and for no purpose must we depart from what the court said about it one hundred years ago, then we get a glimpse of the great Chinese secret. The explanation of the Chinese immobility comes to us like a flash. The Chinese adopted *stare decisis* as the rule of their lives thousands of years ago, and we see the result.

The Republicans of this State show much natural anxiety over the discovery that the tax levy for this year is likely to be fully fifty per cent. higher than that for last year. The rate has been fixed at 3.24 as against 2.18 in 1894. This advance is made necessary by an increase of about four and a quarter millions in the State's expenditures, two millions of which are incurred by the transfer to the State of the care of the insane in New York city and Brooklyn. The remainder is due to the extravagance of the Legislature, growing out of desires for political patronage and jobs. The farmers of the State will not take kindly to an increase of 50 per cent. in their State taxes, and the rural members of the Legislature will have difficulty in reconciling them to it. It was tolerably safe for those members to refuse New York city the legislation which it demanded, for their constituents cared little about that, but raising taxes is quite a different matter. The consequence is, that the Republican party will go into the next campaign with the city and country both hostile to it because of the conduct of the Legislature; and if its managers think they are going to have an easy time carrying the State under those conditions, they will discover their mistake when election day arrives.

It is doubtful if the issue of business or politics in the management of municipal affairs was ever more clearly presented than it has been in the statement which Col. Waring made to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment on Saturday. He showed that, at the present rate of wages paid by him in the Street-Cleaning Department, the streets cannot be kept clean throughout the year without leaving a deficit of a half-million dollars, but that if the regular market rate were to be substituted, the streets could be kept clean without a deficit. If the rate were not reduced, it would be necessary to reduce the number of men. "In reducing the cost of labor," said Col. Waring, "we may either select a certain number of men who are now receiving $2.30 a day, turn them out and deprive them of all income, with their families to be provided for, or reduce the rate of wages paid to the whole force." If the wages were reduced, the streets could be kept clean; if the force were reduced, the streets could not be kept clean. As the Board of Estimate has no available funds which it can transfer to the Street-Cleaning Department to make up the half million necessary to prevent a deficit, it must face the problem directly of either reducing wages or letting the streets go dirty. When the problem was presented to it on Saturday, not a member of the board had the courage to say a word. Why? Because to propose to reduce wages would offend the labor organizations and alienate the labor vote. Yet if the Board of Estimate had been the directing body of any business establishment, it would have solved the problem at once by reducing wages.

Wages at present in the department for common day-labor are $2.30 a day, with extra pay for Sundays. The regular pay in the building and other trades for like labor is $1.25 a day. The Street-Cleaning Department rate was put up under Tammany management for the purpose of gaining votes. By the law of 1892 it was fixed at $600 a year, about $2 a day, and Mayor Gilroy and his associates were content with that as a demonstration to the laboring classes that Tammany was their friend. An amendment to the street-cleaning law was passed in 1894 which fixed maximum limits for all salaries paid in the department, and gave the Board of Estimate and Apportionment power to pay the sweepers any sum not exceeding $720 a year. Instead of either adhering to the $600 rate or reducing it, the Board fixed the rate at $720, or $2.30 a day, nearly double the market rate. This was Tammany's assessment upon the city, made in its desperate condition of last year, and designed to get the labor vote for Tammany at the city's expense.

Attention was recently called to the extraordinary action of the Portland (Me.) City Council in passing a measure establishing what was called the system of "toe-warming by rotation" in the Department of Public Works, the salient feature of which was a requirement that the Commissioner should discharge his entire force of employees every month and hire new men. The fact should be noted that Mayor Baxter has rescued the taxpayers from the mischief thus threatened. He vetoed the rule, on the ground that its adoption "would not only demoralize and disorganize the labor force, to the great injury of the laborers themselves, but would be equally injurious to the city's interests." The Mayor pointed out that no business corporation had ever made so absurd a rule for the employment of labor as this, and declared that there was "no reason why the city should adopt any but sound business principles in the employment of its laborers." These common-sense arguments had sufficient effect with the Council to prevent its overriding the Mayor's veto. An attempt was made to get around it by authorizing the committee on public works to register and employ laborers "under such rules as they may deem proper," in the expectation that they would adopt the "toe-warming" policy; but public sentiment has at last compelled the committee to follow the example of the Council and back down.

The action of Gov. Werts of New Jersey and five of the lay judges of the Court

of Errors who sit with him in the Board of Pardons, in remitting the sentence of imprisonment of the Guttenberg race-track men, is an affront to public decency which, it is pleasant to say, is not often inflicted upon any State. The conviction of these men was secured with great difficulty, their guilt was undoubted, and their sentence was light. That Gov. Werts should have been coerced into leading the movement for their pardon in the face of such a protest as the Chancellor made against it, leaves no room to doubt that this gang of gamblers has a hold on him which he dares not defy. Only a few days have passed since the investigating committee at Trenton brought out facts showing that when Gov. Abbett and the lay judges pardoned the ballot-box stuffers of Jersey City, they did so under improper influences. Gov. Werts is too smart a man to follow in Abbett's footsteps so quickly if he were not an unwilling instrument. There is no doubt as to the effect of his course on party politics in New Jersey. If the Republicans nominate a man with a good record, like ex-Senator Griggs of Paterson, for Governor, the Democrats can probably name no one who can defeat him. They must openly condemn and discard all such leaders as Abbett, Werts, and the men who tried to steal the State Senate last year before they can hope to recover power in the State. The action of the Board of Pardons will still further attract attention to the character of the lay element in the Court of Errors and in this board, and will assist doubtless in securing the adoption of the pending constitutional amendment reorganizing both the court and the board.

The newer States of the West are naturally far more ready to break with the traditions and try experiments than the older commonwealths of the East. The Utah Constitutional Convention has put in the fundamental law framed for that incoming State a radical change in the jury system, by which eight is substituted for twelve as the number to be empanelled, and the agreement of three-fourths of the eight will be sufficient to constitute a verdict in civil cases. The trial of this experiment will be watched with interest. The last Legislature of California also authorized a new feature in jury trials—the empanelling of one or two extra jurors, at the discretion of the presiding judge, who shall hear the evidence like the regular jury, but take no other part in the proceedings except when death or illness removes one or two from the box, in which case one or both of the reserves may be substituted. This will prevent the not infrequent occurrence in protracted cases of a mistrial by reason of a break in the jury; and as the discretion allowed the judge will not require a recourse to the new system in the mass of petty cases, there seems to be no objection to the plan.

A correspondent sends us an article from the *American Economist* touching excessive importations of woollen goods under the new tariff, and asks us whether the figures there given are correct. We remember this paper very well, although it is a long time since we saw it or heard of it. It belongs to the dim and distant past, and its articles have much the same effect upon elderly readers as those on the bank controversy, slavery in the Territories, and the problem of reconstruction. The article in question tells us that "since the Gorman tariff went into effect we have been buying very liberally from foreign countries of woollen manufactured goods." It then gives comparative tables of imports for six months ending February 28, 1895, and 1894, showing that "the increased market for foreign woollens reached $9,680,694 in half a year." The dismal consequences of this are not enumerated, but are left to the reader's imagination. Wisely so, we think, because if we go back to the year ending June 30, 1892, we find that the imports of these goods were larger than they were in either of the years selected by the *American Economist*. We do not happen to have the half year's importations at hand. Whole years are better than half years for making averages. If we divide the year's importations by two in order to get a standard of comparison, we shall find that the importations of the six months ending February 28, 1892, compare with those of February 28, 1895, in the following manner—for the former, $17,832,046; for the latter, $17,383,292. The difference is not great, but it shows that under the McKinley tariff the importations of woollen goods were greater than under the present tariff. If a schedule of exportations of woollens were made up for the corresponding periods, they would probably show a contrary result—that is, larger exportations now than then. The New York *Times* publishes figures of textile imports for the year 1893 showing that the same comparison holds good for that McKinley year also.

The *Outlook* (religious) has a department of Notes and Queries in which it answers the questions of correspondents on various subjects. One of these, who signs the initials J. L. R., asks the question, "Is the pamphlet 'Coin's Financial School' reliable?" To which the *Outlook* replies: "The pamphlet 'Coin's Financial School' is reliable as to facts." This is rather severe on religion. The *Outlook* thus becomes responsible for the following among a multitude of other "facts" in the pamphlet referred to:

"Congress passed laws making all foreign silver coins legal-tender in this country."

"On account of the scarcity of silver, both Jefferson and Jackson recommended that dimes, quarters, and halves would serve the people better than dollars, until more silver bullion could be obtained. This was the reason why only about eight million of the one hundred and five million of silver were coined into dollars."

"As long as free coinage was enjoyed by both metals the commercial value of silver and gold never varied more than two per cent."

"Adam Smith informs us that in 1455 the price of wheat in England was two pence per bushel."

"A war with England would be the most popular ever waged on the face of the earth."

The last is a mere hypothesis, but we presume that the *Outlook* endorses that also, as it is not more wide of the mark than the four preceding citations. There are a few truths, and but a few, in the whole 155 pages of 'Coin's Financial School,' and these are employed to carry false impressions to the minds of uninformed readers, such as the *Outlook's* correspondent J. L. R.

The course of Presbyterian politics has been for some years as sinuous as that of the world that lieth in wickedness, but we doubt if ever before has the pious manœuvring for election of Moderator of the General Assembly been so clearly laid bare to the gaze of the ungodly as in the letter against Dr. Booth's candidacy, made public on Monday. Nominations have long been made on sectional grounds; and wicked reporters have often been in doubt, when listening to nominating speeches, whether they were in a religious or a political gathering. There is the same loud booming of a man as "the chosen representative of the great Northwest," or as "in touch with the heart of the people beyond the Rocky Mountains," or as "one whose long and unselfish services imperatively demand this honor." Nor, we presume, is Mr. Gilman's letter against Dr. Booth the only one of its kind in the history of intrigues for the moderatorship. But it must be unique in tone. Not a word in it refers to religion, or a superintending Providence, or the good of the Church. It is the frankest politician's letter, and makes one look instinctively for a P. S., "Burn this." The writer was sure that "an Eastern man" would be defeated, but thought that "a good square brother from the West or Northwest" might win. He enclosed a list of commissioners, with red marks set against those believed to be "brave and pushing men," and the reactionaries also checked. Would the veriest worldling of a wire-puller have written otherwise? For our part, we like this frankness. The customary infusion of cant about the Great Head of the Church and the Holy Ghost would have made the letter sickening. But surely we have got a long way from the days when ecclesiastical councils announced their decisions, "Nobis et Spiritui Sancto placuit." Those decisions, it is true, were often reached after just as much squabbling and wire-pulling as marks the election of a moderator. The old way was more dignified and sonorous, but the new is simpler and more straightforward. Mr. Gilman evidently believes, with Selden, that the Holy Ghost resides in "the odd man," and goes "hustling" after that odd man without any nonsense whatever.

The rumors from Hawaii that the Government is falling to pieces, and that Thurston is going to head a movement to flop back to the monarchy, may have no truth in them, but there is no reason why they should not. Thurston and most of the others in the plot to seize the islands and sell them to the United States have every mark of the unprincipled adventurer about them, and would go in for the monarchy without winking if they saw a chance to get the places that some other fellows have won by pretending to be republicans to the core. Only half-a-dozen years ago Thurston was making speeches in the Hawaiian Legislature furiously defending the native monarchy and denouncing those who were plotting annexation. When that line ceased to pay, he fell desperately in love with a republic and annexation and the incidental perquisites. These now being suddenly cut off, nothing is more natural than that he should put on a fresh mask and wring the hearts of his Jingo friends in this country by suddenly discovering that a republic is impossible in Hawaii, and that the only hope is in making Kaiulani Queen with himself as her prime minister. The peculiar quality of the patriotism of these Hawaiian adventurers is now pretty well established. It was sufficiently defined by Jowett when some one asked him if logic was a science or an art. "It is neither," he replied; "it is a dodge."

The repeal of the famous Irish coercion act, over which there was such a fierce fight in Parliament during Lord Salisbury's ministry, has been carried to a second reading in the House of Commons by the now usual Government majority. It is not the ministry who have introduced it, but they have supported it, although they see no chance of its being carried in the Lords. Mr. Morley was able to justify it by statistics both of outrages and convictions, which showed that the state of Ireland is extraordinarily peaceful, and that juries do their duty with increasing alacrity. All parties, even Mr. Balfour and Mr. T. W. Russell, admitted that Ireland was now wonderfully peaceful, and Mr. Morley pointed out that he had never exercised any of the powers given him by the act. The chief argument used against the repeal was that the Irish were now lying low, and that as soon as the act was repealed the outrages would begin again. This is a very unfortunate argument, which has always been used to explain Irish peaceableness. Whenever the crime record has fallen extraordinarily low, it has always been said in England that it was due to coercion; and whenever the crime record was high, that it was for want of coercion. This may be true, but it is bad politics never to give a large community credit for good motives. Nothing more predisposes men to be bad than steadily refusing them any better reason for being good than fear. English abuse of the Irish has had a large part in maintaining the Anglophobia which makes the government of Ireland so difficult. It is extremely exasperating to the Irish, who are very human, and Celtic to boot. "Soft sawder" is a very potent instrument of rule, a fact which our politicians have found out and do wonders with. Nevertheless we dare say there is a certain foundation for the fear of the opponents of the repeal. Doubtless much of the Irish tranquillity is due to the expectation that something will eventually be done by a friendly ministry towards home rule, but a good deal also by the land acts. The incoming of a ministry, however, which treated all the Irish leaders, priests included, as rascally adventurers, and the Catholics as all cowardly conspirators, would probably revive the old troubles.

Economy in governmental expenditures is the order of the day in France. Everybody is in favor of everybody else taking his hands out of the Treasury. The chairman of the Senate committee on finance made a touching plea for retrenchment, which his enthusiastic colleagues at once ordered printed and placarded in every commune of France. Then they turned to and voted more extravagant appropriations than ever. In particular did they vote for those little extensions of the state railways out into their own districts which every year, on the system of reciprocal courtesy, add millions to the prospective burdens of the taxpayers. This year they voted about $18,000,000 worth of new roads. Of course, they would not take this sum outright to build a railroad up to some little swallow's-nest of a village in the mountains. That would hardly do, just after laying their hands on their hearts as friends of economy. One kilometre or so a year is all they ask, the rest to come later. So modest are they in their beginnings that, according to the rate of progress provided for, it will take twenty years to finish one of their projected extensions, seventy years to complete another, and a hundred and forty years another. Truly art, in appropriation bills, is long. Meanwhile, that money as well as time is fleeting may be seen in a table of French receipts and expenditures from 1882 to 1893, just put out by the Ministry of Finance. Some years make a better showing than others, but, taking the period as a whole, there has been a steady progress towards insolvency, the excess of expenditures over receipts for the entire time being $103,000,000. This table, says the *Débats*, ought to be carved on the walls of the Chamber; but it adds, on sober second thought, "it is true that nobody would look at it."

A correspondent of the *Journal des Débats* calls attention to some recent legislation in Switzerland as indicating the dangers attending the policy of concession to the Socialists. Three measures of especial importance were enacted at the last session of the Federal Chambers—one for a Government monopoly of the match manufacture, another limiting the powers of stockholders in railroads and extending the control of Government, and a third establishing a Government bank. The first of these measures is in the line of the monopoly of alcoholic drinks, and follows an attempt to prohibit the manufacture of matches made with yellow phosphorus as injurious to the health of those engaged in it. The second law appears to be of no especial consequence, but the third is a serious matter. The Constitution of 1874 gave the Confederation control of bank issues, but prohibited state monopoly; in 1891 this restriction was removed by the efforts of the Socialists, and the state bank has now been ordained by the Chamber of Deputies, to be operated directly by the Government, like the Bank of Russia, and not merely supervised, as in the case of the Bank of France. The measure was strongly opposed, and has still to pass the second chamber, and doubtless the referendum will be demanded. But the idea that the Government can in this way "regulate the money market," as alleged by the Socialists, will have a great charm for the masses.

The resignation of Count Kálnoky, consequent on his clash with the Hungarian prime minister, Baron Banffy, illustrates the strictness with which the rules of official etiquette and diplomatic propriety are enforced in Europe. When such things occur there, somebody has to resign. No Pickwickian explanations will serve. Count Kálnoky could not be told that he must not mind Banffy's jocose ways, nor could the latter be appeased by being assured that the Count was only playing to the galleries. We have changed all that. A member of our cabinet may be rapped over the knuckles, as Foster was by Harrison, for example, and go on smilingly in office as if nothing had happened. Our chairman of the Senate committee on foreign affairs may declare war a dozen times a week, and the country will take it only as a side-splitting joke. It is much to the credit of European perspicacity that these playful ways of ours are perfectly understood abroad. European, especially English, density is a favorite theme for story and laughter with us; but, dense as the slow wits of Europe may be, they at least have mastered our standards of official propriety. If a Russian or Austrian or even a Spaniard or Turk in Morgan's position should bellow away at England as he does, Downing Street would be plunged into intense excitement; as it is, we see nothing but eyebrows languidly lifted, and hear only the bored remark: "What, that bull of Bashan escaped from his keepers again?"

THE INCOME-TAX DECISION.

WHENEVER the politico-economical history of the past thirty years in America comes to be written, the cause and origin of the socialistic phenomena which have marked it will assuredly be found in the legal-tender decision of 1871. No man can read that decision to-day without being struck by the clearness and directness with which it suggests and authorizes all the dishonest schemes with which the intelligence and morality of the community have, during this period, had so hard a fight. Greenbackism and free-silverism, which have kept us in hot water, and threatened us with national bankruptcy and dishonor, during the last quarter of a century, are so plainly the result of opinions in those cases that no account of them would be complete which did not quote the judgment of the Supreme Court as delivered by Mr. Justice Strong:

"The legal-tender acts do not attempt to make paper a standard of value. We do not rest their validity upon the assertion that their emission is coinage or any regulation of the value of money; nor do we assert that Congress may make anything which has no value money. What we do assert is, that Congress has power to enact that the Government's promises to pay money shall be, for the time being, equivalent in value to the representative of value determined by the coinage acts, or to multiples thereof. It is hardly correct to speak of a standard of value. The Constitution does not speak of it. It contemplates a standard for that which has gravity or extension; but value is an ideal thing. The coinage acts fix its unit as a dollar; but the gold or silver thing we call a dollar is, in no sense, a standard of a dollar. It is a representative of it."

We cannot quote more largely from this judgment, which contains many startling passages of the same nature. It will probably answer our purpose better to reproduce the account given by the latest commentator on the Constitution, Mr. Hare of Philadelphia, of the state in which these legal-tender decisions have left the power of Congress over the currency and over contracts providing for a payment in "money." An agreement to pay in "money" means any kind of money Congress may choose to provide:

"The material words in every such case are those which fix the numerical amount of the debt, and, if this be tendered, the creditor cannot refuse to receive it on the ground that the metal of which the pieces are composed is different from that for which he stipulated; nor can a tender be objected to as insufficient because the currency has been debased since the debt was contracted, and the sum offered less in weight and values than would have been due but for the change. It results from these considerations that the power of Congress over the currency is supreme. It has no limit, and none is set to it by the Constitution. Congress may by law declare any coin equivalent, for the purpose of payment, to any other of greater or less intrinsic value, and, by a necessary sequence, render debts contracted in coins of one kind payable in coins of another kind, equalling the numerical amount of the debt. A promise to pay $10 silver money of the United States may, for instance, be fulfilled by the tender of an eagle, or of ten gold dollars, or of a hundred dimes. The question is an arithmetical one, whether the money proffered by the debtor makes up the sum for which he is bound. Were Congress to substitute a different metal in coining dollars, as, for instance, nickel for silver, or platinum for gold, no one could question the validity of the act."

A better authority for the Populist demand for more money, cheap money, plenty of poor man's money "per capita," money made of anything that is handy, money that is simply a commodity and not a measure of value, even Peffer or Coxey could not desire. And out of this view of the nature of American money the other doctrines of Populism naturally grew. It seemed criminal for any government with this capacity for producing dollars to leave a single citizen in want or a single laborer out of work. With this judgment in his hand, Coxey might well ask for the expenditure of $500,000,000 on road-making, and thunder against the inequality of fortunes. Harvey, too, can rest on it his demand for silver money in unlimited quantities: why should not Congress make what it has the power to make, for the promotion of public comfort?

The decision fell in, too, very aptly with the current of socialistic feeling which has been flowing so freely in most countries during the quarter of a century in which democracy has been climbing into power. Money is the bottom question of economics in the popular mind. How to get it, and how it ought to be distributed, is the chief concern of the poor and ignorant voter. On it he builds nearly all his sociological speculations, and on hearing that it is a Government product, rather than a standard of value, he naturally looks around to see who has got too much of it, and sets himself diligently to consider by what means greater equality of fortunes can be produced, and in what legal way the qualities which, under our present régime, most contribute to success in life may be dispensed with.

That we owe the income-tax law in large part to this state of mind we do not think any candid man will deny. It was an attempt on the part of the Democratic party to satisfy not only the Populists proper, but that large body of the community which thinks that its own failure to achieve $4,000 a year indicates something wrong in the body politic. It was, in short, a bit of the ethical legislation which such judgments as that of the legal-tender case strongly suggest, and which a good many philanthropists are longing for. All such legislation and all attempts to use the power of taxation for the promotion of ideal justice, however, are based on the Hegelian view of the "State," which has taken a strong hold on the socialistic mind. That view makes the Government a body of all-wise and all-just men, who know exactly what everybody owes to the public, and what the public owes to him, and arrange that everybody shall have his due. We know, however, that no such body exists or can be created. The most startling fact of modern politics is the decline of our legislative bodies. The governments of the world, instead of towering high above the communities which support them, in wisdom and morality, are dropping rather below the popular level. To intrust the brutish Congress which passed the income-tax law and refused to reform the currency, or the Albany Legislature which killed the education bill, with the power of deciding who should be rich and who poor, would strike every intelligent person as an invitation to anarchy. There is no higher power in the world now than there ever was. Government is no better than the people who elect it, and often not so good, and worship of the "State" is no better than worship of ancestors.

We cannot help looking on the judgment of Monday on the income tax as a retreat on the part of the Court from the immoralities of the legal-tender decision. Any man who should assume for himself the power over plighted faith and honest contracts which the Court there attributed to a Christian legislature, would find himself an object of general abhorrence. It is difficult to read without a blush the claim made by the Court for an American legislature of the power to adulterate coin and to change its value, which was one of the worst abuses of the sovereign power over money of the mediæval kings. We have seen whither this sort of jurisprudence leads the nation. We believe the income-tax decision has arrested this downward progress. The heat with which Justice Harlan expounded the Marx gospel from the bench showed that the brake was applied none too soon. The Judge's observations on the need of the tax to keep the rich in their places was as odd as anything that has fallen from a court since Lord Ellenborough's day.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

IT was a curious coincidence that on the same day when one United States judge sitting in the Federal Court at Columbia declared unconstitutional the registration laws of South Carolina, another judge should have annulled on similar grounds the law of that State regarding the sale of liquor so far as it affects liquor brought from other States for the personal use of the buyer. This latter decision, which was rendered by Judge Simonton, a South Carolina Democrat, was warmly applauded by a large element among the whites who have always fought Tillman's dispensary system; and their ready acceptance of the right of a federal court to set aside one State law renders it somewhat embarrassing for them to dispute the right of the same authority to annul another State law. Ex-Senator Butler does not hesitate to justify this interference in the case of the election laws, and to declare his opinion that the decision was correct. It should be added that the impression that Judge Goff's decision absolutely prevents the lawful holding of the proposed constitutional convention is erro-

neous. He only held that the existing registration laws of the State are unconstitutional. To say nothing of the possibility of getting a prompt decision from the highest tribunal by an immediate appeal to the Supreme Court, there is ample time for the Governor to convene the Legislature for the passage of a registration law which will not be open to criticism.

Evans, the youthful lieutenant whom Tillman put in the Governor's chair when he himself took the Senatorship, issued a two-column manifesto last week about the impending contest between "the white peaceful flag of Anglo-Saxon civilization and progress" and "the black flag of the debased and ignorant African," which "must be a free open fight." Tillman follows this up with loud talk about a "blood" campaign and "hell broke loose, with the devil taking the hindmost," and a declaration that, if Judge Goff went any further in this matter, "he, for one, would advocate open rebellion." Judge Goff's action, however, has been received with favor, and even enthusiasm, by a considerable portion of the most intelligent whites. The Columbia *State*, a plain-spoken Democratic newspaper published at the capital, hailed the decision as virtually a proclamation of emancipation for those whites who have opposed the Tillman régime and who have been cheated under the registration laws as outrageously as the blacks. The *State* does not hesitate to pronounce the Evans manifesto "infamous," and to declare that "the paper teems with misrepresentations." Nor is the *State* alone in this. The Charleston *Evening Post* says that the registration law has been used to "disfranchise many thousands of white Democrats"; speaks of "the bald travesty of the registration of last March"; declares that, "under the provisions of the Constitutional Convention act, thousands of white Democrats remain, and will remain, disfranchised," and concludes:

> "Could these people hope to go on for ever goading the minority, ignoring and despitefully using it, without expecting to engender opposition and forcing it to crystallize? Time was when no respectable lawyer would have dared to appeal to a federal judge to set aside an election law enacted by white people, but that time has passed. Bitter, cruel experience has taught a minority of the white people that they have no more relentless, more ungenerous and unfair political enemies than their own fellows, and so there rose, among the former, men who rebelled, who flung defiance at them, and appealed to the one power from which redress had not already been denied."

The Greenville *News* says that there is no sense in abusing Judge Goff for his decision, because "Tillman declared months ago that these laws are unconstitutional, and made that the chief excuse for calling the Constitutional Convention." The *News* also directs attention to the significant fact that the State Supreme Court has had before it for six months a case involving the constitutionality of these laws, "and has flunked and refused to give a decision one way or the other." The Spartanburg *Herald* speaks of "all that has been gained by the upsetting of an infamous law," and says that "now is preëminently the time for wise counsel, deliberate action." The Clarendon *News* characterizes the talk of the Tillman leaders as "the blatant boastings of shallow-brained politicians," declares that "we have been already overpowered by the United States Government, and cannot for our own safety afford to resort to force," and says that "it is time that white citizens fully realize that it is better to enter into some compromise with the negro, by which the intelligent part of their race will be induced to join hands with the intelligent part of our race in working for the good of our whole State. In Georgetown County," it adds, "they've tried that and it works charmingly."

It is not necessary to make further quotations from the press to show that Tillman and Evans represent only a faction of the whites. The conservative Democrats, who have long opposed them, are now bolder than ever. In one of Evans's pronunciamientos he said: "There will be a straight fight now between the white man and the 'nigger,' and God save the white man that goes to the negro." We have no doubt that in Camden and in Manning this was understood to be a menace directed against some one whom the rebellious Governor had in his eye. For our part we read Col. John J. Dargan, editor of the Sumter *Freeman*, between the lines, and we now observe in the *State* a letter from that gentleman in which he takes the language of the proclamation in the same sense, for, after challenging any man to meet him and discuss the right of colored Americans to the suffrage (including his own right to "go to the negro"), he concludes with a defiance of Gov. Evans's threat, though it cost him his life. Col. Dargan has set himself in earnest "to see that the despised negro gets justice and fair dealing in South Carolina hereafter, and that cheating at elections be no longer tolerated as excuse for defrauding whites, also, who happen not to be in accord with the administration over which he [Gov. Evans] presides."

The more sensible people of South Carolina do not expect any collision with the federal authorities. Ex-Congressman George D. Tillman, who is a brother of *the* Tillman, and himself a Democrat with an excellent reputation, told a reporter the other day:

> "About half of these fellows who are put in the gubernatorial chair ought to be sent to a lunatic asylum instead. It is very fortunate that we have a federal Government which will step in when matters have reached a critical stage, and slap them on the back and say: 'There, there, son, you've gone far enough.'"

Probably Gov. Evans will back down after he has sputtered long enough. If he does not, President Cleveland will take him by the ear, as he did Gov. Altgeld of Illinois last summer, and show him his mistake in supposing that "injunctions don't go" in South Carolina.

THE LEGISLATIVE TORMENT.

It is rather difficult to take an objective view of the New York Legislature, we are so used to it; but there are very few who cannot imagine how it would strike an absolute stranger—say the well-known traveller from Mars. Although nominally a body which meets once a year to make laws (meaning by laws emanations of the sovereign will intended to benefit the community), and although it does occasionally make a law, hardly anybody ever thinks of it in that light. Most people regard its meeting as a calamity, and a shout of rejoicing goes up when it adjourns. In fact, if one were to judge it by the popular talk about it, one would suppose it was an agency for the torment and annoyance of the people, created by some hostile power. If we told the Mars traveller that it was the creation of the people themselves, that it was they who provided for its meeting and who paid the members for their work, he would dissolve in laughter and ask us to be easy on him. The members do not represent the State in any proper sense of the term. They have no connection, or none worth notice, with its industry, or trade, or commerce, or art, or science, or literature, or religion, or education. They are mostly young, obscure, and often very ignorant men. They seldom have any regular means of livelihood outside politics. Very few of them could get private employment in any reputable calling. Yet we call them together regularly once a year, and hand over to them, for such control or alterations as they see fit, nearly all our social and political arrangements, including our taxation. The use they make of this power reads like an account of the pranks of a lot of vicious boys off on a "bender." The traveller from Mars might think this was an accident which had never occurred before. We should in that case have to undeceive him. We should have to tell him that it was but a repetition of what had been going on for a quarter of a century, and that when each new Legislature met, everybody knew exactly the kind of thing it would be and the kind of things it would do. "Why on earth," he would say, "if this is true, do you not abolish it?"

To answer this question we should have to explain to him that we were living under representative government, a contrivance of the modern world intended to secure to everybody a say in the administration of public affairs, for want of which the Roman Empire perished; and that, though the Romans often got "the laugh on us" in these later days, no substitute for it has yet been devised. We must have something in the shape of a representative body, and it seemed to be part of the mysterious purposes of Providence that legislatures in our day should be largely made up of these young or old ne'er-do-weels. They are coming to the front and seizing on power in all democratic countries. We are simply showing the democratic

road to the older nations. The youths whom nobody will trust or employ have long suffered from popular odium and neglect. Their turn has come at last; a field has been found for them, and it is apparently the government of the world. This would not satisfy our Mars friend, however, for he would naturally ask why, if they annoyed us and discredited us so much, we let them meet so often. If we cannot wholly get rid of them, surely we could restrict their activity by making them triennials or biennials instead of annuals.

Here, we think, he would have us on the hip. It was a great pity that the Constitutional Convention did not recognize the force and reasonableness of the movement which has in nearly all other States made the sessions of the Legislature biennial. We assert with confidence that if the New York Legislature met only once in five years, no material interest of the State would suffer by it, while every moral interest would gain. It is no exaggeration to say that if we rule out the necessity this year of rectifying abuses created by former legislatures, there is not a single statute of the past ten years without which we could not have got along perfectly well. In other words, the work of the Legislature has been, in the main, simple mischief, or worse. In the belief of nearly all the intelligent portion of our population, the meeting of the Legislature every January in Albany is simply the opening of a school of vice. As soon as the Speaker is elected, the members organize, under a master who is not a member of their body, for the sale of legislation in quantities to suit purchasers, or for the levy of blackmail. Not the smallest sign do they show of any responsibility for public peace, comfort, or prosperity. They take their pay in money or offices or "something equally as good." They create a small army of go-betweens and lobbyists and gamblers—a kind of devil's "drummers" who bring buyers and sellers together. By threatening the wealthy, too, they make the corporations partners in their corruption, and fill them with contempt for, or distrust of, popular government. We venture to assert that the activities of Platt and his Boys during the past twenty years have all but extinguished respect for, or belief in, democratic institutions in the breasts of most of the rich men of this city. If we could look at this body in a dry light, and not through the haze of sentiment, tradition, and usage, it would, in fact, seem amazing that a Christian people should suffer such an organization to sit four months of every year in its capital city.

The worst of it is the effect on the youth of the State, not only of witnessing the legislative pranks, but of hearing the opinions of the State Government entertained by their elders. Every New York boy hears every day that the legislators are a pack of scoundrels, and that the legislation is, in one form or another, for sale. Foes and friends say the same thing. The fathers who do not denounce the legislators for their corruption, do not deny that they would like to be legislators themselves so as to share in it. The extent to which children are educated by what they see and hear around them in business and politics, is singularly overlooked even by the best of us, while the confidence we all have in our schools as instruments of moral training, is equally amazing. The proposal of the body which has just broken up at Albany to neutralize the effect of its own falsehood, levity, corruption, and indifference to public interest on the minds of the children, by ordering the national flag to be hoisted on all school-houses, gives a touch of the comic to what would otherwise be simple vulgar humbug. "Patriotism" with all these people is conveniently lodged in drill and flags, with which the boys are to be occupied while the elders set the public powers up at auction.

THE CENTENNIAL OF THE CRUSADES.

The eighth centennial of the preaching of the First Crusade has been celebrated during the week at Clermont, France. The place was appropriately chosen, for it was there that Pope Urban II. made that memorable appeal—one of the most famous in history—which caused Christendom to spring to arms to rescue the Holy Sepulchre from the infidel. We are just beginning to understand the deep significance of this strange uprising, now that the researches of scholars have brought to light the contemporary documents of that age, and have enabled us to form a true picture of Syria under the Franks. The old idea that it was a spasmodic effort, born of superstition and a chivalric love of adventure, which speedily spent its force and left no trace save in the pages of romantic fiction, is curiously incorrect. To the crusades Europe owed the downfall of feudalism, the birth of civil and religious freedom, and the increase of learning, the arts and sciences. Upon Syria their effect was more immediate, though less permanent. The early Crusaders were adventurers, it is true, but they proved themselves as successful in statesmanship as in war. They organized their conquests into a feudal kingdom "as fully assigned, cultivated, and administered as any part of contemporary France or England." The code of laws under which the land was governed, the famous Assizes of Jerusalem, showed a wisdom and intelligence far beyond the age. The peace and prosperity which the people enjoyed under them is testified to, not only by the chroniclers and pilgrims, but by the remains of their massive buildings, churches, monasteries, castles, and harbors, more numerous than those of any former conquerors. Few European cities, indeed, like Jerusalem before her capture by Saladin, could point to walls crumbling with age and disuse, and boast that they had not seen the face of an enemy for ninety years.

But we are not concerned now with the direct or indirect results of the Crusades, interesting as this subject is in the light of our present knowledge. Christendom, in the way characteristic of the nineteenth century, is again endeavoring to take possession of the Holy Land, and the inquiry which this octocentenary suggests is, How do the conditions in 1895 compare with those in 1095? At first thought it would seem as if there could be nothing but sharp contrasts, but more careful consideration shows that the resemblances are possibly more numerous and deeper than the differences. The Turk was the master then, as he is now. It was his conquest of the land twenty years before, in fact, which was the immediate cause of the Crusades. Up to this time the Arab caliphs had welcomed and protected the Christian pilgrims and merchants. But now Europe thrilled with passionate indignation at the pitiful story, told by Peter the Hermit and repeated by Pope Urban in the great square at Clermont, of the sufferings of Christians at the hands of the fierce Seljuks. Twice within the last twenty years, in Bulgaria in 1876 and in Armenia last summer, has the Turk proved to a horror-stricken world that he is unchanged—that as he treated Christians then he treats them now, when he has the opportunity. Eight centuries ago a practically united Europe drove him from the land which he ravaged. To-day his presence is endured there simply because the Powers cannot agree upon his successor.

The inhabitants of the land are nearly the same in race, religion, manner of life, and mutual hatreds as they were when Godfrey of Bouillon was chosen to rule over them. The modern traveller finds them all there to-day, the Syrian and Maronite Christians, the Druses of Lebanon, the Moslem of the town, the wandering Bedouin of the plain, the Turkish lord, and the cringing Jew. Only the Assassins have disappeared, to be worthily replaced by the lawless Circassians. And moving among them is the same ceaseless throng of pilgrims passing from one holy site to another, of every Christian nationality, of every rank and class and degree of piety and intelligence. They come from farther afield, the perils and difficulties of the pilgrimage are vastly lessened, and their relations to Rome may have changed, but otherwise there is little essential difference to be observed between the mediæval palmer and Cook's tourist.

Nor is it pure fancy which sees a resemblance to the great military orders to which the Crusades gave birth, the Hospitallers, Templars, and Teutonic Knights, in the monastic houses of the Roman and Greek Churches and in the missions of Protestant England, Germany, and America. And it would almost seem as if the land was about to fall into their hands,

as it did for a time into those of the warrior monks. A fourth part of Jerusalem is said to be the property of the Russian Church, which also owns and occupies with churches, hospitals, and inns a large tract outside the walls, as well as in many other parts of Palestine. In like manner, though not to the same extent, the Roman and Armenian Churches have acquired land and built fortress-like convents surrounded by the dwellings of their retainers, have planted vineyards and gardens. The Protestant colonists who are doing the most to give the land a European aspect with their vine-covered villages, the Temple Christians of Würtemberg, have adopted the very name of the men whose work but not whose methods they have taken up. They have laid aside sword and shield for the Bible, the spelling-book, and the medicine-chest.

The commercial relations between Syria and Europe were far more important in 1095 than they are to-day. Then the Italian ships brought the wealth of Persia, India, and China from the Syrian seaports to Europe. The stopping of this trade by the Turks was one of the deeper causes of the Crusades, and without the aid of the Italian fleets their success would have been impossible. With the extension of the Akka-Damascus Railway, now being built, to the Euphrates a part of this commerce will doubtless return. In one slight particular it is being curiously reproduced. Among the products transported to Europe by the ships of Amalfi and Genoa was bitumen from the Dead Sea. And now, after the lapse of centuries, during which the Sea has been deserted and an object of superstitious dread, boats are again engaged in picking up the floating bitumen for sale in Europe.

One of the marked differences between the eleventh and the nineteenth centuries is the manner in which the Jew is treated in Syria. The Crusader hated and oppressed him. To-day he is finding a secure and peaceful home once more in the Promised Land. There are at least eighteen Jewish colonies in Palestine, and there are 40,000 dwelling in and about Jerusalem. While some live in the deepest poverty, the objects of a mistaken charity, many are cultivating the land or are engaged in industrial pursuits. Another difference between the two ages is that, in the earlier, Europe received more from Syria than she gave, the learning of the East, its arts and sciences. Now she is repaying the debt. She has given it a literature, by translations of the Bible and other works into the Arabic, while Western civilization, with its potent adjuncts of steam and electricity, is already changing the face of the land.

LONDON'S INDEPENDENT GALLERIES.

LONDON, April 29, 1895.

ONE has been long accustomed to look outside the Academy for whatever is vital, or original, or individual in the work of British painters. Hitherto in England there have been two chief headquarters for the two chief groups of Independents. The New Gallery, inheriting the traditions of the Grosvenor, has offered shelter to Burne-Jones and his school; the New English Art Club has been a centre for the younger men who also have disdained academic restrictions, but whose sympathies are with modern movements rather than primitive revivals. For a time, the Grafton seemed about to provide an English refuge for the Glasgow men, but it has not fulfilled the promise of its first exhibitions. There are still but the two galleries to uphold a standard of independence.

Fortunately, this year both have opened before the Academy—the New English Art Club several weeks ago, the New Gallery to-day—so that there is time to give them the preliminary attention which is unquestionably their due. It is curious that, different and opposing as are their respective artistic creeds, both alike begin to show signs of exhaustion. It is depressing, as well as curious, in the case of the New English Art Club, whose members are only just fairly embarked upon their career. The little organization is not much more than ten years of age, and it started with the most excellent intentions. Its aims, according to English canons, were distinctly revolutionary; in their gallery you could smell the powder, as I heard an enthusiastic, metaphorical French artist once express it. There was not one among them who was not preoccupied with genuine artistic problems; whose concern was not with harmony of color, or play of light, or beautiful arrangement of line, or technical dexterity, rather than the preaching of a sermon or the telling of a story in paint. Their first shows were distinctly interesting; their own work, if mainly experimental, was at least an experiment in the right direction, while they counted one or two members—Mr. Sargent for instance—who had already achieved a reputation among artists, and space was always spared for the canvases of those distinguished painters who were their true masters. But gradually a little clique within the club, taking matters into their own hands, succeeded in estranging all who were not in accord with them, the Glasgow men among the number. The supply of masterpieces by Monet and Degas gave out. Mr. Sargent has ceased to contribute regularly. And Mr. Furse, once a prominent member, seems at least to be reserving his more important pictures for other exhibitions. The result is that this spring their walls are covered with sketches and studies and experiments, but little else. The excellence of intention is still evident, but one seeks in vain for the actual accomplishment which surely, after all these years of apprenticeship, should now be forthcoming. And, as if the painters themselves had wearied of the tentative stage, the sketches and experiments have scarce the vigor and robustness and buoyancy revealed in the beginning. It is hard to account for the fact, but there it is to discourage all who believe in the club as a power for good. Certainly the show is far better than any other held in London; it never could sink to the commonplace level of the Institute or British Artists. But, though the average of intentions is high, it is not possible to point to any perfect achievements, unless to the very lovely paintings on silk by Mr. Charles Conder. What the artist has undertaken to do he has done; he has broken down the barrier of aims and experiments which holds back the others, and has painted two little pictures complete in themselves, beautiful schemes of color. Beyond these, nothing is to note unless it be the improvement of one man, Mr. Anning Bell, the new promise held out by a second all but unknown. Mr. Walter Cadby. The members with names more familiar continue to rest on their very meagre laurels. Mr. Steer, it is true, produces very marvellous sketches, but it is not too exacting to expect from him, by this time, canvases more finished and less obviously studies for pictures.

If the movement represented in the New Gallery seems weakening, disappointment is less poignant. The Neo Primitives were doomed from the first to disappear; their methods were too artificial, their attitude too self-conscious, their influence too unhealthy. They, or their original Pre-Raphaelite leaders, may have given the impetus to the Rosicrucianism, or mysticism, which has had such a vogue in France and Germany and Belgium. But with men like Böcklin and Stuck, like Khnopff and Aman-Jean, the first business of the painter was acknowledged to be to learn how to paint. Technical proficiency has always been disdained by the English primitive, until he has tumbled, as was inevitable, into the inanity that now prevails at the New Gallery. Academic banality is not more disheartening than his sham naïveté. Of course, this does not apply to Sir Edward Burne-Jones, who is much to the fore this year. He exhibits no less than three large designs and two portraits. In all, he has carried out very much the same scheme of color—that arrangement of blue and green which has already occurred in several of his decorations. In all he introduces the characteristic "Burne-Jones" type, so that even "The Lady Windsor," in his portrait of her, seems but another version of the "Sleeping Beauty" who hangs near; the little "Dorothy Drew" but a plump infant edition of Lucifer, who falls, to such fine decorative purpose, in the most successful of his contributions. This really shows him at his best. The procession of fallen angels makes a beautiful sweeping line down the long narrow canvas; the blue of the heavens and the blue green of the angels' armor yield a fine, stately harmony, with not a touch of the sickliness or morbid pallor that disfigures the "Sleeping Beauty," an early design of the fourth picture in the Brier Rose series. The effect is obtained by a strange combination of water color and pastel, which perhaps no other artist would have ventured upon in a work designed on so large a scale. By comparison, the "Wedding of Psyche" sinks into ineffectiveness, and seems hardly worth the considerable proportions in which it has been executed.

But, whether altogether successful or not, between the work of Burne-Jones and that of his followers a great gulf lies fixed. His, at its feeblest, commands respect; theirs, at its strongest, it is kinder to ignore. From it, indeed, one turns with something like relief even to a portrait by Mr. Holman Hunt, who once more exhibits in the New Gallery, only to show, however, that his unpleasant mannerisms at last have mastered him completely. M. Khnopff, a mystic of another school, in (for him) a very mediocre production, called "Sous les Arbres," explains that mysticism and technique are not necessarily at daggers drawn: his knight holding a wand is little more than a white silhouette against a wooded background, but an exquisitely painted jewel at his neck and a carefully drawn clasp at his waist prove simplicity to be intentional and not a mere makeshift.

When all is said, the Primitives are in woful minority. From Academical highways and any chance by-ways, pictures have had to be sought, that galleries may be entirely filled.

There are rooms which seem but an annex of Burlington House; and the sad part of it is that the outside element is equally feeble and incompetent. It is no exaggeration to say that it contributes but one striking work, Mr. Sargent's portrait of Miss Ada Rehan. This, it must be confessed, is not one of Mr. Sargent's triumphs. The color is all but offensive. The tall figure in the white satin gown is set against a tapestry background, in which a dull dirty gray predominates; no incomparable harmony is presented as in the lovely "Lady Agnew." But, to turn from Mr. Shannon's or the Hon. John Collier's pink-cheeked dolls to this tall, stately Miss Rehan with the sallow, somewhat elderly face and the disordered gray hair, is to be confronted with a woman who lives within the frame, a woman who rejoices in strongly marked character, a woman whose face is to be remembered as one remembers the Philip of Velasquez or Bellini's Doge. The pose, as she stands playing with her fan, her shoulders well back, her head well poised on the graceful throat, is magnificent; and the sheen and folds of the gown are rendered with a full flowing brush, delightful in the freedom and knowledge so unostentatiously displayed. For the mere rendering of character, Mr. Sargent has seldom done anything finer. One would like to blot out the background, which is a feeble and unpleasant echo of the flat gray tone in that part of his decoration for the Boston Library which he showed in last spring's Academy.

There is nothing to compare with the "Miss Rehan." Mr. Shannon may have surpassed himself in one portrait, of a little girl; Mr. John Reid may be uncommonly good in another, of "Mrs. Arthur Sanderson," but they are students feeling their way where Mr. Sargent is the master. Nor do the landscapes excite more lavish enthusiasm. There is a beautiful example of Mr. Peppercorn and Mr. Edward Stott. Mr. Alfred Parsons and Mr. Arthur Lemon are, as ever, observant and studious. Little else arrests the attention or calls for special description. Certainly the independent galleries this year have failed to justify their existence. Whether this is because, at last, the Academy has adopted a more liberal policy and is encouraging the artist, will be made clear once Burlington House has opened its doors for its summer exhibition. N. N.

Correspondence.

THE MADISON LETTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter of "N.," which you print this week, strikes me as a very peculiar piece of reasoning. Your correspondent assumes that the Madison letter "shows that all the learned arguments upon the economic question what is a direct tax . . . may be thrown into the waste-paper basket." He says, further, that, "*indirect taxes* were taxes procured indirectly by 'requisition' on the States; *direct taxes* were taxes laid *directly* by the Federal Government." He says further: "The framers of the Constitution evidently had never looked at the subject from a politico-economic point of view; they had never given a thought to the philosophy of taxation; the term 'direct taxes,' as they used it, did not refer to the kind or character or nature of the tax, but to the fact that such taxes were . . . to be laid . . . directly upon the taxpayer by the newly constituted taxing power."

These confident assertions, so contrary to the testimony of the *Federalist* and of the Debates on the Constitution, are all deduced from the Madison letter, which, however, flatly contradicts them in the following words: "The only question will be whether direct taxes shall be raised by the General Government itself, or whether the General Government shall require the State Governments to raise them." Now, Madison was certainly not the man to write nonsense; but if by "direct taxes" he meant taxes raised by the General Government and not raised by the State Governments, the passage last quoted would be nothing but nonsense, as anybody can see by substituting for the words "direct taxes" therein the definition of those words propounded by "N."

Secondly, what becomes of duties and excises? Are they not taxes? And are they direct or indirect? If the former, they would have to be apportioned among the States; if the latter, they could not, under "N.'s" definition, be levied by the General Government at all, but only by the State Governments. In either case, "N.'s" reasoning terminates in impossible conclusions. A. T.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In corroboration of the position taken by "N." in his letter published in your issue of May 16, may I be permitted to offer the following? It will be noticed that while Madison made the terms "requisition" and "indirect taxes" synonymous, another great Constitution framer—Gouverneur Morris—makes "indirect taxes" have a very different significance, but gives to "direct" taxes the same meaning as Madison.

In July, 1787, the Federal Convention was struggling with the question of *representation*. The points at issue were: (1) Should slaves be counted as population, as the South insisted they should? and (2) If so, how should they be counted? All the world now knows of the compromise which settled this dispute. But for days during the Convention the discussion was violent, and at one time seemed to threaten the disruption of the Convention and the consequent loss of the cause. It was at this time that Gouverneur Morris, a delegate for Pennsylvania, proposed, because he was an uncompromising abolitionist, that taxation should be in proportion to representation. Hardly had he made the proposal when, to his utter consternation, he saw that it struck at the very root of the structure they were trying to erect, a strong central government; and he hastened to explain that by taxation he meant *direct* taxation. "It would," he said, "be inapplicable to indirect taxes on exports and imports and consumption." Bancroft observes (Hist. U. S., vol. 6, Rev., p. 266), "By the temerity of one man, the United States were precluded from deriving an equitable revenue from real property. Morris soon saw what evil he had wrought, but he vainly strove to retrieve it."

The course of Gouverneur Morris in this memorable Convention, his strong convictions as expressed in many of his letters still preserved, and even his attitude on the question of slavery, are conclusive evidence that he did not believe in the system of "requisitions." Yet here is a clear reference to *direct* taxation. He had already defined *indirect* taxation, and he again defines it in the words quoted above. He clearly uses the words antithetically. As indirect taxes were taxes on imports, exports, and consumption, direct taxes were taxes made upon the citizens of the States; and *all* taxes, no matter of what character, that were so made were direct taxes, and should be levied in proportion to representation. Congress clearly has a constitutional right to levy taxes upon almost any kind of property or income from property; only such taxes must be laid in the manner prescribed by the Constitution for the levying of *direct* taxes. The income tax as laid by Congress was an unconstitutional tax, but not upon the grounds alleged in the decision of the Supreme Court. O. K. Stuart.

1528 N. 18th St., Philadelphia, May 21.

THE PINCKNEY DRAFT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some months since, a question was raised in your columns as to the authenticity of the so-called Pinckney draft of the United States Constitution, and a wish was expressed that the original MS. could be examined. As is known, the Journal of the Convention was printed when John Quincy Adams was Secretary of State. Upon turning to the "copy" which was used in that publication, I found that the Pinckney draft was merely a copy, made by some clerk of the Department, and did not even bear mention of the fact that the paper of which it was a copy had been received from Pinckney more than thirty years after the event. One or two emendations were in the handwriting of Adams, but nothing else to show the history of the document. The officials of the Department made a search for any new material that would throw light upon the matter. This was of some importance, as Chief-Justice Fuller quoted the draft in his opinion on the income-tax question, in the common belief that the paper was entirely reliable. I have, through the courtesy of the Department, been allowed to see the letter from Pinckney enclosing this draft, or paper. As a matter of historical interest I think it worth printing in full. With the letter was a copy of the paper in Pinckney's handwriting. In the clause or section quoted by Mr. Fuller, the only change is in the second word, which the copyist of the Department made singular instead of plural. The sentence should read "The proportions [instead of proportion] of direct taxation shall be regulated by the whole number of inhabitants of every description." I do not think this letter of Mr. Pinckney has ever been printed. Its contents are sufficient to throw considerable doubt upon the so-called Pinckney draft, in certain details; it does establish the general accuracy of other parts.

Respectfully yours,

Worthington C. Ford.

Washington, D. C., May 14, 1895.

Charles Pinckney to John Quincy Adams.

In Charleston, Dec. 30th 1818

Sir

On my return to this city as I promised I examined carefully all the numerous notes & papers which I had retained relating to the federal Convention. among them I found several rough draughts of the Constitution I proposed to the Convention. although they differed in some measure from each other in the wording & arrangement of the articles, yet they were all substantially the same. they all proceeded upon the idea of throwing out of view the attempt to amend the existing Confederation (then a very favorite idea of a number) & proceeding de novo. of a Division of the Powers of Government into legislative, executive & judicial & of making the Government to operate directly upon the People & not upon the States. My Plan was substantially adopted in the sequel except as to the Senate & giving more power to the Executive than I intended. the force of Vote which the small & mid-

dling States had in the Convention prevented our obtaining a proportional representation in more than one branch & the great powers given to the President were never intended to have been given to him while the Convention continued in that patient & coolly deliberative situation in which they had been for nearly the whole of the preceding five months of their session, nor was it until within the last week or ten days that almost the whole of the Executive Department was altered. I can assure you as a fact that for more than Four months & a half out of five the power of exclusively making treaties, appointing public Ministers & Judges of the Supreme Court was given to the Senate after numerous debates & considerations of the subject both in Committee of the Whole & in the House. this I not only aver but can prove by printed Documents in my possession to have been the case. & should I ever have the pleasure to see you & converse on this subject will state to you some things relative to the Business that may be new & perhaps surprising to to you. the veil of secrecy from the Proceedings of the Convention being removed by Congress & but very few of the members alive would make disclosures now of the scenes there acted less improper than before. with the aid of the Journal & the numerous notes & memorandums I have preserved it would now be in my power to give a view of the almost insuperable difficulties the Convention had to encounter & of the conflicting opinions of the members & I believe I should have attempted it had I not always understood Mr Madison intended it. he alone I believed possessed & retained more numerous & particular notes of their proceedings than myself. I will thank you Sir to do me the honor to send me or to get the President to direct a copy of the Journal of the Convention to be sent me as also of the secret Journals of Congress should it be considered not improper in me to make the request.

I have already informed you I have several rough draughts of the Constitution I proposed & that they are all substantially the same differing only in words & the arrangement of the Articles. at the distance of nearly thirty-two years it is impossible for me now to say which of the 4 or 5 draughts I have was the one. But enclosed I send you the one I believe was it. I repeat however that they are substantially the same differing only in form and unessentials. it may be necessary to remark that very soon after the Convention met I changed & avowed candidly the change of my Opinion on giving the power to Congress to revise the State Laws in certain cases & in giving the exclusive Power to the Senate to declare War thinking it safer to refuse the first altogether & to vest the latter in Congress. I will thank you to acknowledge by a line the receipt of the Draught & this

With very great respect and esteem,
I have the honor to be your most
obedient servant
CHARLES PINCKNEY.

THE "TRINUMMUS" AT SYRACUSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An event of no little interest for American scholars took place at Syracuse, N. Y., on the evening of May 16, when the "Trinummus" of Plautus was rendered before a pleased and appreciative audience by members of the Senior Class of the University. The creditable production of an ancient play in the original tongue is a matter of greater difficulty than the public at large can possibly imagine. The preliminary questions as to scenery, costumes, music, metrical delivery, etc., etc., are not only very numerous, but often extremely difficult of solution. Some, indeed, cannot be theoretically answered with absolute certainty, yet they must all be decided in practice if the play is to be given at all. For example, the directions of Pollux and of Donatus with regard to the masks and the colors appropriated to the various typical characters of comedy are, as every scholar well knows, neither complete nor always sustained by the extant monuments. Pollux records the traditions of the Greek New Comedy; Donatus supplies, but in much less detail, similar rules for the Roman *Fabula Palliata*, to which class of plays the "Trinummus" belongs. But Donatus flourished about the middle of the fourth century of our era; he has doubtless given us the stage traditions of his own day. When these differ from those of the Attic New Comedy, may we rightly infer that the difference existed from the very first? Did Plautus himself alter, to that extent, the traditions of the Greek stage, as he certainly introduced Roman customs, allusions, ideas into the text of his adaptations? or did these changes occur later? This is no idle question; for, if we adopt changes not belonging to the age of Plautus, but to some later, perhaps post-Terentian age, are we not bound, in consistency, to put our Roman actors into masks?

This is but one example of the many questions which Prof. Smalley had to settle before he could put the play in study. That all such points were duly considered and passed upon, any scholar who was present at this performance could readily see. Even to the fiery wig of the slave Stasimus, everything had been carefully considered and decided. Some points, of course, must have raised doubts in the minds of those spectators who were most at home in such questions. For our part, we may say that they appeared to us to have been generally decided in the most judicious way. Thus, it seemed to us particularly wise to limit the chanting of the *Cantica* to a few verses of each, the rather as there is considerable difference of opinion among the editors of Plautus as to the metre and the length of some of the verses. In each case the actor soon passed from actual song into a sort of intoned *recitativo*, after having sufficiently called attention to the quasi-lyric nature of the passage.

The point upon which we should be most inclined to differ from the theories adopted in this rendition concerns the matter of elision. While, at the Harvard rendering of the "Phormio," elision was thought by some competent judges to have been overdone, we could not but think that it was insufficiently marked in the "Trinummus." In this opinion we were confirmed by observing that, while pronouncing syllables not intended to be heard, the actors were often compelled to crowd two syllables into the time allotted to one, with the result that, now and then, a long syllable was made short, to the discomfort of the trained ear.

These not very numerous slips, and an occasional English vowel-sound, especially the so-called "natural vowel" in syllables ending in "r," were the only defects which a fair critic would feel disposed to note in this very meritorious performance. Great credit belongs to everybody concerned: to the young people, who gave it so much care and labor; to Prof. Frey, the composer of the appropriate music; to Prof. Smalley, upon whom fell most of the heavy work; and to the enlightened and distinguished Chancellor under whose auspices and by whose substantial aid the University has rendered this service to American scholarship. FRANCIS PHILIP NASH.

HOBART COLLEGE, May 17, 1895.

SOME DANTE QUESTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your number for April 18 you have been good enough to notice my little book, 'Dante: His Times and His Work.' One is always sure of intelligent and good-natured criticism of Dante books in the United States. But you ask a question: "Where does Dante tell us that he wrote the *Vita Nuova* before he was twenty-five?" Well, I should say in the first chapter of the 'Convito': "et io in quella [*sc.* V. N.] dinanzi all' entrata di mia gioventù parlai." As, later on, somewhere in Book IV., he says that *gioventù* begins at twenty-five, it seems to me that one must be *Germanis Germanior, Rhœtis Rhœtior* to find any other meaning in the words.

Now in return will you tell me where you find that Guido Cavalcanti died in August? I must admit that I was not aware of the other version of Pietro di Dante to which you refer; nor have I had the advantage of reading Signor Luigi Rocca's discussion of the passage about Beatrice. I should be only too glad if it could be proved genuine, because it would settle the question in the sense I believe correct. But I confess that, as you quote it, it bears to me all the look of a fourteenth or early fifteenth-century gloss. May I say that I did mention Scartazzini's one-volume edition on p. 197?

When you say that Blanc's 'Vocabolario' was originally written in French you convict me of an oversight. I have used the Italian version for twenty years, but never read the preface, and supposed that the German version was the original form.

Yours faithfully, A. J. BUTLER.

WOOD END, WEYBRIDGE, ENGLAND, May 6, 1895.

[The manner in which we put our question as to Mr. Butler's statement was not happy. We were, of course, familiar with the passage in the 'Convito' to which he refers, but we had long since ceased to give it the exact interpretation that seems to proceed from Dante's later definition of *gioventù*. Dante was twenty-five in May or June, 1290; Beatrice died June 9, 1290. Yet the 'Vita Nuova' plainly was written some time after this event. Indeed, it mentions the anniversary of her death in 1291, and almost certainly events of 1292. Clearly, then, Dante did not write the book before he was twenty-five; and his statement in the 'Convito' must be taken as loose, either in respect to the date or in respect to the meaning of *gioventù*. We prefer the latter alternative.

The date of the death of Guido Cavalcanti was discovered by Prof. Del Lungo, and given by him in his great work, 'Dino Compagni e la sua Cronica,' vol. ii., p. 98, n. 26. It appears in an entry in the *Obituario* of the Church of S. Reparata in Florence, which runs: "IIII Kal. [Sept.] MCCC. Q[uiescit] Guido f. dñi Cavalcantis de Cavalcantis." This gives the date of burial. Guido's death must have taken place one or two days earlier.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE journals of Townsend Harris, first American envoy in Japan, kept at Shimoda and in Yedo, 1856-1858, will be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. They have been edited, with a biography and a chapter on Japan at the end of the century, by Dr. Wm. Elliot

Griffis. The contents will probably surprise none more than the Japanese themselves. It is the story of success won by one man without ships or soldiers, but mainly by patience, enlightenment, tact, and unswerving truth.

J. M. Bowles, No. 286 Roxbury Street, Boston, has nearly ready 'Notes Critical and Biographical' on the well-known private art collection of the late W. T. Walters of Baltimore, by R. B. Grenelle, printed in red and black on Michallet paper, with embellishments by Bruce Rogers; and in preparation an edition of the Book of Ecclesiastes in the form of an illuminated MS., engrossed by Mr. Rogers, limited to fifty copies, only forty of which will be for sale, printed on Japan paper and bound in parchment.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, are about to publish 'Government & Co, Limited,' an examination of the tendencies of Privilege in the United States, by Horatio W. Seymour, and 'The Eye in its Relation to Health,' by Chalmer Prentice, M.D.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will issue in June the forty-two articles on Lincoln printed in the *Independent* on April 4. They announce also 'In the Land of Lorna Doone,' with other pleasurable excursions in England, by William H. Rideing, 'Punishment and Reformation,' by Dr. F. H. Wines, and a new, illustrated edition of 'The Narrative of Captain Coignet, Soldier of the Empire.'

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'Exercises in Old English,' by Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale.

A monograph on Thackeray, by Adolphus Jack; 'Miscellaneous Studies,' by the late Walter Pater; a handbook of 'Picture Posters,' by C. T J. Hiatt; 'Passages of the Bible, Chosen for their Literary Beauty and Interest,' by J. G. Frazer; 'The Natural History of Aquatic Insects,' by Prof. Miall; and a 'Text-book of Operative Surgery,' are in the press of Macmillan & Co.

Charles Scribner's Sons publish this week 'The Adventures of Captain Horn,' by Frank R. Stockton.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly bring out 'European and American Cuisine,' by Mrs. Gesine Lemcke.

From J. B. Lippincott Co. we are soon to have the Memoirs of Gen. James Longstreet of the Confederate Army, and an historical novel of the Delaware Valley, 'The Colonial Wooing,' by Dr. C. C. Abbott.

The Life of Sonya Kovalevsky is on T. Fisher Unwin's latest list; it is by several hands.

The reprint of selected portions of the 'Voyages and Travels' of Captain Basil Hall (T. Nelson & Sons) falls in with the prevailing Napoleonic recrudescence. It is full of the experience of a man-of-war actively cruising in the wars of the Empire, and describes with much detail the battle of Corunna, which Captain Hall witnessed, and the subsequent embarkation of Sir John Moore's reduced force, minus their ill-fated commander. Captain Hall was a graphic if prolix writer, and boys will still be interested in a narrative designed for them, yet not composed in a manner perceptibly different from that appropriate for adults. There are a few rather cheap illustrations.

Ulm, Austerlitz, and Jena are the battle-pieces *par excellence* of the Memoirs of Count de Ségur ('An Aide de-Camp of Napoleon,' D. Appleton & Co). We have already given some account of this interesting book, an abridgment of the eight volumes of 1873. It has been translated by H. A. Patchett-Martin none too well or idiomatically, and provided with an index.

The Dent-Macmillan reprint of Defoe, under the editorial care of Mr. George A. Aitken, continues with 'Memoirs of a Cavalier; or a Military Journal of the Wars in Germany and the Wars in England [1632–1648],' which is critically adjudged to have been a pure compilation—in other words, an historical romance, but of a high order. The same publishers have added "King Henry VI." in its three parts to the delectable little "Temple Shakspere."

The second volume, 'Arne,' in the issue of an English version of Björnson's novels (Macmillan) is introduced by an obituary tribute to the translator, Mr. Walter Low, who has been cut off in his prime. He has left completed his translation of 'The Fisher Maiden.'

A life almost as short as Mr. Low's was that of Jean Carriès, the French sculptor, who died before the article upon him and his works in the volume of the *Century* just completed (November, 1894–April, 1895) was printed. The illustrations of this artist's busts are among the most striking in the volume. For the rest, Prof. Sloane's pictorial Life of Napoleon dominates everything else, but in the political line we may recall the Bismarckian head of Crispi accompanying Mr. Stillman's sketch of that statesman; in fiction, Mr. Crawford's "Casa Braccio"; in social matters, the glimpses of "Festivals at American Colleges for Women"; and in mechanics, the account of Tesla's inventions and Maxim's exposition of the art of navigating the air.

A new and excellent edition of Mr. Hall Caine's 'Shadow of a Crime' (Boston: Joseph Knight Co.) deserves honorable mention. The story has not been heretofore published in this country, except in a cheap paper form, which, together with the repellent title, limited its circulation, especially as Mr. Caine had not then made a reputation. But he has written nothing since better worth reading, and it has the advantage of being less desperately sad than 'The Deemster' and some others. It is as good for Cumberland as 'Lorna Doone' is for Devon. The best of the illustrations are those reproducing photographs of the Lake Country scenery.

'A Brief Descriptive Geography of the Empire State,' by C. W. Bardeen (Syracuse: Bardeen), is an effort in the right direction, inasmuch as it presents a large body of local material, generally well illustrated, from which teachers and scholars in New York may learn much about their own State. The method employed, however, is unsatisfactory, inasmuch as it fails to base the topographical descriptions on a strong natural foundation, and further fails to bring forward sufficiently the many intimate connections existing between geographical form and the conditions of human life, occupation, and movement. Long Island Sound is spoken of as "the American Mediterranean," this being quoted from some foolish person who was so unwise as to publish so unapt a comparison. The departure of the Hudson below Newburgh from the Great Valley which continues southwestward into New Jersey and beyond, is not brought out. "The Hudson River, Lake George, and Lake Champlain lie in a narrow and rugged valley reaching from the Bay of New York to the St. Lawrence." The real facts cannot be learned from such a statement. Instead of following this book with special geographies of each county, as the author proposes, a revision of the book itself with the object of lifting it to a proper level would be more advisable.

'Short Studies in Nature Knowledge,' an introduction to the science of physiography, by William Gee (Macmillan), is an entertaining little volume intended to serve as a reader and companion to geographical text-books. Its subjects are well chosen and generally well illustrated. The weakness of the book, as of many others of its class, results from the insufficient acquaintance of the author with the higher lines of study on the subject that he treats.

Mr. Sidney S. Rider, Providence, has greatly enhanced the value of his precious "Rhode Island Historical Tracts" by publishing an Index to the first series (Nos. 1–19). One has but to give it a cursory glance to perceive that it is a little gazetteer and biographical dictionary in one. The rubrics Providence, Rhode Island, Newport, Samuel Gorton, Roger Williams, William Coddington, are ready examples. Some additions and corrections to the Tracts are noted in a preface and duly incorporated in the Index.

The first memorial to reach us of the tercentenary of the death of Tasso (April 25) is that of the San Sebastian Circolo Romano di Studi, a folio of 72 pages freely illustrated with portraits, views, and an autograph of the poet. The Pope himself gracefully leads the list of contributors, of whom De Gubernatis is perhaps the most widely known. The various works of Tasso and his own personality are commented on in various phases, and there are several valuable bibliographical articles. Prof. A. Avoli recommends the study of his letters; Alfonso Bartoli, with many curious details concerning the numerous editions of the 'Gerusalemma Liberata,' concludes that the most authentic and the most approved by the author (amid his general dislike for all) was that of Febo Bonnà, published by Baldini at Ferrara in 1581. Dr. G. Fortebracci points out the sources of certain passages in the same poem. Prof. E. Fabiani reviews the many attempts to dramatize the life of Tasso, and this theme is pursued by Prof. B. Morsolin in his notice of the "Torquato Tasso" of Jacopo Cabianca. And, to conclude our partial summary of the contents with the most interesting of all, Prof. E. Salvadori gives copious examples of Tasso's marginal annotations of the 'Divine Comedy.'

The twenty-fifth anniversary of Prof. Langdell's connection with the Harvard Law School is gracefully recognized by his present and former colleagues in the faculty of that institution by the dedication to him of a series of essays which constitute the May number of the *Harvard Law Review*. The essays are for the most part sufficiently technical and recondite, but it is worthy of notice by the laity that Prof. Thayer attributes the exceptional liberality of Massachusetts law in the admission of the testimony of witnesses which the common law would exclude, in part to the presence of Quakers and Indians. The former refused to swear, and the belief of the latter in false gods made their oaths extremely unsatisfactory to the Puritan lawyers. But as their evidence, like that of the negroes in the Southern States, was frequently necessary, concessions were made which undermined the common-law rule. Prof. J. C. Gray, it may be added, in his essay upon judicial precedents, brings out the true nature of the doctrine known as *stare decisis*, to which the income-tax litigation has given such prominence. "The highest courts of the respective States, as well as the Supreme Court of the United States, all consider that they have the power to depart from their former rulings, however inexpedient it may be to exercise it."

Recent bulletins of the Museum of Compara-

tive Zoölogy at Harvard College give accounts of observations made by Alexander Agassiz on the Bahamas and Bermudas. Along with many other students of coral reefs and islands in recent years, Agassiz doubts the sufficiency of Darwin's theory of their origin. "Investigators have been carried away by the simplicity of the theory of subsidence propounded by Darwin, and it is only of late years, since a mass of observations have been made which could not be explained by the prevailing theory, that we have at last realized how complicated the problem is." No substitute theory is offered, the later bulletin closing with: " . . . how little we as yet know of the history of the formation of coral reefs."

The origin of Lake Zurich is ably summarized by Aeppli in the thirty-fourth number of the reports on the geological map of Switzerland. Basing his conclusions on the studies of Heim, Wettstein, Penck, Dupasquier, and others, Aeppli shows that the valley in which the lake lies was eroded after the first glacial epoch, by which the high level gravels (*Deckenschotter*) were spread over the Alpine foreland; and that, by a transverse orogenic deformation, the valley was locally depressed and converted into a lake before the advent of the glaciers of later epochs. The problem thus solved is of peculiar interest, because Lake Zurich is one of the many piedmont lakes whose origin by glacial erosion has been confidently announced by many geologists; but it now appears that the peculiar features of valley formation and deformation with which the lake is intimately associated cannot be explained, either in process or in time, by glacial action.

In the *Annales de Géographie* for April, M. Émile Gautier gives an account, chiefly orographical, of western Madagascar, the results of his travels during the last three years in that island. It is accompanied by an excellent map, colored so as to show the various heights. M. Ed. Blanc treats of the construction of the Transcaspian Railway, dwelling especially upon the difficulties encountered in bridging the Oxus, and the methods adopted (not yet satisfactory, however) for protecting the track from the blowing sand. Comparing it with the proposed Trans-Saharan line, he calls attention to the fact that in no part of the Russian road are the dunes more than eighteen metres high, while in the great desert they are sometimes more than a hundred. The sand also has a stability, being covered with snow at least once in the year, which it does not have in Africa. The French, again, will find it vastly more difficult to secure a sufficient supply of water for their road, or a fuel as cheap as the refuse petroleum used by the Russians.

The London *Journal of Education* for May prints in a supplement the Hon. Lionel A. Tollemache's "Recollections of Jowett." An intimacy of many years, with notes of several conversations, furnishes Mr. Tollemache with much new and rich material; while his appreciations of Jowett are based on kindred tastes and studies, and a wide acquaintance with the men and movements in the midst of which the Master of Balliol passed his life. Short of his forthcoming biography, we know not where to look for more light on the man and his opinions.

—Chitral and some incidents of a residence in it two years ago are described in an entertaining way by Capt. F. E. Younghusband in the *Geographical Journal* for May. He mentions, among other things, seeing in the neighboring state of Hunza a watercourse constructed by the natives for artificial irrigation, which in one part went through a tunnel "scooped out entirely with ibex-horns." Iron tools, he adds, "were until recently almost unknown in the country." This recalls the fact that the Siwashes of our northwest coast still shape their cedar canoes with buck-horn adzes. Capt. S. L. Hinde gives a rather gruesome account of the Belgian expedition which he accompanied across the Free State, and which destroyed the strongholds of the Arab slave-hunters on the upper Congo. One of their towns had four gates, "each approached by a very handsome pavement of human skulls. . . . I counted more than two thousand skulls in the pavement of one gate alone. Almost every tree forming the boma was crowned with a human skull." One of the principal results of the destruction of the great market towns of Nyangwe and Kasongo will be the diversion of the interior trade from Zanzibar to the Atlantic by the Congo. Within a few years there has been considerable activity shown in developing parts of the Free State territories. On the Kasai, three years ago, there was but one station. Now there are fourteen belonging to different companies. At that time there were no stations on the Sankuru. At present twelve are engaged in the collection of enormous quantities of India-rubber. Prof. B. H. Chamberlain tells of the distinctive customs of the Luchu islanders. Referring to the absolute seclusion of the ladies, he says that Japanese who have been long residents in the islands declare that they have never seen a Luchuan lady. On the other hand, every Japanese trader arriving in Luchu engages one of the numerous hetairæ, "to whom he intrusts everything, even to the management of his mercantile affairs; and when he departs, the girl sells to best advantage the articles confided to her charge, so that when her master comes back again she is able to render him a satisfactory account in which there is never any error or prevarication to the amount of a single penny." She keeps accounts involving tens of thousands of cash by means of knots tied in cords. The principal product of the islands is sugar, of which about thirty-four million pounds is annually exported to Japan. The Japanese are endeavoring to educate the children, and at the entrance to each village there is now written up the number of inhabitants and the number of children of school age.

—The National Sculpture Society's first independent exhibition, which closes to-day, has proved a success both as to the number of visitors and as to the general interest shown by the art-loving public. Sculpture, other than portrait sculpture, has heretofore been to this community a matter of museums—a matter of casts and of archæology. The few pieces of sculpture which decorate the fronts of New York buildings are placed high, and are lost in the size and mass of the large façade; moreover, the public has never learned to look for them, and then it is certain that they do not seriously modify the architectural effect. One who has frequented the galleries during the present exhibition, however, will have noted a very general interest in sculpture of all sorts—in statues and in reliefs, in large and in small pieces, in everything, in short, except pure decoration, for which nobody cares in this community except a few collectors. The pieces of pure sculpturesque imagining, such as Mr. C. H. Niehaus's "Scraper," or athlete using the strigil; Mr. J. S. Hartley's "Whirlwind," Mr. Olin Warner's "Diana," and Mr. F. W. Macmonnies's "Diana," "The Bacchante," and other statuettes; narrative pieces, such as Mr. Daniel C. French's "Gallaudet Teaching the Deaf-Mute Child," the bronze of which is in Washington; Mr. J. Q. A. Ward's "Pilgrim," the bronze of which is in Central Park, and Mr. H. A. Macneil's small bronze "Primitive Indians' Music"; even the portrait busts in all their varieties, from Mr. Ward's dignified work, No. 163, to Mr. Warner's baby bronze "Rosalie," in her tight-fitting cap, have received at least a part of the attention which is their due. Architectural sculpture itself it is well to see and judge in the gallery and in the plaster. Mr. Philip Martiny's "Commerce," as it stands in this exhibition, will send its admirers to his caryatids of the *Mail and Express* building. Mr. J. Massy Rhind's "Agriculture" we shall all look for when put up on the front of the American Surety Company's building, and from this we shall all look to the other five severe and formal figures which will stand in rank with it above our heads on Broadway. Mr. Warner's caryatids in the octagon gallery have done their work in a temporary structure, but may perhaps be called upon again: their artistic ability is not exhausted, and if there ever was a case for replicas, this is one. Mr. Herbert Adams's memorial bas-relief is known to a few as it is in the marble in the Judson Memorial Church; to see it here in the original plaster and in another light is a definite gain for art students. Mr. Karl Bitter's immense panel "Transportation" is now shown for the first time, and will be seen next in terracotta and in the waiting-room of a Philadelphia railway station. This work is so novel in significance, and in composition so strong and self-assertive, that it cannot be studied in too many lights or from too many points of view, physical and moral. In this exhibition the tree ferns mask its two extremities, and the design it is impossible to see in its completeness; moreover, the light has never been quite suited to its proper exhibition; the more need that all lovers of decorative sculpture should see it in Philadelphia when put up in its permanent place. Is there reason to hope that it will be better lighted there?

—The discovery by the public that the plasters are the true originals and deserve at least as careful study as the marble or the bronze, would alone suffice to justify this exhibition. Would it be impracticable to provide a permanent home for these same plasters? They are destroyed either in the bronze foundry or in the marble-cutter's shop, or else deliberately because no sculptor can find room to shelter them. Works that have been erected in bronze or in marble, in Washington, in the West, in the South, might have been shown in their original plaster at this exhibition, but that rents are too high, studios too small, statues too big. What if New York possessed a fire-proof structure, no matter how remote, no matter how plain and unarchitectural a place, where, in a good light and free from injury, the best of our annual production could be preserved? It would be invaluable for sculptors and for students, and even the general public would find it nearly as attractive as any permanent picture gallery. The National Sculpture Society might undertake this task with the certainty of ultimate if not immediate success.

—A joint-stock company of artists, men of letters, and patrons of art has been formed in Berlin for the purpose, among others, of publishing a periodical "devoted to creative art and to all the interests which spring from art and have no purposes but the promotion of

art." *Pan* is the name selected, as well for the association as for the periodical, of which latter the first number (for April and May) has just been received here (G. E. Stechert). In more ways than one it departs from the beaten path of art magazines. Its size is quarto, or, to be exact, 11x14½ inches; and although it contains only forty-eight pages and twelve full-page plates, it is printed on such heavy paper that its thickness is half an inch. Everything about it is lavishly artistic, even down to a minor detail like the tissue paper which protects the engravings and each sheet of which differs from the others in the design embossed on it like a water-mark. The typography is in itself a work of art, and offers a bewildering variety, a fantastic attempt being made to use for each article the precise kind of type adapted to the subject. Thus, a metrical translation of a weird Norwegian poem by Arne Garborg is so printed and illustrated as to resemble the mediæval German chap-books. The "motive" of the poem is a dance of villagers, every one of whom is shadowed by a beast expressive of his or her inmost character, as a bear, a goat, a sow, a goose, etc. Then, again, a French sonnet of Stéphane Mallarmé is reproduced in autograph. The illustrations offer specimens of the various species of engraving and process work. There is a fine heliogravure of a painting by Arnold Boecklin, "Perseus and Andromeda," an original etching by Max Liebermann, an original "vernis-mou" by Félicien Rops, a woodcut portrait of R. Schumann by Felix Vallotton, reproductions of two of Albrecht Dürer's rarer woodcuts, process-etchings of paintings by Fritz von Uhde and James Whistler, and of sculptures by Gustav Vigeland and Max Klinger. There is an original "glyptograph," a Sappho, by Maurice Dumont. The term glyptograph is a new name for a new thing—an embossed or relief print in water-color produced by pressing a sheet of damp paper into the depressions of a mould. The French call such prints "estampes de sculpteurs."

—The letterpress has somewhat of a *fin de siècle* cast, and several of the contributors belong to Max Nordau's company of degenerates, notably Friedrich Nietzsche and Paul Verlaine. The French poem of Verlaine, however, is unusually sane and intelligible, and inspired by a grim and acrid humor. Of indubitable literary importance is the opening chapter of a forthcoming volume of reminiscences by Theodor Fontane, poet and novelist, who has just celebrated his seventy-fifth birthday. Here, too, there is humor, but of a delightfully sunny and genial kind. If the whole book continues in the same strain, there is little risk in promising it an enthusiastic reception and an enduring fame. There is also an extract from another work soon to appear, a treatise on medals, by Alfred Lichtwark. The mode of publication of *Pan* is quite original. For its first year five numbers are announced, three of them bi-monthly, the other two quarterly, with a total output of 240 pages of text and seventy plates of illustrations. There are three editions, the general one of 1,500 copies, of which the subscription price is 75 marks ($18) a year, the *édition de luxe*, seventy numbered copies, 160 marks, and an artists' edition of thirty copies, not offered to the public, but reserved for stockholders; the owner of thirty 100 mark shares receiving a copy free, *in perpetuo*, while the owner of a single share pays 300 marks for it, with a sliding scale between these two extremes. The holder of twenty shares receives the *édition de luxe* free; of ten shares, the ordinary edition. Single copies of the latter cost twenty and thirty marks, according to size. *Pan* contains no advertisements.

—'Für meine Freunde' (Giessen: Roth) is a delightful volume of personal reminiscences by the eminent physiologist and physician Jacob Moleschott, who was born August 9, 1822, at Hertogenbosch in Holland, and died May 20, 1893, at Rome, where he had practised his profession and held the chair of physiology in the University since 1879. He pursued his studies almost entirely in Germany, first in the Gymnasium at Cleves and afterwards in the University of Heidelberg, where he was graduated as Doctor of Medicine in 1845. In order to be qualified to practise medicine in Holland it was necessary to have a diploma from a Dutch university; he therefore went to Leyden, where he passed a second examination, a so-called *colloquium doctum*, which, as the name implies, was little more than a pleasant conversation with the principal members of the medical faculty, for a couple of hours, on therapeutics and especially on endemic diseases in Holland. He then settled in Utrecht and devoted all the time he could spare from his professional duties to anatomical and physiological researches in connection with Mulder, Donders, and Van Deen; but his longing for a larger sphere of activity as a scientific investigator led him to habilitate in 1847 as privatdocent in the University of Heidelberg, where he was not only remarkably successful as a teacher, but also wrote several of his most important works, of which 'Lehre der Nahrungsmittel' and 'Der Kreislauf des Lebens' passed through five editions and made his reputation as a physiologist. It was in the book on food that, in speaking of the constitution and functions of the brain, he used the expression, "Without phosphorus no thought"; and Ludwig Feuerbach summed up its contents in the terse phrase, "Man is what he eats." Hunger is now generally recognized by scientists as the one great original impulse to human effort, and therefore the primal source of all civilization, and the means taken to appease it exert an immense influence upon the growth and character of the individual and the race and form an essential element of human culture. But Moleschott's theory of nutrition, although approved and openly endorsed by men like Humboldt, was caviare to the senate of the University of Heidelberg, who informed Moleschott that unless he ceased to corrupt the youth by his lectures and publications, the *venia docendi*, or permission to teach, would be withdrawn. The students published a vigorous protest against this defamation of their highly esteemed teacher, who, nevertheless, resolved to sever his connection with an institution in which the liberty of instruction existed only in name. Two years later, in 1856, he accepted a professorship in Zurich, whence he was called in 1861 to a similar position in Turin. The volume closes with an account of his life at the Swiss University.

RECENT AMERICAN POETRY.

A CASUAL list, prepared by some one in England, of forty living English poets has been expanded by some reverential American into "fifty masters of strong and vigorous English verse," and is going the rounds with steadily increasing numbers and epithets; and will probably reach the expanded assertion of a hundred living Englishmen, all Shaksperes. It is quite in keeping with our still lingering literary colonialism. So utterly mediocre are many of the names thus given in the English lists that they could easily be paralleled from the *Magazine of Poetry*. Thus much for quality, and for quantity it may fairly be said that the number of new poets, so called, appearing annually in this country is far greater than in England. As to their tendencies, as we have several times pointed out, the American bards are cruder and also more fresh and genuine; the Englishmen have more of artificiality and of cant, especially of French cant; when one strikes the balance, there is not much to choose.

The most interesting of the new brood of English poets are unquestionably of Celtic race, and often Catholics; and it is a remarkable fact that the most noticeable recent names on each side of the water are of that same faith—Francis Thompson in England and Father Tabb in America. The former, at least, dwells with a Brotherhood; the latter is a veritable priest, and also a Virginian, although his work is described in foreign newspapers as an emanation of the Puritan and New England muse. The true phenomenon, however, goes deeper than this. Non-Puritan though they be, the verses of this author—'Poems, by John B. Tabb' (Boston: Copeland)—show the most singular analogy here and there with those of the most Puritan and self contained of New England women, Emily Dickinson. There are pages here which might as well have appeared in either of her volumes—the same fine, shy, recluse observation of nature and of men, and the same terse brevity of utterance. Take, for instance, the poem of Father Tabb on "The Humming Bird" (p. 59):

"A flash of harmless lightning,
A mist of rainbow dyes,
The burnished sunbeams brightening
From flower to flower he flies;
While wakes the nodding blossom
But just too late to see
What lip hath touched her bosom
And drained her rosary."

Now turn to Emily Dickinson (i., 130):

"A route of evanescence
With a revolving wheel;
A resonance of emerald,
A rush of cochineal;
And every blossom on the bush
Adjusts its tumbled head—
The mail from Tunis, probably,
An easy morning's ride."

The woman's characterization is far more terse and vigorous, with more of motion and of color; she does not, like the man, sentimentalize a little bit over the blossom and her wooer, but who can help seeing the analogy? Probably Father Tabb had never heard of Emily Dickinson, nor she of him, when these poems were written; and it would be easy to insist too much on the analogy of mental attitude between the celibate woman and the celibate priest. But note again the resemblance in this bit of fancy, which might have come equally well out of either collection of poems, but is really from Father Tabb's (p. 108):

THE TAX-GATHERER.

And pray, who are you?
Said the violet blue
To the Bee, with surprise
At his wonderful size,
To her eyeglass of dew.

"I, madam," quoth he,
"Am a publican Bee,
Collecting the tax
On honey and wax.
Have you nothing for me?"

There are depths reached by Emily Dickinson, in her strange way, which Father Tabb does not reach; but he touches a far greater variety of interests, and shows constantly the sense of finish and of form on the larger scale, qualities the want of which was so plain in her. There are poems like Herrick or Vaughan in their

delicate perfection, pieces of almost flawless chiselling, as, for instance, this (p. 33):

GRIEF SONG.

New grief, new tears;—
Brief the reign of sorrow;
Clouds that gather with the night
Scatter on the morrow.

Old grief, old tears;—
Come and gone together;
Not a fleck upon the sky
Telling whence or whither.

Old grief, new tears;—
Deep to deep is calling;
Life is but a passing cloud
Whence the rain is falling.

When we add that no recent poet has written with more longing tenderness of woman's love, and with more delicious playful fondness of childhood and infancy, the reader must needs wonder what early joys and sorrows went to the making of this poet.

His little volume is dedicated to Sidney Lanier, who was, it is understood, his fellow-soldier in the Confederate Army and, finally, fellow-prisoner. To Lanier's fine gifts we have before paid tribute, and his 'Select Poems' (Scribners) have now been carefully brought together, with a fairly good introduction and an excellent series of notes and bibliography, by Dr. Morgan Callaway, jr., of the University of Texas, who perhaps acts indiscreetly in giving five lines of the small title-page to himself and his laurels, with only one for Lanier. The introductory memoir has sometimes a trite flavor, too, as when the writer gravely remarks, "Like most great poets of modern times, Lanier was a sincere lover of nature" (p. xxxi). Nevertheless, the editing is so good, and the poems themselves have a lyrical cadence so rare, that all must prize this little collection.

In 'Chocorua's Tenants,' by the late Frank Bolles (Houghton), we have rather a *tour de force* than a poem, because every experiment in the Kalevala measure, even Longfellow's 'Hiawatha,' appears a little remote and borrowed, like a spinning-wheel in a modern parlor. But Mr. Bolles's observation was so fine and delicate, and his thought so sympathetic—coming far nearer to Thoreau, in these respects, than Burroughs, Torrey, or any other of Thoreau's successors—that the book renews the sense of that large loss experienced by American literature in his early death. In this book the jay and kingfisher, with the rarer grouse and log-cock, come before us as they actually dwell around Chocorua. The volume is full of those delicate bird-notes which grow only finer as the landscape becomes more shaggy; and, with the steady disappearance of wild quadrupeds, it is something that the birds remain and have here found their chronicler. 'In Woods and Fields,' by Augusta Larned (Putnams), has not the fine touch of Mr. Bolles, but she handles more varied measures, and the very titles of her poems—"Milkweed," "Clover Fields," "Wood Mould," "The Herb Sellers," "The Threshing Floor," "The Veery"—show a fresh and sympathetic mind. She is, however, careless of her measures, and almost hopelessly negligent as to her rhymes, disfiguring by the jangle of her terminations a poem so fresh and aromatic as her "Milkweed" (p. 66), which begins thus:

"Small spinner of the fields,
Where are thy fairy reels?
Thy busy spindles fine,
To mesh this silken twine?

"I know thy distaff green,
Fretting the satin sheen
Of thread more delicate
Than wrought Ulysses' mate.

"Thou art all fantasy,
Like some fond poet,—he
Who from his heart untwines
The stuff of mazy rhymes."

Whoever opens a book by Charles Godfrey Leland may always count upon the same rattling spirits, the same versatile deftness of touch, and the same disappointment. 'Songs of the Sea and Idyls of the Land' (London: Black; New York: Macmillan) illustrates this assertion. The last half of the book, moreover, is mere dialect and border-tale; but the first has more unique attraction, being a series of sea-songs of the old pattern, supposed to be sung in a circle of mariners now dead and gone, who tell stories and sing around the fire of an old sailors' tavern at the "North End" of Boston, as they did before the race of sailors proper (or improper) had ceased to be, and before successive waves of Irish, Italians, and Russians had transformed that region by distinct stages. In the book the seamen sing songs which are, as the author frankly admits, made up of all manner of snatches and borrowings, woven into lays that all have a flavor of salt in them and recall the voyages of half a century ago, when voyages meant something. The following, for instance, brings back the period when sailors were sailors indeed, and sung as they heaved at the capstan. Rudyard Kipling seems very over-dramatic when we revert to Leland's "Time for us to go" (p. 64):

"With sails let fall and sheeted home, and clear of the ground were we,
We passed the bank, stood round the Light, and sailed away to sea;
"The wind was fair and the coast was clear, and the brig was noways slow,
For she was built in Baltimore, and 'twas time for us to go.

"Time for us to go,
Time for us to go,
For she was built in Baltimore and 'tis time for us to go."

James Whitcomb Riley is even surer of his audience than Leland; and though 'Armazindy' (Indianapolis: Bowen-Mitchell) is not one of his best volumes, yet it has its own quality, and preserves the traditions of homely pathos which he can still strike at will. Eugene Field's 'Love Songs of Childhood' (Scribners) has the vivacity and attractiveness which always belong to this author's writings, sometimes cheapened a little, in this case, for his younger auditors, but saved by a hearty love for them. Mr. Field is very impressible; we often see the influence of Riley and sometimes of 'Alice's Adventures'; but these are good models in dealing with children, and the doubtful phrase "love-song" is justified by a very loving dedication of the ballads to—his aunt!

'Philoctetes,' by J. E. Nesmith (privately printed at the Riverside Press), is strongest where it is most local, and celebrates the Colorado Cañons with a vigor that may well preserve the author's name. The title-poem is less really vigorous, though more ambitious. In 'The Moods of a Soul,' by Louis M. Elshemus (Buffalo: Moulton), we see the hopeless condition of a man of susceptible mind without a saving sense of humor. It is difficult to tell what is to help a man who can soberly print passages like this (p. 54):

"I've seen my love grow amorous,
She who methought could never love me;
She walked, as sails an albatross,
And ever clapped her hands above me!"

Or this (p. 69):

"My rare Marie, none have I seen like her:
Rare roses bubbling on rare lavender
Her cheeks were—and her flirting eye!"

Or this (p. 93):

"Mewould to sing, and sing, till with my strain
I melt into the ether's boundless home—
Away from all these sins and tears to roam—
Away from fame, from wrong, from hate and pain!
Far, far, with my dear lyre at my glow-side."

It will not be difficult for Mr. Elshemus to remain at a distance from fame unless he can become a severer critic on himself.

'Wayside Poems,' by Wallace Bruce (Harpers), are of the same honest, Scotch-Irish, often unpoetic quality shown in this author's 'Homestead Poems'; but they may have been read or sung with screaming applause at lodge-meetings or international gatherings, and they have many illustrations of Scotch and Irish castles and places full of association. 'God's Parable, and Other Poems,' by Susannah Massey (Putnams), has in it some fruits of travel, offering pretty *chansons* and dramatic scenes from various lands. 'A Light through the Storm,' by Charles A. Keeler (San Francisco: Doxey), has some local coloring and a little fire, but not very much. A good deal of frost is offered, on the other hand, by 'The White Tsar, and Other Poems,' by Henry Bedlow, illustrated by J. Steeple Davis (Tait & Sons). It is a book issued in what the newspapers call a "sumptuous" style, as to paper, type, and margin, but both the poetry and illustrations are in the last degree turgid and sensational. The White Tsar is the polar bear, a symbol in itself rather poetic, and capable of being effectively handled under better auspices.

'Poems, Second Edition, and Later Poems,' by the Rev. Edward Octavus Flagg, D.D. (Whittaker), is a volume dwelling wholly within the realm of commonplace; but this could scarcely have been the case with the prose sermon which the author delivered, as the preface tells us, at the funeral of that eminent sinner, Col. James Fisk, jr., of whose militia regiment he was the chaplain. "Col. Fisk told his private secretary that his purpose was to erect for the Doctor ultimately as handsome a church as could be found in the city of New York" (p. vii). It seems a little unjust that, after all this suggested favor, there should be in the volume no tuneful commemoration of so willing a benefactor. Even the poem "I Love My Church" (p. 240) appears to refer to some actual, not merely potential church, and the name of "Col. Fisk" is not mentioned.

We are glad to do a somewhat tardy justice to a volume of poems too much ignored by critics thus far, 'The Wind in the Clearing, and Other Poems,' by Robert Cameron Rogers (Putnams). To begin with, the title poem is one of the best things in the book—a rare circumstance, since poets are apt to use their heaviest production for this precedence. The office of the wind in the imaginary clearing is to give voice to the fallen trees, the dried-up brooks, and the vanished men, and to raise the question whether the world has gained, altogether, by the destruction. It should be printed as a circular by the Forestry Commission; and no volume of war poetry should be regarded as complete without "The Colonel's Story" (p. 69), a thoroughly vigorous tale of daring and death, whose only defect is that it is too long to be here quoted. While the Forestry Commission does this work, it might also include the charming little volume 'Wild Flower Sonnets,' by Emily Shaw Forman, with illustrations by Abbot Graves (Boston: Knight). No better antidote can be imagined for the lark-and-nightingale weakness than this thoroughly indigenous and loving series of sonnets; and every friend of wild flowers should carry the little book into the country, as a summer manual. The author is so thoroughly well-informed that she even celebrates the most shy and refined of all American flowers—the Sabbatia of Plymouth, Mass., and the Narragansett country.

SABBATIA.

Upon the margin of a reedy pond,
Held in the hollow of low, rounded hills,
Where Silence, like a presence, broods and thrills,

I found Sabbatia. As a lover fond,
Flying the mistress of his heart to greet,
For- ets the world in reading her sweet eyes,
And cries, "For me God makes a paradise!"
So, kneeling, happy, at Sabbatia's feet,
Bathed in the sunsh'ne of her rosy smile,
I murmured, "'Twas for me she grew so fair."
For answer, lightly glided here and there
A blue-winged dragon-fly; a bird the while
Trilled one clear note; tall rushes stirred, and near
I caught the glisten of the sun-dew's tear.

'Poems of William Haines Lytle,' edited with memoir by William H. Venable (Cincinnati: Clarke Co.), is an exceptional book, in this respect, that the memoir is more interesting than the poems. Gen. Lytle was the fourth of his family to wear a military title, the first of this line having served in the Old French War and being afterwards one of the Kentucky pioneers. Gen. William Haines Lytle was killed at the battle of Chickamauga, and it is recorded of him that when pulling on his gloves for this last contest, he explained the pains he had taken with his toilet by saying: "I have tried to live like a gentleman and I propose to die like one" (p. 48). He died at thirty-eight, and it is possible that added years might have brought more intellectual fruit from this young hero. But this volume contains nothing above mediocrity, unless it be his one celebrated poem, "I am dying, Egypt, dying," and this owes its fame mainly to the five words from Shakspere which give its keynote, and which are simply extended into a turgid and sonorous poem that belongs to the same department with that stock bit of prose pomposity, "Spartacus the Gladiator." There exists a demand for such products in country academies, but they do not belong to literature. Mr. Venable, however, remarks that it is "unrivalled in popularity by anything yet written in the Ohio valley, excepting Kinney's beautiful lyric, 'The Rain on the Roof.'" The same quality of turgidness belongs to 'Songs of Dusk and Dawn,' by Walter Malone (Buffalo: Moulton); but it is to be counted to this author for righteousness that he celebrates the red-bird and the mocking-bird. In the same way Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton, in 'The Inevitable, and Other Poems' (Crowell), gives merit to a volume, not otherwise remarkable, by studies from life of the American robin and of "The Coloring of the Grapes." Mr. Warren Holden, also, whose numerous volumes are apt to be rather monotonous, strikes, in his 'Many Moods' (Philadelphia: Lippincott), a strong and real note when he comes to describe "The Whaleman" (p. 21).

A delicate little volume, privately printed, by Mrs. Emma Endicott Marean of Cambridge, Mass., is called simply 'Eighteen,' because it holds that number of modest poems for a daughter's eighteenth birthday. Many a book of poems having greater pretensions might be glad to include a single note struck so firmly and clearly as this:

CHOICE.

The string o'erstretchèd breaks, and the music flies;
The string o'erslack is dumb, and music dies;
Tune us the sitar neither low nor high.
—*Edwin Arnold.*

Nor low, nor high! My heart learned once that prayer,
That humble prayer, that asks the steady glow
Of moderation only; seeks to know
The strength of slow successes; fears to share
Ambitions sweet, tempting to heights more fair.
A simple life, attuned nor high nor low,
May gain a heaven, escape from bitter woe,
Nor need to greatly suffer, greatly dare.

Take back Thy gift of peace! I claim the smart
And ache of passion for a vision high!
Make me Thy instrument, and justify
This longing once Thy message to impart!
Awake one song to stir a hero's heart,
Then let the tense strings break, the music die!

THE MIGRATION OF SYMBOLS.—II.

The Migration of Symbols. By the Count Goblet d'Alviella. With an introduction by Sir George Birdwood. Westminster: Constable & Co. 1894.

THE Sacred Cone of Mesopotamia has been already referred to, but the western Semites also worshipped their great goddess under the image of a conical stone, or bethel. Its figurative representation plays a most important part in all their graphic arts, and is found alike on monuments, amulets, and coins. On some Phœnician monuments there is to be seen superadded to the cone a horizontal cross-bar, on the middle of which rests a handle. This shape bears a striking resemblance to the *crux ansata*, the so-called Key of Life, of the ancient Egyptians. This is the most frequently to be met with of any of their emblems. It is a T-shaped cross, surmounted by a handle or loop, whose hieroglyphic name is *ankh*, and its signification 'to live.' As an emblem of life, representing the male and female principles united, it is always borne in the hands of the gods, it is poured from a jar over the head of the King in a species of baptism, and it is laid symbolically on the lips of the mummy to revive it. Now the *crux ansata* certainly was not formed under the influence of the sacred Cone; but both were equally employed with the same import as a symbol of life conceived of in its widest and most abstract meaning, and as a talisman of the highest protective power. From Egypt the *crux ansata* spread first among the Phœnicians, and then through out the whole Semitic world, from Sardinia to Susiana. Thus there arose the possibility of it and the cone easily passing from one to the other without material alteration in their respective forms, or there even came a blending of the two shapes in a third which preserved their essentials. Indeed it might be said that such is one of the laws of symbolism. This influence of the one form upon the other is met with even among the Greeks, under whose genius the rude conical stone was not long in developing into the human shape. The Ephesian Artemis, with her head encircled with a halo, her forearms projecting from either side of the body, and her lower members wedged into a case, is an anthropomorphized *crux ansata*. In later times the Coptic Christians employed the same emblem in the place of the Greek or Latin cross, and even used it to portray the Chrism, the monogram formed out of the first two letters of the name of Christ. When we see how often dissimilar objects came to borrow each other's forms, and were made to blend with each other, we are forced to the conclusion, says our author, that no combination is unacceptable to symbolism when an amalgamation of ideas or beliefs is to be strengthened through such blending of the images by which they are expressed.

The Winged Globe was one of the most widely spread and most venerated symbols. It has been called the Egyptian symbol *par excellence*, and from that country it spread, under various modifications, throughout the whole of the Old World. It is formed out of a combination of the various representations of the sun that have prevailed in different localities in Egypt, whose whole mythology has been said to have ended by becoming a solar drama. Two urœus snakes, or asps, with heads erect, are twisted round a globe-shaped disk, behind which are the outstretched wings of a hawk, and on its top the horns of a goat. It was intended to commemorate the victory of the principle of light and good over that of darkness and evil. It spread readily among the Phœnicians, where it is found suspended over the sacred tree and the sacred cone, and was carried wheresoever their art was introduced—westward to Carthage, Sicily, Sardinia, and Cyprus, eastward to western Asia. Very early it penetrated on the north to the Hittites; and when it reached Mesopotamia in the time of the Sargonidæ, the winged circle assumed the shape of the wheel or rosette, surmounted by a scroll with upcurled extremities and with a feathered tail opening out like a fan; or a human figure in an attitude sometimes of benediction, sometimes warlike, was inscribed within the disk. Then it was no longer exclusively a solar emblem, but served to express the general idea of divinity. From Mesopotamia it passed into Persia, principally in the anthropoid type. It was, however, never adopted by Greece, and it is nowhere met with in Europe, except, as before stated, in the Mediterranean islands. When Greece took over from Asia symbolic combinations, in which it was originally represented, she replaced it by the thunderbolt. But our author believes that the areole, or halo, which encircles the heads of her divinities, and which Christian art has borrowed from the classic, was directly derived from it. What have been sometimes supposed to be instances of its occurrence in the New World he is inclined to consider mere accidental resemblances.

The Caduceus is one of the symbolic figures which have most tried the patience of scholars. Its classic type, a winged rod round which two serpents are symmetrically entwined, is due to the mythographers of later times, and is very remote from its primitive form. In the Homeric Hymn it is called "the golden rod, three-petalled of happiness and wealth," which Phœbus gave to the youthful Hermes; but on early Greek monuments the three leaves are represented by a disk surmounted by an incomplete circle. In this shape it constantly appears on Phœnician monuments, and at Carthage, where it seems to have been essentially a solar emblem, it is nearly always associated with the sacred cone. The question has been raised whether it may not have been borrowed by the Phœnicians from the Greeks; but this is improbable, as it is likewise found on the Hittite monuments, where it could not possibly have been an importation from Greece. On them it assumes the form of a globe surmounted by horns. Numerous origins and manifold antecedents have been attributed to it, such as an equivalent of the thunderbolt, a form of the sacred tree, or a combination of the solar globe with the lunar crescent. Some examples seem clearly to indicate a transition from the sacred tree, surmounted by the solar disk, to the form of the caduceus of the Hittites. Our author believes it was employed originally as a religious or military standard or flag, and that it was gradually modified by coming in contact with other symbols. Some Assyrian bas-reliefs display a military standard, sometimes consisting of a large ring placed upon a staff with two loose bandelets attached, sometimes of a winged globe similarly disposed. If on top of such a ring there be placed a pair of horns, symbols of divine power among the Mesopotamians, or the crescent of the moon so frequently coupled with the globe in the religious imagery of the Phœnicians, the result will be the Punic caduceus. This Assyrian military standard may be considered to be the prototype of the *labarum*, which Constantine, after his conversion to Christianity, chose for his own standard, and which might equally well have been claimed

as a symbol by the worshippers of the sun. Under the type of its latest transformation in Greece, too, a winged rod with two serpents twined round it, it has come down to our own times to represent two of the functions of Hermes, more than ever in vogue among men, industry and commerce. It has survived in India to the present day under the form of two serpents entwined, probably introduced in the track of Alexander the Great. It is also to be met with in that country in earlier times in its simpler form, resembling our astronomical sign for the planet Mercury. This seems to be connected with the earliest type, formed from a disk surmounted by a crescent, and that form of the caduceus appears to have been confounded at a remote date in India with the trident, the last of the symbolic figures to which we shall refer.

The Trisula, the form of the trident peculiar to the Buddhists, was of great importance in the symbolism of the Hindus; but whether it was an imitation by them of the type of the thunderbolt to be seen on Assyrian sculptures, or was devised by them spontaneously, is uncertain. Its simplest form, which is, however, rarely to be met with, is an omicron surmounted by an omega. Nearly always the upper portion of the omicron is flanked by two small circles, or by two horizontal strokes, which often take the appearance of leaves or small wings. The points of the omega are generally changed into *fleurons;* and the disk itself is placed upon a pedestal. From its lower arc there fall two spires shaped like serpents' tails with the ends curving sometimes up and sometimes down. It will readily be seen that this is a very complex symbol. None of the Buddhist texts give any positive information in regard to its origin or meaning, and few symbols have given rise to more varied explanations. As it is found in ancient caves, in connection with other symbols of sun-worship, the simplest and most natural explanation would connect it primitively with such a creed. The upper part of the figure is frequently found separated from the lower; sometimes this is plainly a trident superposed upon a disk shaped nucleus. Now the worship of the sun under the form of a disk was widely spread over India in remote times; later the disk became a wheel, and this was converted by the Buddhists into their "wheel of the law." Thus the trident would be the secondary portion, and it may possibly have symbolized the flash of lightning, as did Neptune's trident among the Greeks; but more probably it is the image of the solar radiation. Among the northern Buddhists it personifies the heaven of pure flame superposed upon the heaven of the sun. Though undoubtedly a Hindu emblem, its primitive shape seems to have early felt the influence of the caduceus, while its more complex forms exhibit an unquestionable likeness to certain types of the winged globe. This is not to be wondered at, since the earliest art centres were Egypt and Mesopotamia; and as the Indian alphabets are of Semitic origin, their religious symbols may well have submitted to the same influence. In later times, after Alexander, a Hellenizing tendency from the Indo-Bactrians spread into western India, and this was succeeded by a veritable invasion of Iranian divinities under the Indo-Scythians. Then Buddhism, having learned under what emblems the neighboring religions represented their great divinities, sought to appropriate them by adoption with a new significance, or by assimilating them to their own symbols with slight alterations. Still later the trisula was converted by Brahmanism into an anthropoid figure, and became the image of Jagenath. Finally, the vegetable kingdom was also laid under contribution, and the trisula came into a resemblance of the Tree of Knowledge. Although we have learned the probable signification of its factors in the creeds that preceded Buddhism, we know very little about its meaning in the religion that made the most use of it. Some unpublished text may reveal the real significance of a symbol before which millions have bowed in reverence. But the plastic development of the trisula shows with what facility emblems of most dissimilar origin may merge into one another, when in their form or their meaning there are sufficient points of contact.

We will bring our notice to an end by touching briefly on a couple of the most remarkable instances of the migration of early symbolic types to our own time, the Double Headed Eagle of Austria and of Russia, and the Three Legs of Man. The Double-Headed Eagle first appears on those venerable sculptures at Eyuk (ancient Pteria), in Asia Minor, in the midst of religious scenes dating back to what is generally believed to be the ancient civilization of the Hittites. It has also been found upon a Persian intaglio attributed to the period of the Arsacidæ. It was seen, in 1217 A. D., on the standards and crowns of the Turkman conquerors of Asia Minor, adopted by them as the symbol of omnipotence. At the time of the Crusades certain Flemish princes copied it from the Turkmen; and in 1345 it replaced the single-headed eagle in the armorial bearings of the Holy Roman Empire. Since 1806 this has been represented by the dual state known as the Austro-Hungarian monarchy. The double-headed eagle first appeared in the cognizance of the Russian Empire in 1497, ten years after the marriage of Ivan III., who was first Grand Duke of Moscow to take the title of Czar of Muscovy, with the niece of Constantine Palæologus, last of the Byzantine Cæsars.

We have already seen that the sun was early typified under the shape of the *triscele*, or three-legged figure; this developed into a disk, from which radiated three human legs, bent as in the act of running and united at the thighs. In this form it is frequently to be seen upon coins of Lycia (about 480 B. C.), and it also occurs upon those of Sicily, in the time of Agathocles (317 B. C.). There, however, it symbolizes not the sun, but the configuration of the island, Trinacria, the island of Three Capes. The figure is also known under the name of the *triquetra*. When Alexander III. of Scotland took over the Isle of Man from the Norwegians, in 1266, he adopted this device, with which he had become familiar at the English court of Henry III., who had been made for a brief period the nominal sovereign of Sicily by Pope Innocent IV., and it has figured ever since in the coat-of-arms of the Isle of Man.

We are told by Sir George Birdwood that "one of Messrs. Archibald Constable & Company's special objects in publishing the present English translation of this work has been to bring it within the reach of the Schools of Art throughout the United Kingdom." In the interest of decorative design in this country we most cordially join with him in commending Count d'Alviella's "alluring book" to all similar institutions in the United States. Its numerous illustrations will furnish to them a storehouse of beautiful ornamentation.

Letters of a Baritone. By Francis Walker. Scribners.

Mr. Francis Walker is one of the rapidly diminishing class of musicians who believe that modern Italy is still the best country for studying the vocal art. He says that nearly all foreign students go at once to Milan, "where perhaps four-fifths of the operatic engagements for Italy are made." Milan is doubtless at present the centre of musical life in Italy, and Italian musical life is almost entirely operatic. Yet when we look at the facts, we find that during the past operatic season, which lasted from December 26 to April 7, the Milanese heard not one singer to whom first-class prices would be paid in London or New York, while the sixty-six performances were limited entirely to nine second and third-rate operas: "Manon," "Sigurd," "Patrie," "Pêcheurs de Perles," "I Medici," "Werther," "Samson," "Ratcliff," and "Silvano." Such a record must be discouraging to any student of song who knows that the opportunity to hear great singers and great music is of at least as much importance to his artistic development as correct instruction in vocal technique. This important consideration Mr. Walker ignores entirely in his plea for Italy. Nor does a perusal of his letters convey the impression that good voice-builders are more plentiful there than elsewhere. He admits that "the unscrupulous, plausible wrecker of voices is found everywhere"; and one of his objects in publishing his letters was to warn others against "the pitfalls of charlatanism." His own experience was not at first encouraging. His first teacher, highly recommended and popular, did not give him the thorough and radical treatment he needed in regard to the placing and delivering of the voice, but gave him delicate *salon* pieces and operatic scenas to sing. Accordingly, he finally gave him up in favor of another, who began by telling him, "Almost everything you do is wrong," and who really proved to be a good teacher.

From one point of view only does Mr. Walker convince the reader that Italy is still an ideal country for students of song, namely, in the matter of expense. For climatic and other reasons he did not dwell in Milan, but in Florence, where he paid $4 a month for a room and $3 a week for his meals at a restaurant, which included plenty of meat, macaroni, vegetables, cheese, pastry, and good bread and red wine. To his teacher he paid $30 a month for his daily lessons of an hour each—an amount, he says, which would have afforded him in New York five lessons of equal duration. These low fees, however, are, it appears, charged only to professional students, for Mr. Walker says of his first teacher that "he can fill up all the hours he wishes to devote to teaching with amateurs who gladly pay him double the professional fees."

Florentine teachers told Mr. Walker that "they are ever on the watch for American students, who are almost sure to have bright, fresh, vigorous voices." The English students almost always go to Milan, and "they are generally better musicians than the American young men, because they are almost sure to have had early training as choir-boys." While warning young students against voice-wreckers, Mr. Walker does not overlook the fact that teachers often have no chance to form artists because the youths and maidens of eighteen imagine that a course of two or three years ought to land them on the stage as great artists, commanding big salaries. He also warns them that merely technical study will

make artisans but not artists of them, and that they ought to devote some of their time to reading good books on musical subjects. Many technical points are discussed at some length, but of all our author's hints the following is the most valuable: "More and more clearly what I have been doing makes me realize that the perfect, ideal voice is the outcome and the crown of a healthy body—an efflorescence, so to speak; and, of course, none but a healthy plant can produce a perfect flower"—a remark which may serve to counterbalance the writer's incompetent observations on Wagner's treatment of the voice.

While there is considerable padding in Mr. Walker's letters, there are also some pleasant glimpses of life in Italy, with suggestive remarks on the general condition of musical affairs. He found the military bands very good and impressive, whereas "the church organs are often very poor and badly played, *while there is rarely any good singing.*" In domestic circles he found that Liszt is "the demi-god of the piano in all Italy." In the opera-houses the Italians still show their lack of interest in everything except tunes and arias: "Over and over again in the course of the opera, the tide of careless, murmuring talk arose — never when any solo work was being done, but during the familiar ensemble portions which did not enchain the general interest." Of a certain singer he says that he is hardly the ideal tenor for "Faust," etc., "but the Italian public cares little for that. He sings—that is the main thing."

A History of the Baptist Churches in the United States. By A. H. Newman, D.D., LL.D., Professor of Church History, McMaster University, Toronto. [The American Church History Series.] New York: The Christian Literature Company. 1894. Pp. xv, 513.

For the volume under review Dr. Newman certainly deserves the gratitude of the religious body of which he is a member. He has told its story in a sympathetic spirit, and yet he has written with a careful and discriminating pen, and has plainly endeavored, with much success, to present its controversies with those within and without the number of the professed adherents to its principles with judicial fairness. Occasionally, as in his treatment of the Disciples, Dr. Newman sounds a moderately polemic note; but these slight exceptions only make more apparent the self-restraint of the writer's customary treatment of those from whom he differs. This readiness to admit the faults as well as to extol the virtues of the Baptist communions, which is perhaps the most marked feature of Dr. Newman's work, renders the narrative less picturesque than it might have been had the author possessed another temperament; and it must be said that the emphasis laid by the Baptists themselves on a few principles, thus narrowing while intensifying their denominational life, and the comparative rareness among them of theological innovators, or of controversies of novel doctrinal significance, make their history less fruitful in striking incidents than that of some of their sister communions.

Dr. Newman begins his work with a brief enumeration of Baptist principles, declaring them to be: "the absolute supremacy of the canonical Scriptures," believers' baptism, with a positive rejection of the application of the rite to infants, "regenerate membership," "liberty of conscience," and "insistence on immersion." The writer then rapidly sketches the rise of the Baptist movement, holding that the first traces of mediæval Baptist beliefs are to be found in the twelfth century in the teachings of Peter de Bruys, Henry of Lausanne, and probably of Arnold of Brescia. A similar rejection of infant baptism appeared among a portion of the Waldenses and of the Bohemian Brethren before the Reformation; so that Dr. Newman concludes that "the Anabaptist movement of the sixteenth century had its roots in the evangelical parties of the middle ages, to which it owed its modes of thought, its type of Christian life, and its methods of work." This matter has been treated at much greater length by Dr. Newman in an essay published by the American Society of Church History, and in this connection of the Anabaptists of the Reformation period with the mediæval anti-churchly parties Dr. Newman has the support of a number of students, notably of Ludwig Keller; but the relationship would be denied by many scholars, even historians of his own religious fellowship like Dr. H. S. Burrage. But from the Anabaptist manifestations of the Zwickau prophets and the Zürich radicals Dr. Newman is on more certain ground as he sketches the story of Baptist development in the German cities, describes the fanatic tragedy at Münster, pictures the establishment of the more peaceful Mennonites in Holland, and traces the rapid changes of belief which transformed the English Separatist leader John Smyth and his exiled Gainsborough flock into Baptists through the self-baptism of Smyth at Amsterdam in 1609—a step which led, in 1611 or 1612, to the establishment of the first Baptist church on English soil by Smyth's sometime associates, Helwys and Murton.

Probably the most striking feature of this introduction, at least to the general reader, is Dr. Newman's clear recognition that the principle of liberty of conscience was advocated among the Anabaptists by no less early a representative than Balthasar Hübmaier, who met his death at the stake in 1528, that this doctrine was emphasized by Smyth and Helwys, and that it was set forth by the London congregation which Helwys founded "with a fulness and persuasiveness not greatly surpassed even by Roger Williams, and to which Williams himself seems to have been greatly indebted." The facts here recounted are not new, but they need repetition if a common error is ever to be corrected.

Another matter of interest is Dr. Newman's cordial admission that though immersion was employed by a fraction of the Anabaptists, "the common practice among the Swiss, Austrian, Moravian, and Dutch parties was affusion." Affusion may also confidently be asserted to have been the method used by Smyth and the early English Baptists, so that the writer concludes that when, about March, 1639, Roger Williams and Ezekiel Holliman baptized each other and organized the first American Baptist church at Providence, "the introduction of immersion by Williams was three years in advance of its introduction among the Baptists of England." Yet possibly Dr. Newman claims too early a beginning for immersion in America, since some scholars in Baptist history believe that even Williams was baptized by sprinkling, and that immersion was introduced after Williams's return from England in 1644, probably by Mark Lukar, who certainly became in 1641 one of the first recipients of the rite in England and who was long ruling elder of the Newport church.

The greater portion of Dr. Newman's volume is devoted to the story of American Baptist development from Williams to the present day. Here the general reader will probably turn first of all to the author's treatment of that most variously estimated man, Roger Williams himself, and will find therein an admirable illustration of Dr. Newman's judicial temper. The writer is sincerely an admirer of Williams, but he is fair enough to Williams's opponents to say that,

"if we bear in mind the [Massachusetts] court's freedom from conscientious scruples as to the employment of force in matters of religion, and the pertinacity with which Williams advocated views regarded as unsettling and dangerous, we can scarcely fail to admire the forbearance of this body."

Dr. Newman says with truth that, "as a founder of a State no less than as an advocate of a great principle, Roger Williams deserves the gratitude and respect of all lovers of religious and civil liberty"; yet he is of the opinion that

"The immediate and probably the most influential causes of Williams's banishment were his defiant attitude towards the Court and the leading churches of the colony in accepting the pastorate of the Salem church against their earnest and oft-repeated protest, and the proceedings of the Salem church and colony under his direction with reference to a certain piece of land."

A similar carefulness of critical estimate is shown by Dr. Newman in his appreciative sketch of John Clarke of Newport, whom he would regard, rather than Williams, as "the most important American Baptist of the century in which he lived"—a judgment for which Williams's early renunciation of external Baptist fellowship, as well as Clarke's nearly equal desert as an advocate of liberty of conscience, gives a basis. With Clarke and Williams as the foremost American Baptists of their century, Dr. Newman places President Henry Dunster of Harvard, whose pathetic story he tells with considerable fulness of detail.

Dr. Newman's two chapters on the struggles for exemption from hostile legislation in New England and Virginia are of decided interest, for the Baptists were largely instrumental in the overthrow of the union of Church and State characteristic of so many of the colonies, and which survived the formation of the United States well into the present century in New England at least. It could be wished, however, that in treating that important movement in New England the writer had not confined himself so exclusively to the story of Massachusetts, and had not dismissed the contemporary agitation in Connecticut with half a page of vague general statement.

Dr. Newman shows how the desires of the Philadelphia Baptist Association, stimulated by Morgan Edwards as early as 1762 and heartily seconded by citizens of Rhode Island, led to the incorporation in 1764 of what was to become Brown University, and the attainment of its first commencement in 1769. But the writer is no less candid in his assertion that, outside of the limited range of the influences which had led to the establishment of the Rhode Island seat of learning, it was true at the beginning of the present century that "the mass of the Baptists were indifferent or hostile to ministerial education," and filled with a "strong prejudice against ministerial salaries." This was especially the case in the South, where, even more than elsewhere, "the large amount of illiteracy in the ministry, and the widespread satisfaction with an illiterate ministry, furnished an obstacle of

the most serious nature to the onward and upward movement that has characterized the recent history of the denomination." This state of affairs was largely altered by the educational and missionary impulses that went out in the second decade of this century from Judson and Rice, so that the Baptist communions, as a whole, have long since taken a different attitude; but Dr. Newman gives an amusing, though in some respects a pathetic, account of the struggle, from 1820 onward, of the more illiterate Baptist parties, especially in Georgia, Alabama, and Tennessee, against the introduction of missions, ministerial education, Sunday-schools, Bible societies, and other "human institutions." This opposition still exists. While on the whole the party of education and progress has gained the upper hand in all the larger subdivisions of the American Baptists, the separation of the Baptist churches of North and South, brought about in 1845 by the question of slavery, has given free play to these elevating forces in the churches of the North.

Dr. Newman's last chapters are the least satisfactory—probably they were written more hurriedly than the earlier portion of his volume; but his work as a whole is a summary of the history of a body of churches which now number at least three and three-quarter millions of communicants in the United States, and which, during the last century, have increased "nearly four times as fast as the population."

Memoir of Sir Andrew Crombie Ramsey. By Sir Archibald Geikie, F.R.S., Director-General of the Geological Survey of Great Britain and Ireland. With portraits. 8vo, pp., viii., 397. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

In no other country is the biographic duty so well recognized or the work of monumenting the worthies so well done as in Great Britain. This Life of Prof. Ramsey introduces the reader to one of the most characteristic men of the admirable lowland Scotch folk. It may be commended to those who are interested in the qualities of peoples, as an exhibition of the conditions and traits which have given the southern Scots their place in the world. Ramsey came of a family of dyers, which for generations pursued that calling in the little town of Haddington. His father found a larger field in Glasgow. In his trade he became noteworthy as a practical chemist, his inventions attracting the attention of such men as Liebig. He left to his son no more than a good name and a distinct aptitude for inquiries in the field of nature. From his mother, Ramsey appears to have inherited the merry humor which so illuminated his nature as to make him one of the most attractive of men.

The poverty of his household after the death of his father cut short his education, so that he did not advance beyond the grammar-school. He became an office-boy and then a partner in a small firm which dealt in cloth. These commercial ventures resulted in complete failures and grievous disappointment, so that at the age of twenty-eight Ramsey was without property or occupation and with a sorry record behind him. Although he had been unsuccessful in his main endeavors, he had a thread of interest and accomplishment which was to lead him out of the darkness. While office-boy and merchant he had the good fortune to make friends among the officers and students of Glasgow University. From these (and they included such men as Prof. Nichol and Lyon Playfair) he, with his ready wit, gained some of the advantages of the University culture, though his poverty deprived him of free access to its resources. To Playfair, then a student and a boarder in his mother's house, Ramsey owed an introduction to Charles Lyell. This master, already famous, led the young man to study the geology of the island of Arran, and so well did he accomplish his task that, on the presentation of his work to the British Association at Glasgow, in 1840, he won recognition from the leaders of the science, and speedily found his way into the service of the Geological Survey of England. This neat turn of his previously unhappy fortunes opened to him a path which he trod firmly, skilfully, and with his merry humor in all its many trials, until he became the head of the greatest scientific establishment of his country, which, at the time of his death, included in its field of labor Ireland and Scotland as well as England.

In his narrative of Ramsey's life as a geologist, Sir Archibald shows the admirable literary talent which characterizes his other works. So far as may be, he leaves the story to be told by letters and extracts from journals; with this he weaves an account of Ramsey's fellow-workers, so that we see the man in his contacts with those who shaped his courses and who in turn were in large measure formed by his influence. With this intention the biographer gives the portraits and somewhat extended sketches of a dozen of the officers of the Survey, and for each of the fifty or more of the other persons mentioned there is a foot-note statement. The incidental description of Sir Henry T. de la Beche, the founder of the Survey, is by far the most lifelike account of the character of that interesting man which has ever been presented.

Although the details of Ramsey's life, engaged as he was altogether in geology, may at first sight seem to have value only to those who are interested in that science, the general reader will find the whole story worth his reading. The quality of the man lifts him well above the professional level into the plane where labor makes for the larger life. In this quality which keeps employment from cramping development, he was a true Scotsman; for more than any other people these lowland folk have acquired the art of combining culture and toil. With Ramsey, as with many other of his countrymen, his enlargement seems to have been due in great measure to his considerable share of the poetic faculty. His versifying power is well shown by the rhymes which he unendingly poured forth, and some of which are reproduced in this volume. Although the most of these are no better than amusing doggerel, there is now and then a stanza which rises to a higher level, showing that the man had a singing spirit. Those who know something of the inner life of the Government scientific corps of Great Britain and this country must have remarked the fact that while the men of the mother country are very tuneful, our own are generally cut off from that resource.

This Life of Ramsey will have especial interest for those who may desire to trace the history of the greatest and most successful scientific establishment in England, and to compare it with the conditions of growth of the corresponding corps in this country. The differences are very striking. The director and other officers of the British Survey, although they are dependent on the votes of Parliament quite as much as the officers of our national Survey depend with us on Congress, appear to be in nowise concerned with the business of legislation. The only reference to Parliament in the index concerns a commission to examine into the matter of building-stones to be used in the new Houses. An equally detailed biography of any director of an American geological survey, State or national, would be filled with references to his unending labors to keep his work from the destructive assaults of legislators.

The best thing that can be said of a biographer is that he has succeeded in so setting forth the character of the man of whom he writes that those who knew his hero find him once again as a living presence before them. Judged by this test, Geikie has certainly done an excellent piece of work. He has perhaps missed the amiable ferocity of speech with which Ramsey was wont to assail his best friends when he disagreed with them—a feature which was apt to make a wrong impression even on those who knew him well, though it was only a mask of the sympathetic nature of this admirable man.

The Arthurian Epic: A Comparative Study of the Cambrian, Breton, and Anglo-Norman Versions of the Story and Tennyson's Idylls of the King. By S. Humphreys Gurteen, M.A., LL.B., Graduate of the University of Cambridge. Putnams.

To characterize so incompetent a book as Mr. Gurteen's 'Arthurian Epic' without appearing to be intemperate in language is a difficult matter. The author's objects are to trace the history of the Arthurian cycle, to demonstrate its essentially religious character, and to examine the 'Idylls of the King' in the light of this demonstration. This serious problem he assails not only without being equipped for the contest, but even without knowing how or where such an equipment is obtainable. The last dozen years have been uncommonly productive of important studies in the "matter of Britain." Of these Mr. Gurteen has apparently never heard. He knows nothing of Rhys, or Förster, or Zimmer, or Gaston Paris. Though he acknowledges obligations to the *Dublin University Magazine*, the *Saturday Review*, *the Englishman's Magazine*, and the *Athenæum*, he nowhere mentions the *Romania* or Gröber's *Zeitschrift*. Sommer's Malory is *terra incognita* to him. Nutt's Grail investigations and their critics have alike escaped his explorations. And these are but instances of what he does not know.

Only an unreasonable critic could expect an author so ill furnished as this to discuss his subject intelligently. Still, we are a little surprised to hear that "it is to the *clergy* of the Anglican Church that we are indebted for nearly all that is of lasting merit" in the Arthur romances. Walter Map, of course, is Mr. Gurteen's mainstay. It was Map, he assures us—Map, "the poet-priest" and "Anglo-Norman *trouvère*"—who "made of detached and fragmentary tales a grand epic cyclus. He it doubtless was who wrote the Latin originals of *Le Roman du Saint Graal* and *Le Roman de Merlin*. It is unquestionable that he was the author of *La Queste del Saint Graal*, *Le Roman de Lancelot du Lac*, and *Le Roman de la Mort Artus*. . . . It is to him we are indebted for the creation of that ideally pure knight, Sir Galahad; in a word, for nearly all that is beautiful, chaste, and imperishable in these romances." To all of which we can only reply with Dominie Sampson's "Prodigious!" Not content with these prodigies, however, Mr. Gurteen presents to his readers Robert de Borron, the Franc-Comtois poet, as a "trouvère" who translated from Walter's Latin

into Anglo-Norman prose. Other "Norman trouvères," contemporary with Walter Map, are Hélie de Borron and Luces de Gast, "authors," Mr. Gurteen tells us, "of the first and second parts, respectively, of *Le Roman de Tristan*." Luces, we are gratified to learn, had a castle near Salisbury. It is also interesting to know that the enormous prose Tristan was "introduced into the series in order to give completeness and symmetry to the epic," and that "it is simply an episode, and in no sense essential to the unity of the narrative."

One of Mr. Gurteen's most trusted authorities is the Vicomte de la Villemarqué. We had supposed that by this time Villemarqué's fabrications were pretty well known in their true character, and that nobody, except perhaps a young student, was in danger of being taken in by his 'Chantes Populaires de la Bretagne.' But we were mistaken. Mr. Gurteen has never heard of Luzel. To him Villemarqué's Breton ballads are precious documents; for him the Vicomte's works "throw all the light that we shall need on the Armorican phase of this famous cyclus." We would fain believe that it is by a misprint that he describes Villemarqué as "a native of *Breton*." But it is not by a misprint that he praises Lady Guest's 'Mabinogion' for its fidelity (Loth's work is of course unknown to him). Nor is it by a misprint that he translates the word Mabinogion by "stories," and ascribes the MS. of this collection to the tenth century (p. 347) and the eleventh (p. 346) instead of to the fourteenth. Other waifs and strays of erudition not chargeable to the type-setter are the citation of *trouvère* as a Norman-French form; the derivation of Anglo-Saxon *scōp* (read *scŏp*) from *scapan;* and the entertaining remark that "*jongleur* is the *prattler*," from "Old French *jongler*, 'to prattle.'" These three notes may all be found at p. 401. *Häide* (p. 31) is simply an ugly misprint for *Haidée*.

By this time our readers will be curious to know what the author has to say of Crestien de Troies, to whom some influence is usually ascribed in the development of the Arthurian cycle. He treats him cavalierly enough, but what he does say is sufficiently remarkable. "While Archdeacon Walter Map was at work on the Arthurian romance in his study at Oxford . . . *le bon père Chrétien* was busy in his cell at Troyes in Brittany, writing the tale of Erec . . . and thus gathering up the crumbs which the plethoric Normans were allowing to fall to the ground." That Mr. Gurteen does not know the date of Map's elevation to the archdeaconship—1197, some thirty years after Crestien's 'Erec' was finished—need not surprise us. As to Troyes, we have always believed it to be in Champagne; but if Mr. Gurteen can prove that it is in Brittany, his discovery will help to settle a number of disputes.

In English literary and linguistic history Mr. Gurteen is scarcely a safer guide than in French and in Celtic. He tells us that "the rough, powerful Saxon . . . broke, volcanic-like, through the crust of French in Layamon, and then disappeared." This is not quite intelligible. Still less clear are the vague utterances that follow concerning a crisis in the relations of the English and French tongues in Great Britain and the triumph of English marked by Malory's translation of the 'Morte Darthur.' So far as we are able to understand these utterances, they are quite wrong. More amusing is a blunder at p. 405, where the author quotes four verses as from "an old poem relating to the death of Turpin." The verses are really from the 'Faerie Queene,' being, in fact, a part of Spenser's account of how Sir Turpine was "baffled."

We have given this futile book more space than it deserves, for we fear that its attractive appearance and the auspices under which it comes out may lead the unwary to consult it trustingly. The best thing the author and the publishers can do with it is to call it in and cancel the whole impression.

The Evolution of Whist. By William Pole, F.R.S. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895.

Dr. Pole's volume will interest persons whom he describes as "earnest students of whist," and will amuse those players for whom other departments of human activity are not all of quite secondary importance. It is divided, like a universal history, into parts, each devoted to an "era," and each subdivided into chapters. There is the primitive, or prehistoric, era, going back into the night of cards, and known to us only by inference; there is the era of Hoyle, when whist was little more than a pastime, but when, owing to players doing their thinking at the table, it might be called an intellectual pastime; there is the "philosophical era," for which Cavendish and the "little school" had done the best part of the thinking once for all; and lastly there is the era of "modern developments," when whist-playing, now reduced to the strict observance of rules that hedge in the play of every card, and justly become the favorite of young ladies and of young men of the correctest form, is as refined as old amontillado, and as dry—and scoffers say, as like to dish-water.

The American Whist League consisted a year ago of 14,000 persons; and they play so well that the immortal Cavendish "has repeatedly declared that the American players possess a general quality of excellence which it has been the habit to attribute only to exceptional persons like Deschapelles, appearing once in an age." When we read this, we wonder whether the next "era" will not see whist brought to something like the ultra-perfection of tit-tat-too. At any rate, it is evident that the existence of 14,000 Deschapelles in this country cannot be due to Americans being 14,000 times as bright as Europeans. It must be, and certainly is, due to the fact that the system of signalling, as well as the known theory of play, has now been so perfected that the successful practice of whist no longer calls for anything like the same high order of intellect—to say nothing of weight of character—that it used to call for forty years ago. Much is made of the extreme difficulty of going through all the mental operations which a hand of whist now demands; and no doubt a certain aptitude is requisite. But it cannot be more difficult than to learn to use a foreign language with fluency, elegance, and accuracy; otherwise, so many persons would not have attained such excellence, and the difficulty seems to be quite similar to that of acquiring a language.

Whist was in 1734 described as a tavern game; but when Hoyle's treatise was published in 1742, it was played in society. On December 2 of that year Horace Walpole (Dr. Pole overlooks this record) writes: "The town is wondrous dull; operas unfrequented, plays not in fashion, amours as old as marriages—in short, nothing but whist! I have not yet learned to play, but I find that I wait in vain for its being left off." When did modern whist begin? Dr. Pole seems to date it from 1843, when the Chevalier von Cöckelbergle-Dützele published a treatise in which he insists upon the union of partners by means of the *Kartensprache*. But the Blue Peter, from which the present game has been developed, was introduced into the Portland Club by Lord Henry Bentinck only between 1851 and 1858. Clay and others, who would probably know, avoid saying that that nobleman *invented* the signal; and its name seems rather to suggest that it was borrowed from the play of the forecastle, in which case it was probably a recrudescence from the ignoble infancy of the game. We are told that its introducer afterwards expressed bitter regret for his act, because it had brought highly successful whist to the level of mean capacities. Clay, too, spoke of its effect in a tone of disparagement. Certainly, whatever justice there may have been in these laments would belong with hundredfold force to disapproval of the American game. Dr. Pole is very judicial in his remarks upon the matter, and feels that there is much to be said on both sides. He admires the new method, but dreads its possible consequences.

The volume (which is provided with an excellent index) is decidedly entertaining, and all the more so because of its intense seriousness.

Chronicles of Border Warfare in Western Virginia. By A. S. Withers. Edited by Reuben E. Thwaites. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. 1895.

This new edition is a very valuable publication. Withers, an eastern Virginian of liberal education, removed in 1827 to the western part of the State, settling in Harrison County, separated by only two others from the Ohio River. It was but thirty-three years since the border warfare there had come to a perpetual end through Gen. Wayne's treaty of Greenville in 1795. All early settlers of middle age could tell him about the closing years of that internecine conflict, in which most of them had had a share, and the nonagenarian first-comers could remember its beginning. The first stories he heard made Mr. Withers crave more, and he soon felt that the details he learned were worthy of the arts preservative, first of writing and then of printing. Accordingly his volume of 318 pages was published in 1831. Every copy had been subscribed for beforehand by those who in person or through kindred had been actors in the long tragedy. The volumes transmitted to their descendants are no doubt still treasured as heirlooms and priceless memorials of ancestral prowess. Hence the work long ago became hard to purchase even at a fabulous price. A new edition was often talked of, but was strangely and fortunately delayed till it fell into the hands best fitted for the work. Mr. Thwaites, the editor, already favorably known by several volumes on our early history, as Secretary of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin was familiar in its archives with the best collection extant of manuscripts throwing side-lights on all the main incidents from first to last of which Mr. Withers had written. The local habitations also of Mr. Withers's chronicles cannot have been so well known to himself from personal observation as they are to Mr. Thwaites, who last year surveyed them, not from Pullman cars or steamboats, but while paddling his own canoe from the upper waters of the Ohio to its mouth. He sometimes interviewed children of those makers of border history who sixty years before had spoken in the ears of Withers, their early chronicler.

The result is such a resurrection of what may be called the Magna Charta of West Virginia that nobody but a bibliomaniac will henceforth care to own the original. The main

facts as detailed in the original are confirmed, except when ascertainable only from documents beyond the author's reach. They bear witness to his painstaking and accuracy. At the same time the instances in which Mr. Thwaites has occasion for correcting, completing, or illustrating some statement are well-nigh as numerous as the pages. Seldom indeed can a caviller, though a Momus, correct the corrector. We notice, however, that according to his reckoning, September, 1782, was *seven* years after September, 1777, which was popularly called the year of three sevens (p. 224). Again, giving the etymology of the pedagogical hash Losantiville, he says that "*os* is Greek for mouth, and *anti* Latin for opposite."

The period which Withers chose for his theme—1764–1795, a thirty years' war—was the true winning of the West. In its first years Indian forays extended to the Susquehanna. After its close they were scarcely known eastward of the Territory of Indiana. Never within so short a time have so large aboriginal armies been gathered, and never have they defeated the whites in three such campaigns as those of Crawford, Harmar, and St. Clair. These operations on a grand scale are not neglected by Mr. Withers, but he is most at home in guerrilla conflicts, in fireside fights, in the scalping or captivity of single families, the burning of their houses and harvests, and the Amazonian heroism of women. No single one of these massacres could decide the result of a campaign, but their number was multitudinous, and they left no corner of the land untouched. Hence, so long as they lasted, thanks to their cumulative influence, the savages continued exultant and triumphant. It was carrying the war into Africa which confined them at home.

We cannot read many pages in Withers without feeling that we have supped full of horrors. It was not in Border nature to make war on savages except savagely—yes, with scalping and treachery. However low in baseness either party sank, the other in that lowest deep opened another yet lower. Each in turn was worst. A boy who had been delighted with 'Robinson Crusoe' burst into tears when he learned that it was not true. Every reader of 'Border Warfare' will weep all the more as he marks how small a fraction Mr. Thwaites's higher criticism is able to abate from its truth. "'Tis true 'tis pity, and pity 'tis 'tis true." The spirit thus engendered and intensified is not yet dead in that Border. It has just now cropped out, infernal as ever, in the Gordon-Brown butchery at Louisville.

In regard to the style of Mr. Withers, critics would find little fault had he been content with a plain tale of truth. We wish that, like modern interviewers, he had set down the very speech of the plain, blunt story-tellers, who spoke right on, and never for a tricksy word defied the matter. In that case we should not read that a man's body was perforated by balls (p. 57), nor of his inhumation and comminations (p. 116), nor of his inhaling the vital fluid (p. 128); perhaps not of his wife and children as partner of his bosom and pledges of their affection (p. 217).

The Historical Geography of the Holy Land, especially in relation to the History of Israel and of the Early Church. By George Adam Smith, D.D. With six maps. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1894. 8vo, pp. xxv, 692.

To students of the Bible this is an almost indispensable book. It is true that the relation of the geography to the history of Syria and the effects of its varied scenery and climate upon the Hebrew literature have been pointed out by many writers, preëminently by Dean Stanley in his 'Sinai and Palestine.' This has been only incidentally, however, while Dr. Smith has made it the main object of his work. He has also the immense advantage over those who have preceded him of writing in the light of the latest archæological discoveries and the results of recent Biblical criticism, yet cautiously withal: he fully accepts the methods of the "higher" critics and some of their conclusions, but contests others. Many problems he leaves to be solved by further investigations, or, as he happily expresses it in reference to the need of the exploration of the ruins covering the land, "we have run most of the questions to earth: it only remains to dig them up." Though the volume has little resemblance to the ordinary traveller's accounts, it is more than a mere text-book of geography. Occasionally scenes or historical events are regarded from the highest spiritual point of view, and at times in the driest descriptions of physical features there are passages of rare beauty, full of the spirit of the Hebrew poetry.

In the first of the three parts into which the book is divided, there is a general description of the land, its peculiar position as the "bridge" between the great empires of Egypt and Assyria, its shape and varieties of surface and climate, together with the influence which these have had upon its history, literature, and religion. An interesting, though necessarily somewhat vague, chapter contains the general conclusions which the author has reached. Historical geography, he frankly confesses, bears no further testimony to the authenticity or credibility of the Biblical narratives than that there is in them no geographical impossibility. But on the other hand its witness is "high and clear" to the story of the origin and development of the religion of Israel, to the appearance of monotheism, and to the question of the supernatural.

Dr. Smith takes up the land in detail in the second and third parts, beginning with the coast and maritime plain, and closing with an account of the oasis of Damascus. Only the principal features and historical events are described, though there is occasionally a fuller treatment of some special subject, as for instance the position of the well of Sychar, important from the part which it has played in the discussion of the authenticity of St. John's Gospel. But there is no account of the topography or history of Jerusalem, nor of the geography of Lebanon or Phœnicia. The most interesting chapters are those relating to Galilee and the Trans-Jordanic plains. In them is brought vividly before the mind the thronging and varied life of these regions in the early Christian centuries. Nor are the plains now so desolate as we are wont to imagine. Writing of the Hauran, Dr. Smith says: "It is a land of harvests, and, if you traverse it in summer, fills you with the wonder of its wealth." Along the great roads the bells of the camel caravans never cease the night through.

Dr. Smith's descriptions are, as a rule, singularly clear, and he is vague and somewhat hard to follow only when he is striving to express some spiritual thought. Few writers, for instance, have given a better account of the change of scenery and climate in crossing Judea:

"With its palms and shadoofs the Philistine Plain might be a part of the Egyptian Delta; but on the hills of the Shephelah which overlook it, you are in the scenery of southern Europe; the Judæan moors which overlook them are like the barer uplands of central Germany, the shepherds wear sheepskin cloaks and live under stone roofs—sometimes the snow lies deep; a few miles farther east, and you are down on the desert among the Bedouin, with their tents of hair and their cotton clothing; a few miles farther still, and you drop to torrid heat in the Jordan valley; a few miles beyond that, and you rise to the plateau of the Belkâ, where the Arabs say 'the cold is always at home.' Yet from Philistia to the Belkâ is scarcely seventy miles."

For pithiness, this concerning Jericho may be selected:

"She has been called 'the key' and 'the guard-house' of Judea; she was only the pantry. She never stood a siege, and her inhabitants were always running away."

There are several appendices which, with the numerous notes, form a very full *apparatus criticus*, and two indexes; but we miss, what would have been of great value, a list of Biblical passages referred to. The maps are models of beauty, though the spelling of the names does not always agree with that of the text.

Corrected Impressions: Essays on Victorian Writers. By George Saintsbury. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1895.

A DIVERTING little book is Mr. George Saintsbury's 'Corrected Impressions'—almost as good light reading as a clever novel. The papers it contains are of unequal merit, of course; the style, being Mr. Saintsbury's own, is now roughshod, now slipshod; the criticism is seldom very delicate, and makes few discoveries; the habitual self-confidence of the author never deviates into modesty; but all this does not make the book less entertaining. There are sombre patches of dulness, but not many of them. One is in the solemn essay on Mr. William Morris, in whom Mr. Saintsbury sees no faults worth mentioning, and whom he characterizes as the only English *trouvère* since Chaucer. We are used to the serious air of a Morris-worshipper at his devotions, and should think it indecorous, at such a moment, to ask for a definition of *trouvère* or a bill of particulars as to the resemblances between Chaucer and Mr. Morris. Besides, one must not take these papers too seriously. They are the chips and shavings of a professional critic's workbench. Their intent, in the first instance, was to fill so many sheets of copy for two respectable journals, one in India and one in New York. Incidentally, they were meant to picture the changes which years have wrought in the writer's impressions of "Victorian authors." For Mr. Saintsbury rightly divined that such changes in the mind of a veteran critic—even if he were not a critic of the very first rate—would interest most readers.

There is a portrait, too, perhaps to serve as ocular proof that the author is old enough to have changed his mind, perhaps merely to emphasize or justify the frankly egotistical manner of the essays. However meant, the portrait is welcome. Nor is the egotism offensive. Even when the writer informs us, with much gravity, that he is superior to mere literary fashions, we accept the amusing confession with equal gravity, remembering that it is hard to be a modest Boswell to one's own impressions. Less pardonable are some pages of commonplace, until we remember the exigencies of periodical publication.

In calling the volume by name no one should emphasize the word "Corrected." Mr.

Saintsbury has been pretty faithful to his early loves. Perhaps he has changed less than he imagines. Once he makes a comical *saltus:* he has modified his views so often, he argues, that, when he has not modified them, they have an excellent chance of being eternal truths. This is not an excessively shrewd remark, no doubt, but elsewhere there is abundant shrewdness in the book and much good sense and some humor. Above all, it is diverting, and that is a great merit.

Our Town and Some of Its People: Sketches of Fife Folk. By John Menzies. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams.

DIALECT literature obeys the laws of trade like all other commodities of the human brain and hand; and therefore, when once a profitable market has been made, the supply ere long exceeds the demand, and the quality of the article deteriorates. Barrie recreated public taste for certain extreme types of Scotch religious life, but both he and his imitators seem to have exhausted the supply of original characters. 'Our Town' describes, and does it well, the commonplace people of a Fifeshire town a generation ago, before the hamlet was brought within the vortex of the world o' life by the railroad, and machinery had supplanted the hand loom. The picture is not less real because the men and women are not all characters and the incidents narrated of their everyday life are not startling. It may be true that the simplest life contains elements worth telling, but what are worth telling are those hidden springs of action which, if they were recorded in the case of the simplest, might help us to unravel the complex tissue of motives whence originate the actions of the more exalted or more depraved lives. But this unveiling of the inner life is just what simple folk cannot do themselves, and which no one can do for them; and therefore the record of their daily deeds and misdeeds is neither very instructive nor very exhilarating. But it is less dull when expressed in the Scottish tongue or Irish brogue than when the conversations and the actions are told in English vernacular. Humorous and witty turns of thought, native to the people in their own homes and which seem to be lost with the loss of their speech when they emigrate, undoubtedly give a zest to the most ordinary story told in Lowland Scotch or Irish dialect. "Pawkey Dawvit" was not wrong when he lamented over the advent of the railroad, because, as he said:

> "Trains will come and gang, and folk will gang and come in them. Ae place will grow to be like ony ither place. There will be nae preevacy and nae indiveeduality. We'll just come to be a bit o' Edinbro' as Edinbro' is a bit o' Lunnon. You're prood o' your new station wi' its braw slate roof, and Tammie Adam the station-master's fine flooers i' the simmer, an' your gran' railway brig an' high embankment. Amon' them, they'll end Our Toon. Ye can ca' it Their Toon, Onybody's Toon as sune 's ye like."

Railroads, steamboats, the elimination of distance, and the compounding and confounding of peoples, as explained by Pawky Dawvit's philosophy, probably do account for the fact that the Scotch of America are not as humorous, or the Irish as witty, as in their old homes.

Studies in American Education. By Albert Bushnell Hart. Longmans, Green & Co.

THAT a small volume of miscellaneous studies in the national system of education includes an article on the status of athletics in colleges, and gravely lays down as one of three principles for their regulation that they shall be "subordinate to study," is a fact that bears its irony on its face. Of the remaining five articles, "How to Study History" meets such elementary conceptions of the subject that a single appearance (in a number of the *Chautauquan*) might have sufficed for its circulation. "How to Teach History in Secondary Schools," besides insisting forcibly upon the necessity for school libraries, with books of reference "convenient and accessible every day and all day," explains what, at the date of its writing in 1887, were the less understood differences between text-book and topical methods, as well as between historical courses arranged by chronological succession and by the German method of working from within outward, from known conditions to unknown. There are, no doubt, still many sections in which these points need to be made clear. Nevertheless, the study of history has advanced by leaps in the past decade, and methods now actively employed in some of the most advanced schools, for preparing pupils for their own future share in its making, are hardly hinted at here.

The substance of the volume is to be found in the three other essays. One of these sets forth what is feasible to colleges in the way of better instruction for teachers already engaged in their work, and describes at length courses instituted to this end by the writer's own university, Harvard. A cardinal difference between such courses and the familiar "Teachers' Institute" is that the former aim "to get a return in work and thought from the teachers themselves," whereas the function of the latter is to stimulate and suggest, not to supply practice. Thus the Harvard course in English is described as including themes with correction by a reader, while the courses in science have invariably included laboratory work. "Has the Teacher a Profession?" contains a plea, backed by every consideration of common sense, not only for the teacher's previous training, but for his standing as a public servant and an employee of Government. His position, in the latter capacity, is likened to that of a letter-carrier, who is hired, "not retained like lawyers." Freedom from annoying interference in details, "an opportunity to think, to suggest, and to criticise, without our heads rolling off," are two among a number of reasonable requests in behalf of teachers which ought properly to come in the form of demands.

"Reform in the Grammar Schools" is practically an account of the excellent work done by the Cambridge School Board in accomplishing the apparently contradictory ends of shortening the stereotyped course of six years to five or, at need, to four years for bright pupils in "quick-moving" grades, and, at the same time, of enriching the curriculum by the addition of English literature, geometry, physical geography "from a new standpoint," and physics. That these ends could not have been accomplished without the disinterested expenditure of time and ingenuity on the part of School Board and superintendent on the one hand, and the coöperation of Harvard in instructing teachers on the other, need hardly be remarked. Apart from what the articles describing both movements may teach the specialist, they are well adapted to impress on the general reader the facts that the management of grammar-schools is an important subject, that it is an interesting subject, and that it is a subject in regard to which it is worth while to take pains to be on the side of enlightenment and progress.

Family Records and Events, compiled principally from the original manuscripts in the Rutherfurd collection. By Livingston Rutherfurd. New York. Printed at the De Vinne Press. 1894. Tall 8vo, pp. 344.

THE title-page of this book disarms criticism. As a family record it very properly contains matters of great interest to the family, but of slight value to others. For example, the first eighty-three pages are devoted to the Alexanders, because the first of the American Rutherfurds married a sister of William Alexander, the claimant of the dormant Scotch earldom of Stirling. This peerage was conferred by Charles I. on a favorite courtier, Sir William Alexander, whose last descendant in the male line died in 1739. The title has been noteworthy mainly for two reasons—first, because of Alexander's connection with Nova Scotia and the creation of baronets of Nova Scotia; and, secondly, because of the romantic attempts to revive the earldom. Scotch peerages differ from English ones by the remarkable provisions contained in many of the former in favor of remote heirs. Thus, it is generally understood that, on the decease of the last earl in the direct line, the title might devolve upon the nearest heir in the male line of the name. It is also agreed that the heir male of the grandfather of the first earl was William Alexander of New York, whose father, James, came to New York in 1715, married here and died here. This William was usually called Earl of Stirling, and was one of Washington's most faithful generals. He left two daughters only, Mrs. Watts and Mrs. Duer, both with numerous issue, and the peerage claim thereby ceased in this line. Some forty years ago a claimant appeared in Scotland, who pretended a surrender and reissue of the first patent, whereby heirs female were admitted. The case was famous from the remarkable chain of forged evidence presented, though the claimant was not proved to have been the concocter thereof. William, titular Lord Stirling, had four sisters, married respectively to Peter V. B. Livingston, John Stevens, Elisha Parker and Walter Rutherfurd, and John Reid.

Walter Rutherfurd was one of the nineteen children of Sir John Rutherfurd, Knt., of Edgerston, the head of the family of the name. Walter entered the army at an early age, and served in America in 1756, being major of the Royal American regiment. In 1758 he married, as above noted, Katherine Alexander, widow of Elisha Parker. Soon afterwards he retired from the army and devoted himself to the care of his vast estates, having had a grant of five thousand acres in Tryon County, N. J., besides his wife's property; and he maintained a strict neutrality during the Revolutionary war.

John Rutherfurd, only son of Walter, was born in 1760, became a lawyer, and in 1790 was elected United States Senator from New Jersey. He was chosen for a second term, but resigned in 1798. He died in 1840, leaving many descendants by sons and daughters, all duly recorded in this volume.

It is almost unnecessary to add that the family has been of the highest distinction socially for the past century. Wealth, culture, activity, and public spirit ennoble a family even in a republic. A pride in such an ancestry, if it lead to an attempt to maintain hereditary virtues, is one of the strongest pillars in our social edifice. The main interest for the general public in this volume is the collection of family letters. No new facts of importance are brought to light, but the reader will find many items which will give him an

insight into social life a century ago. None of the letters are to be compared with those of Elizabeth Southgate, published in 1888, nor with the charming diary of Anna Green Winslow, reviewed by us last year; but they are pleasant reading. It is to be hoped that documents still remaining in the hands of other noted colonial families will yet be put in print.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Gender in Satin. [Incognito Library.] Putnams. 50 cents.
Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale: Son Histoire, Ses Travaux. Paris: Bibliothèque Chacornac.
Barker, J. M. Colleges in America. Cleveland: Cleveland Printing and Publishing Co.
Bergeron, Prof. Eugène. Balzac's Eugénie Grandet. Henry Holt & Co. 80 cents.
Bey, Aleph. That Eurasian. F. T. Neely. $1.25.
Blanc, Madame. The Condition of Woman in the United States. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Bormann, Edwin. Der Anekdotenschatz Bacon-Shakespeare's. Leipzig: The Author.
Bosanquet, Bernard. The Essentials of Logic. Macmillan. $1.
Bridges, Robert. Suppressed Chapters, and Other Bookishness. Scribners. $1.25.
Cargill, J. F. A Freak in Finance. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Case, W. S. Forward House: A Romance. Scribners. $1.00.
Church Harmonies, New and Old. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.
Clementson, G. B. The Road Rights and Liabilities of Wheelmen. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. 75 cents.
Corbin, John. The Elizabethan Hamlet. London: Elkin Mathews; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Cornelison, Isaac A. The Relation of Religion to Civil Government in the U. S. Putnams. $2.
Cousins, Rev. W. E. Madagascar of To-day. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Dana, C. A. The Art of Newspaper-Making. Appletons.
Dean, Mrs. Andrew. The Grasshoppers. F. A. Stokes Co.
Defoe, Daniel. Memoirs of a Cavalier. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Del Mar, Alexander. History of Monetary Systems. London: Effingham Wilson.
Dresser, H. W. The Power of Silence. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $1.50.
Elton, Oliver. An Introduction to Michael Drayton. Manchester, Eng.: Charles E Simms & Co.
Foster, Prof. M. A Text-Book of Physiology. Revised and abridged from the five-volume edition. Macmillan. $5.
Fothergill, Jessie. Oriole's Daughter. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
Galbraith, Dr. Anna. Hygiene and Physical Culture for Women. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
Gall, John. Royal Handbook of Popular Science. T. Nelson & Sons. 50 cents.
Goodnow, Prof. F. J. Municipal Home Rule. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hart, Prof. J. M. A Handbook of English Composition. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Bro. $1.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. V. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Holdsworth, Annie E. Joanna Traill, Spinster. Cassell. 50 cents.
Huidekoper, Dr. R. S. The Cat. Appletons. $1.
Kenealy, Capt. A. J. Boat Sailing, Fair Weather and Foul. *Outing* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
King Henry VI. Parts I., II., and III. [Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45 cents.
Letters of Celia Thaxter. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Lois Sociales: Recueil des Textes de la Législation Sociale de la France. Paris: Léon Chailley.
Lombroso, Prof. Cæsar, and Ferrero, William. The Female Offender. Appletons
Lord, W. S. Blue and Gold. Chicago: *Dial* Press.
Marryat, Florence. The Beautiful Soul. Cassell. 50 cents.
Mathews, F. S. Familiar Flowers of Field and Garden. Illustrated. Appletons. $1.75.
Menzies, Rev. Allan. History of Religion. Scribners. $1.50.
Montrésor, F. F. Into the Highways and Hedges. Appletons.
Mun, Thomas. England's Treasure by Forraign Trade. [Economic Classics.] Macmillan. 75 cents.
Nénot, H.-P. La Nouvelle Sorbonne. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Parker, J. A. Ernest England: A Drama for the Closet. London: Leadenhall Press; New York: Scribners. $3.
Payot, Jules. L'Education de la Démocratie. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Philips, F. C. A Question of Color. London: Constable; New York: F. A. Stokes Co.
Pillsbury, J. H. An Elementary Course in Biology. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Pinckney, Rev. C. C. Life of General Thomas Pinckney. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Saltus, Edgar. When Dreams Come True. Transatlantic Publishing Co.
Sanger, Dr. W. M. The History of Prostitution. New York: American Medical Press. $4.
Satolli, Archbishop. Loyalty to Church and State. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. $1.25.
Schroeder, Dr. Aimée R. Health Notes for Young Wives. William Wood & Co.
Selected Essays of James Darmesteter. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Sizeranne, Robert de la. La Peinture Anglaise Contemporaine. Paris: Hachette.
Southworth, Mrs. The Phantom Wedding. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Stanley, H. M. My Early Travels and Adventures in America and Asia. 2 vols. Scribners. $3.
Thompson, Anna B. The Unity of Fichte's Doctrine of Knowledge. [Radcliffe College Monographs.] Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Tolstoy, Count Leo. Master and Man. Appletons. 75 cents.
Underwood, F. H. Doctor Gray's Quest. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.75.
Varney, G. J. The Story of Patriots' Day: Lexington and Concord. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 60 cents.
Wells, H. S. The Time Machine: An Invention. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Winsor, Justin. The Mississippi Basin. 1697—1763. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 30, 1895.

The Week.

When President Cleveland last summer assumed the power to order federal troops into a State without a request from its Governor, and even against the latter's protest, in order to stop obstruction of the mails and interference with interstate commerce, Judge Cooley of Michigan expressed the opinion that "a great and valuable lesson in constitutional construction has been settled for all time." This opinion has been justified by the unanimous decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Debs case on Monday, fully endorsing the course taken by the President, and asserting the supreme power of the federal Government in such an emergency. The equity jurisdiction of the federal courts has been so enlarged as to make the injunction a writ of general application, which may be used by the courts even for police purposes. The action of the Executive was warmly approved at the time by the legislative department of the Government and by the people of the nation. Now that it is endorsed without the slightest qualification by the judicial department, a precedent has been established which can never be questioned. Debs, Altgeld & Co. have thus unconsciously rendered the country a great service by their course last year, for it is an immense gain to have so important a principle of constitutional construction definitely settled.

The decision contains one passage which should be studied with attention by the labor organizations of the country. It is pointed out that the right of any laborer or of any number of laborers to quit work was not challenged, and that the only object of the proceedings against Debs and his fellow-conspirators was to restrain forcible occupation of the highways along which interstate commerce and the mails are carried. The decision proceeds:

> "A most earnest and eloquent appeal was made to us in eulogy of the heroic spirit of those who threw up their employment and gave up their means of earning a livelihood, not in defence of their own rights, but in sympathy for and to assist others whom they believed to be wronged. We yield to none in our admiration of any act of heroism or self-sacrifice, but we may be permitted to add that it is a lesson which cannot be learned too soon or too thoroughly, that, under this government of and by the people, the means of redress of all wrong are through the courts and the ballot-box, and that no wrong, real or fancied, carries with it legal warrant to invite, as a means of redress, the coöperation of a mob, with its accompanying acts of violence."

As every great strike, like this "sympathetic" strike of the railroad men last summer in aid of the Pullman employees, always involves "acts of violence," it is well to have notice thus served by the highest tribunal of the land that the whole power of the Government may lawfully be invoked to suppress such violence, and that redress must be sought only through the courts and the ballot-box.

Senator Hill's impudence in accepting congratulations on the defeat of the income tax is colossal. He is responsible for the fact that in the most momentous case for the city and State of New York which has ever come before the Supreme Court—a case which most seriously affected its commercial interests—the State had no representative upon the bench. He did all that he could do to make the decision impossible. Then, too, while he opposed the law in the Senate, he had not the courage to say a word against it when he took the field as candidate for Governor immediately after its passage. He was dumb as an oyster about it in all his speeches. Yet now he says, in returning thanks for congratulations on its death: "The country more than myself is to be congratulated upon its relief from an inquisitorial, unjust, and socialistic law."

The fact that the State Senators who are chosen this year will vote for a successor to Mr. Hill in the United States Senate adds greatly to the importance of the election. It may be taken for granted that Hill is already at work in his own behalf, and that he will leave nothing undone to control the succession. The Republicans will have to watch both him and Tom Platt, for the two will make a "deal" for mutual benefit if necessary. Under the new Constitution the Senators elected this year will hold office for three years instead of two, that length of term being necessary in order to bring about the separation of municipal elections. It is, therefore, of the first importance that the best attainable men be put in nomination, for if the old jobbers who have made reform legislation so difficult during the past few years succeed in getting returned for three years more, we shall be in a hopeless condition for all that period.

The Memphis sound-money convention has turned out a much greater success than even its friends anticipated. A thousand delegates, an audience of five thousand people, and immense enthusiasm are the chief features of the newspaper reports. The speeches added to the éclat of the occasion. The platform adopted is admirably in keeping with the spirit of the movement. It abandons all disguises, subterfuges, compromises, and, in default of international action, declares for the gold standard. There is no more talk about "not discriminating against silver." That has been the shibboleth of cowards and trimmers in both parties for the past fifteen years, despite the fact that we have been discriminating against it all that time, and are doing so still. Unless the mint receives silver from all persons in unlimited quantity, and wherever mined, and coins it for the account and benefit of the owners, exactly as it receives gold, it discriminates against silver. Buying silver in limited quantities and coining it for account of the Government is itself discrimination. This is one of the few truths stated in 'Coin's Financial School.' Yet the Government was discriminating in exactly this way until 1893, when the Sherman act was repealed, and all the efforts made by Bland, Stewart, and others in Congress to put an end to discrimination by enacting free coinage failed completely. Yet the politicians have been urging each other all the time to stop discriminating and telling the people that they were on the point of doing so.

The Memphis platform is commendable in other respects. It proposes to retire all circulating notes smaller than ten dollars except silver certificates, in order to make room for silver dollars and silver certificates. We have got these dollars on hand and we must do something with them. This is probably the best disposition to make of them at present, *i. e.*, to create a vacuum for them to fill. By and by, when the public mind is cured of its hallucinations, and when we can all look at silver as a metal and not as a Dulcinea in the grasp of a giant, some other disposition may be made of the mass which now fills the vaults of the Treasury. The resolution which was adopted in commendation of the "unflagging courage and sturdy patriotism of President Cleveland" was appropriately reserved to the last, and was greeted with tumultuous applause by the audience and delegates. This demonstration proves again for the hundredth time that the people are with him, and that they believe in him all the more as the politicians oppose him and try to insult him. The last Congress can read the obituary that the people have prepared for them in this resolution of the Memphis convention.

The leading Republican organ helps on the cause of sound money and business revival by carefully concealing its own opinions and throwing cold water on the movement to fight financial error in the South. Secretary Carlisle cannot really believe what he is saying, as its long extracts from his silver speeches show. Nobody but a Republican is privileged to change his mind on the silver question. Then what folly it is for Mr.

Carlisle to talk about plans to retire the greenbacks and substitute for them silver certificates. These last are "liable to depreciate," whereas the greenbacks have the good faith and resources of the nation pledged to redeem them in gold. No more than the silver certificates have. The day that only fifty cents could be got for a silver certificate for one dollar, not a cent could be got for a greenback dollar; for that would be the day of the Government's bankruptcy. Its good faith and resources are no more behind one class of paper currency than they are behind another; but the silver certificates have behind them, in addition, fifty cents' worth of silver which the holder can get even if the worst comes. The *Tribune's* proposition, put into the language of business, is that it is "safer" to have out demand notes for a dollar, with nothing in bank to pay them with, than to have out an equal number of notes with ready money on hand sufficient to pay off 50 per cent. of them.

Chairman Carter of the Republican national committee does not seem to understand the sentiment of the Northwest on the silver question. He was in New York last week declaring that there are fifty-nine electoral votes in that part of the country that will "hang in the balance on the silver question." Of course, the four from Oregon are included in this total, but the action of the State convention of Republican League clubs shows that there is no warrant for the claim. A sound-money delegation was elected to the national convention by a large majority after a contest with the free-coinage men, and, as the silver craze is now subsiding everywhere, there seems no reason to doubt that Oregon may hereafter be counted with confidence on the right side of the financial question. Washington is another State with four electoral votes which cannot any longer be set down as sure for the free-coinage side. Its Governor, like those of other States in that section, received an invitation to appoint delegates to the recent convention of silverites at Salt Lake City, but he refused to comply with this suggestion from the Governor of Montana, who took the initiative in the matter. Gov. McGraw declared his belief that free coinage means silver monometallism, and would be fraught with peril to the business and industry of the country, and for this reason he would not lend any favor whatever to the Salt Lake scheme, although a weaker man in his place might have pleaded the free-coinage plank in the last State platform of his party as excusing the appointment of delegates. The silver mines of Washington are of trifling importance compared with the other interests of the State, and consequently it has no such local motives for yielding to the silver craze as Montana or Colorado. Apparently the movement has gained headway chiefly because so far nobody has fought it, and the open opposition of Gov. McGraw may easily prove all that was needed to turn the tide.

International bimetallism is rapidly assuming the appearance of an international will-o'-the-wisp. The German Ministry now announce, and get the lower house of the Prussian Diet to vote, that nothing can be done for silver in an international way without the assent and coöperation of Great Britain. That means that nothing can be done at all. The chances now are that no conference will be called, even for academic discussion. The international dodge has never been anything more than a pretty toy to amuse certain restless minds and keep them out of mischief; but it is now so thoroughly worn out that even they will not play with it much longer. International bimetallists will soon appear very like international arithmeticians who should maintain that, while within the bounds of any one country it was impossible to make two equal to four, by attacking the problem in an international way the trick could be done.

The full text of the currency bill which lately passed both houses of the Chilian Congress is published in the last bulletin of the Bureau of American Republics. What the law really does is to take Chili out of the ruck of silver-standard nations. The "monetary unit" is declared by article 16 to be the gold dollar. Silver is to be coined, but is not to be a legal-tender for sums greater than $50, and the "ratio" is enough to bring tears to the hardest bimetallist cheek. It is fixed at a little more than 33⅓ to 1—in other words, at about the present market rate. It would appear that the Chilians in this silver business are students of markets, not of maxims—at least not of those maxims which deal with ratios, natural, climbing, historic, constitutional, or other. Their action would be another blow to bimetallism, were it not for the happy consideration that it was probably taken at the instigation of England. Chili's business relations with Great Britain are unusually close, and what British policy will do in the interest of gold we all know. We need but give the hint to Senator Morgan; he will explain the whole devilish business. That is one great blessing of the drift of the civilized world to the gold standard. As country after country goes over, its business is at once put on a stable foundation and all mercantile interests satisfied, and at the same time the bimetallists are left free to lay it all to the greed of England, at whom they can make faces and shake their fists more furiously than ever. While this resource is left them they cannot be wholly cast down.

The estimates of the Director of the Mint of the gold production of the world for the year 1894 are now complete, and they show a total output of $172,000,000. This is $2,000,000 larger than the provisional estimate. The figures for several recent years are as follows:

1890	118,848,000	1893	157,228,000
1891	130,650,000	1894	172,000,000
1892	146,297,000		

It is believed that this ratio of increase will continue during the next four years and until the annual production reaches $225,000,000, and that it will continue at that figure for at least ten years.

Great are the naval regulations. Under them Admiral Meade could not be court-martialled for a newspaper interview grossly insubordinate in tone. As he refused either to affirm or deny the interview, and as the reporter did not come forward voluntarily to testify against him, nothing could be done. All the sea-lawyers held that the interview could in no way be put in evidence. It was as though it never had been. But, though destroyed for court-martial purposes, it was still good for purposes of reprimand. The Admiral's commander-in-chief retires him from the navy, according to his request, but with a severe censure, based on the interview. Admiral Meade does not protest against the censure; if he did, he would have either to acknowledge or repudiate the interview and bring himself within the reach of a court-martial. So his silence is secured, at any rate, as is also that of the other naval officers, who have withstood the blandishments of reporters with unaccustomed firmness since they discovered how much more dangerous to them the pen might be than the sword. The whole incident is a queer illustration of the way red tape sometimes gets the better of common sense, yet its total effect on the discipline of the navy will doubtless be salutary.

The latest extension of the civil-service system by the President brings under the operation of the rules all of the employees of the Agricultural Department except half-a-dozen of the highest officials and the laborers and charwomen—in all, nearly five hundred persons. The chief significance of the action is in the evidence which it furnishes that Mr. Cleveland intends to continue throughout the remainder of his term the extension of the system in various directions, so that the number of places open to a "clean sweep" in 1897 will be far smaller than it was in 1893. Partisan considerations will strengthen Mr. Cleveland's natural disposition in this direction, as the prospect of a Republican victory in 1896 will incline Democrats to protect so far as possible the men whom they have succeeded in getting into office. There is consequently no motive for any protest from his own party, while the Republicans cannot afford to denounce his course. Indeed, the spoilsmen now so generally recognize the hopelessness of any further

opposition that these extensions of the system pass almost without a comment.

The hullabaloo in South Carolina over the decision of Judge Goff declaring the State's registration laws unconstitutional is subsiding, and the people are evidently disgusted with the boyish talk of Gov. Evans about revolution. Even the leaders of his faction are virtually repudiating his attitude, and Senator Irby has come out in advocacy of the extra session of the Legislature which Gov. Evans at first declared he would never call. Such a session could pass a valid registration law, and thus insure a quiet and peaceable election, and Senator Irby declares that to secure these ends the State can well afford the few thousand dollars that a meeting of the lawmakers would cost. An interesting contribution to the current discussion is a letter from Wade Hampton, who, as Democratic candidate for Governor in 1876, led in the "redemption" of South Carolina from the coalition of negroes and carpetbaggers, declaring that he has "no fear of negro domination," confessing that "the negroes have acted of late with rare moderation and liberality," holding that, if the conservative whites meet them in the same spirit they have shown, they will aid in selecting good men for the Constitutional Convention, and making this manly declaration:

> "I, for one, am willing to trust them, and they ask only the rights guaranteed to them by the Constitution of the United States and that of our own State. 'Corruption wins not more than honesty,' and I advocate perfect honesty, for defeat on that line is better than victory by fraud."

The Presbyterian Assembly decides that it will not take doctrine from rich New Yorkers, but will take as much money as they please to give. It had been a favorite theory with some of the Western conservatives that the reason the missionary boards were so heavily in debt was that the Briggs element in New York had too much to do with their management. Thoroughly orthodox givers would think twice before sending money to the heathen through directors who had any doubts about the comfortable Westminster views of heathen damnation. Get the Briggs men off the boards, and there would be money enough. So said the Western men, and proposed to veto the reëlection of all liberal trustees. But Dr. Hall came to the rescue, and showed that this Western idea of finance in the religious world was about as wild as some of the financial ideas in the political world which have come from the same quarter. It was a queer way to extinguish debt, he said, to alienate the contributions of the most generous givers. Alienate no man who has a dollar to give us, he pleaded, and the Assembly rose as one man to that sentiment, and unanimously reëlected the Briggs trustees—heresy, dollars, and all.

The Assembly's deliverance against Union Seminary on Thursday was intended to "tie it up" more completely than ever, to use the language which such boycotting action naturally suggests, but really adds little to what had been done before. Union students can no longer be received "under the care" of Presbyteries, which means that they cannot obtain pecuniary aid from the church in the course of their theological education. But this appeal to the nobler instincts of generous youth has already been blocked by the rich friends of the seminary, who have authorized the faculty to say that students will not be allowed to suffer in their finances by the church boycott. So the heretics will still be kept comfortably in funds. On the other hand, as the Assembly itself has to admit, a young man applying for entrance into the Presbyterian ministry "should stand on his merits as revealed by examination." Thus the boycott will be no boycott at all if the students make orthodox answers. They are shrewd enough to see that; and any of them who might be base enough to be frightened away from Union by the Assembly's monetary threat would have no difficulty in devising a theology to suit their examiners. Indeed, we seem to have observed in some Union candidates for the ministry a sort of wicked delight in making themselves out more orthodox than the Pope, as men who had passed through the flames of heresy without leaving so much as the smell of fire on their garments. In view of such possibilities, and of the large patronage which the seminary has had, and will probably have in greater measure in the future, from young men of an independent and scholarly turn, who do not dodge at every flash of theological lightning, it is not surprising that the Union authorities look upon this latest action of the Assembly with comparative indifference.

We cannot account for the cold reception given the new Formosan republic in this country. Where are the enthusiastic "Greetings to Formosa!" and the loud calls for a man at Washington who would just step up to the Old World and say right here that the United States would not see republican institutions crushed out? Surely all the alert Jingo editors cannot have sailed for Europe. Formosa would make a far better republic than Hawaii. To start with, she has 1,500,000 inhabitants, to Hawaii's 90,000, and presumably, therefore, fifteen times as many voters in need of representation. There is also a delightful variety of languages spoken, one district alone being reported by a missionary to boast eight different and mutually unintelligible dialects. There we have at once eight different "votes" to be swung for candidates, and what qualification for republican government can be more fundamental than that? Moreover, if Hawaii must be a republic because it is a "key," Formosa should be one, *à fortiori*, because it is a "bridge," or at least one pier in a bridge across the sea which we cannot basely sit down and leave in the hands of profane monarchists. Really, the Jingoes will be violently suspected of sleeping on the ramparts of liberty unless they speedily give their all-hail to the new sister republic.

A little while ago the London and Northwestern Railway Company deemed it advisable to change the duties of a number of its work-people in Wales who speak only the Welsh language. This was done in the interest of safe travel, as it was deemed unwise to allow men who could not speak English to be left alone in responsible positions in connection with the working of trains. In Wales, however, there is a strong national feeling. The new radicalism is also strong and active there, and as a consequence the Welsh members of the House of Commons became greatly worked up over the treatment of the Welsh section hands, and determined that, if Parliament could bring it about, they should be all reinstated. First of all, the Welsh members delayed for two weeks a bill giving the London and Northwestern Company parliamentary powers to enlarge one of their junction stations, and carry out some other necessary improvements. They did not, however, fully succeed in these "striker" tactics, and they then next moved for a select committee to inquire into the conduct of the railway company, on the ground that railway companies are in the enjoyment of powers derived from Parliament, and are necessarily within its jurisdiction on questions concerning labor. Old members of the House of Commons were startled when they read the terms of the resolution, and Mr. Balfour appealed to the Speaker to know whether it was in order. The Speaker admitted that there was no precedent for it. Further than that he would not go, and as a consequence of this ruling an entire evening sitting of the House was devoted to a discussion concerning the London and Northwestern Railway and its Welsh-speaking section hands. In the end it was proved to the satisfaction of the House that the company had in no wise treated its men with harshness, and that the changing about of the men who could not understand English had really been for the safety of the travelling public. The upshot of the debate is only a small matter. What is important is the fact that a precedent has been established of far-reaching import, in view of the large and varied industries which an adroit parliamentarian, eager to be on the side of labor, can bring within the purview of the House, on a pretext like that put forward in the case of the London and Northwestern Railway. The incident is noteworthy as an indication of the lively pace at which labor politics are moving in England and the direction which they are taking.

SECRETARY GRESHAM.

No estimate of the late Mr. Gresham's conduct of the State Department should begin without weighing the enormous difficulties which confronted him. The first and greatest of these was the need of recovering for the department its ancient and traditional American spirit and policy. In other words, he had to undo the demoralization wrought directly by Mr. Blaine, and indirectly, and perhaps still more powerfully, by what may be called the Blaine legend. For there was always a legendary Blaine coexisting with the real Blaine. The real Blaine wandered far enough from the precedents set by Webster, and Marcy, and Seward, and Fish, but it was the legendary and unreal Blaine who did most of the mischief. The real Blaine conducted the Italian dispute in a correct and dignified manner, and knuckled under to Great Britain in the Bering Sea matter gracefully enough when the pinch came; and it was only the imaginary Blaine who was always taking the hated foreigner by the beard, making stump speeches to lords and potentates, and aiming the big guns. But it was the latter personality that had dominated and demoralized the State Department, filled the heads of flighty naval officers with visions of war, and created and fostered in weak and silly minds throughout the country the idea that national greatness meant national quarrelsomeness and bluster.

To change all this, and to walk in the dignified ways of Evarts and Frelinghuysen and Bayard, was Mr. Gresham's main and most difficult task. That he should be ferociously attacked while essaying it was inevitable. He was not only reversing the Blaine policy, he was doing it as a Republican who had opposed Blaine—was doing it, to fill up the cup of his iniquity, as a Republican under a Democratic President. It took no gift of prophecy to foresee, and we presume that Mr. Gresham foresaw as clearly as anybody, that he would be damned if he did and damned if he didn't. The savage and senseless attacks upon him by the inheritors and expounders of the Blaine legend could not have surprised him, and apparently did not disturb him. The very fury of his assailants was their own undoing and his safety. American humor came to his rescue, and refused to do anything except smile at the supernatural imbecility and consistently craven spirit of the newspaper Secretary of State.

Meanwhile the actual Secretary went on his way, and fairly earned the praise bestowed upon him by eminent jurists and experts in international law as the ablest Secretary the country has had since Hamilton Fish. Equally deserving has he proved himself of the thanks of Americans who see something to arouse national pride in a dignified and courteous conduct of our foreign relations. It is a great thing to have had two years of a Secretary who wrote his despatches with his eye wholly on the business in hand, with a desire chiefly to know what the facts and what the law were, and to state his views in a quiet and gentlemanly way, instead of one who was always thinking, as he wrote, how much his "sass" of Lord Salisbury would tickle the mining-camps and the bar-rooms, and who thought that diplomatic usage, maps, treaties, and international law were all useless rubbish for an enterprising statesman. Judged by the international standard (and that is the standard by which a Secretary of State should be chiefly judged), Mr. Gresham has been a great success, and has made American honor, capacity, and courtesy mean more in the eyes of the world than they had seemed to mean for many a day.

By the test, too, of actual accomplishment his two years' service will rank with any like period for a generation. As his professional maligners are, as usual, shy of the facts, it may be well to give succinctly the list of his diplomatic achievements. First of these comes his scornful refusal to profit by fraud and collusion in Hawaii, and his high and firm assertion that there was not one standard of honor for an individual and another for a nation. That action, it is safe to say, has given the best minds of Europe, whose praise and good opinion are worth any nation's seeking, a conception of the possibilities of a nice sense of honor and justice in a democracy wholly new to them. Mr. Gresham carried successfully through the period of negotiation and ratification a complicated and important treaty with China. Equally important is his treaty with Japan, covering many vexed questions of extraterritoriality and citizenship. Through his friendly representations Great Britain has been induced finally and for ever to relinquish her protectorate over the Mosquito Coast, thus ending a tedious controversy which had plagued the department from the days of Marcy down. In all these matters, and in his sharp rebukes of American ministers whom our vicious political system had saddled upon him, and who were disgracing the country abroad by their ignorance and indecency, he has borne himself as one worthy of the best traditions of his office.

His personal bearing has been excellent throughout. He has not been a newspaper correspondents' Secretary, and hence, no doubt, the wounds, subject to weekly reopening, which some of them carry on their persons. But in informing the public of the state of negotiations and of the real questions at issue, he has been frank, and has done excellent service in the cause of educating the people in international relations and regulations. His quiet circulation of the text of the Monroe doctrine, with explanations of its origin and meaning, was a shrewd stroke, and certainly closed many a blatant mouth. All told, the work he did even in the career now prematurely closed was of a sort to win him the good opinion of all his countrymen whose respect is worth having, and to mark him out as a most useful public servant. President Cleveland will find it hard, if not impossible, to obtain a successor equal to him; but one thing can be and should be made certain, that his successor, whoever he may be, shall be a man who, like Mr. Gresham, will walk in the beaten and honorable path of American diplomacy, and not go wandering in the by and forbidden ways of ignorant bullying that thinks itself statesmanship.

FEDERAL JUDGES AND STATE LAWS.

THE recent decision of Judge Goff in the United States Circuit Court at Columbia declaring unconstitutional the registration laws of South Carolina has been generally treated as a novel and unprecedented attempt at interference with State elections by the federal judiciary. The fact has been overlooked that a similar decision was rendered with reference to the registration laws of Georgia by Judge Speer of the United States District Court three years ago, and that this judgment was accepted and acted upon by the State. The federal election laws were then on the statute-book, and the case brought before Judge Speer grew out of an application for the appointment of supervisors of the election for Presidential electors and Representatives in Congress for Wilkinson and Richmond Counties. These laws having since been repealed, so much of the decision as pertains to their scope and application is no longer of any importance. But a vital portion of it concerns only the Constitution and laws of Georgia, and the Judge's ruling upon these points is not affected by the repeal of the federal election laws.

The Constitution of Georgia provides that every male citizen of the United States (except idiots, insane persons, and the other usually excepted classes), twenty-one years of age, who has resided in the State one year before an election and in the county for six months, and has paid his taxes, "shall be deemed an elector." It further declares that "the General Assembly may provide from time to time for the registration of all electors." Under these provisions Judge Speer held that it was within the power of the Legislature to require a registration of voters for an election for Presidential electors and Representatives in Congress, as well as for State officers—the federal Constitution providing that the electors of the national House of Representatives in each State "shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature." This registration, he said, would be operative upon all the voters in the State at such elections.

The grave matter for consideration in this case was whether the State of Georgia had required a registration of this cha-

racter. There were at the time local registration acts for many different counties of the State, as various as they were numerous. Did these many local acts constitute such a "registration of all electors" as the Constitution authorized the Legislature to make? "Are such registration laws for particular counties," asked Judge Speer, "differing among themselves in a multitude of material features, in consonance with the Constitution of Georgia and the Constitution and laws of the United States?"

In order to answer this question, the federal judge proceeded to examine the Constitution and laws of the State. The Constitution, which was adopted in 1877, provides that "laws of a general nature shall have uniform operation throughout the State, and no special law shall be enacted in any case for which provision has been made by an existing general law." At that time the existing general law empowered "any qualified voter for members of the General Assembly to vote for any candidate or upon any question which is submitted to all the voters of the State in any county in the State, and for any candidate or question which is submitted to all the voters of any district or circuit, in any county of the circuit or district in which is embraced the county of the voter's residence."

A cursory examination of the various local registration acts passed by the Legislature after 1877 showed not only an utter absence of uniformity, but also the most glaring inequalities. Chattooga County allowed registration until three days before the November election, while Pierce County ended it on the 5th of August, and Appling County by the 1st of July. It often happened that there were two contiguous counties in the same congressional district, in one of which citizens might register up to the day before the election, while, in the other, voters possessing all the qualifications required by the Constitution were denied the right of voting by a registration which closed from six months to a year before the election. This widespread irregularity was intensified in its effect by the fact that in many counties there were no registration laws whatever.

Judge Speer held that the constitutional requirement that laws of a general nature should have uniform operation throughout the State prevented the Legislature from enacting registration laws for one county in a congressional district differing from those for another county in the same district; from enacting such laws to affect a general election, like that for Presidential electors or Representatives in Congress, for particular counties in a congressional district when it failed to enact a uniform law for the whole territory; and from enacting any registration law affecting the qualifications of voters at general elections unless the law was of uniform operation throughout the State. He quoted that "eminent authority," Judge Cooley, as declaring that, while registration laws are constitutional, their requirements must be reasonable and uniform, and equal facilities must be afforded to all the citizens of the State to comply with their requirements, or they are void. "This declaration," he continued, "is especially pertinent where the organic law of the State requires, as we have seen to be the case in Georgia, the enactment of uniform and not special legislation, and where the registration clause of the Constitution provides, not for the registration of a portion of those otherwise qualified to vote, but for the registration of 'all electors.'" Judge Speer therefore reached this conclusion:

> "For the reasons stated, the court is of the opinion that the registration enactments of the General Assembly of Georgia are inoperative and void, because in conflict with the Constitution of the State."

This is a clear and distinct affirmation of the right of the federal courts to inquire into the legislation of a State and to declare laws inoperative and void because they conflict with the Constitution of the State—as was done by Judge Goff in regard to the registration laws of South Carolina. Judge Speer's decision was accepted by the people of Georgia, and the last Legislature enacted a general registration law, uniform in its terms and in its operation on all counties and on all the people. The same thing might be done in South Carolina now if Gov. Evans would convene the Legislature for the purpose, so that delegates to the constitutional convention might be legally elected in August.

JUSTICE HARLAN'S HARANGUE.

Bagehot tells a story of Lord Eldon, when Lord Chancellor, having said, "D—n me, if I had to begin life again, I would begin as an agitator." Some such idea must have been running through Justice Harlan's head ever since he mounted the Supreme Bench. But he would probably have put it, "If I were to live my life over again, I would remain an agitator." It would be an impertinence to inquire into or comment on the antecedents of a judge, apropos of a legal decision. But the political harangue delivered on Monday week by Justice Harlan, in the guise of a judgment on the constitutionality of an act of Congress, has set everyone asking who is this orator in a silk robe who feels so strongly about taxation? Justice Harlan had run once for Congress and twice for the governorship of Kentucky unsuccessfully before 1877. It is but just to him to say that, being a Republican in Kentucky, his defeats reflected no discredit on him, but his nominations showed that he liked office. He was sent to Louisiana as a "visiting statesman" after the election of 1876, and, very soon after the unsavory business of making good the returns of the Louisiana Board, he was appointed a justice of the Supreme Court. We said of the appointment at the time, that "the selection was respectable, but would not have occurred to the President if he had been bent solely on maintaining the character of the court." This meant that the place was in part the reward of political services rendered by a politician.

Remembering that the South has been, during the past few years, almost given over to Populism and cheap money, and that it was to the Southern members mainly that we owed the insertion of the income tax in the tariff-reform bill, it is not surprising that of the four judges who stood by the tax three should be Southerners. Nor is it surprising, remembering Justice Harlan's antecedents, that he should have made himself their mouthpiece in the most violent political tirade ever heard in a court of last resort. The reporters tell strange stories of the violence of his manner, his thumping his desk and "glaring" at the Chief Justice, and his open denunciations of the decision even in the streets. But these things all go with political oratory. They would have been very extraordinary as the accompaniments of a judicial decision; as the accompaniments of a "ringing" attack on rich men they were quite appropriate.

To appreciate how unbecoming the Justice's behavior was, we have to bear in mind that his opinion as to the expediency of an income tax has no more value than that of any other Kentucky politician. Whether the power of levying an unapportioned income tax be "a power which is or may at some time, in an emergency such as that of war, become vital to the existence or preservation of the Union"; whether the denial of such a power to Congress makes it desirable that the American people should promptly "amend their Constitution"; whether the effect of this decision is "to give a position of favoritism to certain kinds of property," or "a position inconsistent with the fundamental principles of our social organization"; whether the annulment of the law "will provoke a contest in this country from which the American people would have been spared" if the Court had upheld it; and whether this contest will be the same as those which "in some countries have swept away in a tempest of passion and frenzy existing social organizations, and put in peril all that was dear to the friends of law and order"—all these are questions for the politician. The opinion of a judge of the Supreme Court about them takes its chance in the public mind with that of Frye on expansion, Don Dickinson on war, Morgan on England, or Bland on currency. There is no reason why Justice Harlan should not hold it and try to spread it, but he is paid, among other things, for *not* promulgating it from the bench in the middle of a legal judgment. Turning the bench into a stump lowers the court in the public eye and lessens its authority. At no time in its existence ought its members more carefully to divest themselves of every character but that of lawyers, to put on an

air of more dispassionateness, and dryness, and abstraction, than when passing on the validity of an act of Congress, for it is only to lawyers pure and simple that any people will ever permit the exercise of a power so stupendous and unprecedented. Should the court get into the way of converting itself, when sitting on questions of constitutionality, into two bands of politicians, and "handle each other without gloves," and take into consideration the whole estate of the nation and the interests of unborn generations, its abolition will not be far off. The one question Justice Harlan had to consider was whether Congress could under the Constitution impose an income tax without apportioning it. Consequently about four-fifths of his address would in a well-conducted debating club have caused the presiding officer to "call him down" for irrelevancy.

His escapade has revived in many quarters the old talk of an amendment to the Constitution making judges of the Supreme Court ineligible for any other office. The need of such a rule has been by some considered imperative ever since the beginning of the anti-slavery struggle. Many such outbreaks as this of Judge Harlan might easily make it necessary to the preservation of the court. For unhappily a considerable portion of the public ascribe such things invariably to what is known as the "Presidential bee." They say that no man sitting in a place of such honor would so grossly violate its proprieties did he not hope thereby to give himself some chance of a dignity for which judicial-mindedness is not a preparation, and the attractions of which hardly any American is able to resist. If experience in such matters had any guiding influence, however, no such amendment would be necessary, for the Presidency has never been attained by the arts of the demagogue. If there be anything in the nature of a rule deducible from the history of the office, it is that the more you desire it, the less likely you are to get it.

"Enter none
Who strive therefor: on the sudden it is won."

THE CHURCH AND PROPERTY.

THE Church Social Union is an organization of prominent clergymen and laymen, founded for the commendable purpose of studying social questions. It meets at stated intervals for public discussion, and also issues cheap semi-monthly publications for popular circulation. Some of the latter have fallen under our eye, and it must be said for them that, in general, they are marked by a spirit of fairness and a desire to get at the facts. The one on the railroad strike of 1894, for example, puts alongside the findings of the investigating commission the statement of Mr. Pullman himself, thus giving both sides of the story.

The Union's issue for May 1 consists of a sermon on "The Church's Duty in Relation to the Sacredness of Property," by the Rev. Prof. Cunningham. It contains a good deal of excellent sense. Prof. Cunningham frankly recognizes the banefulness in the modern industrial world of the old church doctrine of indiscriminate charity, and of the praise of those who give all their goods to feed the poor instead of making their capital productive and able to give employment to the poor, so that they may earn their own food. He says, with as much force as truth: "Those who, as captains of industry, or as great landowners, honestly give their minds to the wise management of their business or their estates, are not necessarily self-seeking because they continue to prosper." He sees clearly, too, the leading rôle which the right of private property has played in the drama of civilization, and deprecates interference with it except for urgent cause shown. But the rule for such interference which he adopts, and which he professes to draw from the New Testament, is one to excite either laughter or alarm, according to the frame of mind of the reader.

"Interference with property," he says, "if it be not arbitrary and capricious, if it is not dictated by the lust of spoliation, but by a desire to do a duty as in the sight of God, can never impugn the sacredness of property, or damage its security, since it means, when it is thus conducted, that there is a public desire to use the material things which God has lent us more worthily, a deliberate desire to carry out His Will upon earth. Christian respect for property rests on a refusal to displace those who are responsible for doing God's Will in a definite sphere. It is entirely consonant with this feeling that there should at times be earnest attempts of public authority to see that that Divine Will is more effectively realized among men."

This rule would certainly be perfectly harmless as long as there was no authorized expounder and representative of the divine will. One man's insight into the divine intentions, at least on the subject of the ownership of property, is as good as another's. If I go to you and tell you that it is God's will that you should give up all of your income above $750, turn your cotton factory into an orphan asylum, and pay your gardener $1,000 a year, you have a perfect right to set up your revelation against mine, and, like the English judge under similar circumstances, "lay a lying knave by the heels."

Where the danger comes in, however, is, not in such clashing of private interpretation, but in the attempt of some organized body, call it Church or State or what you will, to go ahead and in the name of God impose its own ideas of the proper use and distribution of property. That this danger is not wholly imaginary, even at the present time and in this country, may be seen in the experience of the Rev. Prof. Herron on the Pacific coast. No man in this country is more fully persuaded of his right to interfere with property on the divine-will theory. He announces that it is the will of God that the "wage system of economic slavery, the most grinding system of despotism the world has ever seen," should at once be brought to an end, and that "the people should immediately assume control of the sources of production." He gave a course of lectures before a ministerial club in San Francisco, in which such ideas were enunciated again and again and received with applause. It is true that he was conveniently vague. When pressed to state the first step in what he calls "the new redemption," he exclaimed, "God forbid that I should attempt to set up any plan!" But the whole drift of his lectures, as of his books, is the assertion that he is in the confidence of Providence, and that what he says has divine sanction.

How did this proposed interference with property on the divine-will theory strike the Christian laymen of San Francisco? Did they see in it no attack on the security of property simply because it proclaimed its intention, as Prof. Cunningham says, to make the divine will more effective on earth? The answer is to be found in a circular issued by the trustees of the First Congregational Church of San Francisco, protesting against "the socialistic propaganda now actively at work among the Christian pulpits and churches of America," and especially against "the unbridled socialism of Prof. Herron" and those who "hail him as a prophet inspired of God." They affirm that California and San Francisco have suffered quite enough from such teaching when it came only from the "sand-lots," and that "to have such views proclaimed in the name of religion is unendurable." They quote the words of a prominent lawyer, once district attorney, who heard Prof. Herron's lectures, and who writes: "If any number of persons should organize to carry out Prof. Herron's revolutionary teachings, and any forcible act were committed by any person to that end, such act would be an overt act of treason to the United States Government."

The great trouble with all such attempts to find in the New Testament a complete doctrine of property, of the wise and rightful use of wealth, is that no such doctrine is there to be found. If any one pretends to find it, he at once lays himself open to the suspicion implied in the old couplet, referring to the Bible:

"This is the book where each his doctrine seeks,
And this the book where each his doctrine finds."

That the New Testament is defective in its direct teachings about wealth, is no more to its discredit, and no more impairs its true authority, than the fact that it has nothing to say about locomotives or the telephone. The latter were no more beyond its contemplation than were the problems connected with the best use of large accumulations of capital in an industrial world. So far as its teaching on the subject is explicit and detailed, it leans to a view which frank critics like Jowett admit to be inapplicable to a society other than a pastoral and agricultural society. Jowett said one day

to a friend, "It seems to me that there is more in the New Testament in praise of poverty than we like to acknowledge." As for broad rules of conduct for rich and poor alike, as for the duty of sympathy, kindliness, self-sacrifice—that is another question. But it has proved impossible, thus far at least, to draw any detailed rules for all the practical exigencies of the modern world from the general laws of religion or morality—most of all impossible to make men believe that any rules put forward as so derived have a divine authority.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, May 4, 1895.

IT would be folly indeed if every year one were to seek for novelty in art, as though pictures and statues were as subject to the caprices of fashion as hats and bonnets. But, on the other hand, not a spring passes that one does not look eagerly for some new movement in the Royal Academy, since, in that institution, lack of novelty is too apt to mean lack of art. There is a tendency in England just now to confuse the issues, and to imagine immorality lurking in impressionism, and to discover vice in unaccustomed color and curves. For, to the average Englishman, it is impossible to separate art and morality; and where he cannot find an ethical significance in subject he seeks it in method. Those, however, whose pleasure is in art as art, and nothing else, will be less concerned with such idle fancies than with certain signs—very slight as yet, to be sure—of a new departure at Burlington House.

Already, in the recent winter exhibition, space was reserved for examples of the decorative work of the old craftsmen, as I had occasion to note at the time. Now, additional concession seems to be made to the arts-and-crafts by including, and yet hanging apart from the other pictures, a huge cartoon by Mr. Richmond for the mosaics that are supposed to decorate the choir of St. Paul's; and also a very large oil painting by Mr. A. E. Elmslie—an outdoor arrangement which, in manner and effect, recalls some of M. Chabas's designs for the adornment of municipal walls, and which, no doubt, to Royal Academicians represents the last phase in French mural decoration. Neither is remarkable in itself; it is the prominence given to both that is worth noting, since this may be taken to imply a gradual broadening of the Academy's standard. Their place, appropriately enough, is in the sculpture gallery, where the recognition of late years accorded to the sculptor-goldsmith's art has served as thin end of the decorative wedge. Again, this spring, although Mr. Gilbert contributes nothing, there are caskets and jewels and medals that would be more correctly classed as arts-and-crafts than as sculpture, and among them nothing more delightful than a little casket in steel adorned with a beautiful peacock design in enamel—the work of Mr. and Mrs. Nelson Dawson.

M. Henri Rochefort, studying the *salons* in comparative mood after long years of English exhibitions, has just delivered himself of the opinion that in sculpture France far surpasses England. This may be, but the fact remains that not a few of the greatest English artists of the day are sculptors. From the present Academy Mr. Gilbert, as I have said, is missing, while the collection contains no statue of such importance as the Lord Strathnairne, by Mr. Onslow Ford, which is now in process of erection at Knightsbridge. But still the average of sculpture is far higher than the average of painting, and the bronze heads by Mr. Onslow Ford, the strong, vigorous bust of Gen. Lord Roberts by Mr. Harry Bates, the bas-reliefs by Mr. Frampton, and, above all, the little "Orpheus" by Mr. Swan, would be distinguished and notable in any collection. This "Orpheus" is a statuette in silver, the gracefully posed figure, holding aloft a golden lyre, and standing on a rock about which panthers—and Barye himself could not have modelled them with greater vigor—creep and crouch in lovely sinuous, symmetrical curves and lines. Even to M. Rochefort it might prove difficult to find in a French gallery a statuette more perfect and complete, in design as in actual modelling; and one cannot but regret that Mr. Swan devotes such a large portion of his time to painting. His pictures this year, one of tigers at dawn, the other of a goatherd, are far less satisfactory.

To consider the painting is to be confronted with the necessity of saying again what one has been saying for many years past. It is impossible here to ignore the Academicians, since they are aggressively hung on the line, while many a good painter is banished to the very topmost ranks. And yet, with a few exceptions, especially among the younger Associates, they show little that deserves the distinction. Why repeat that Sir Frederick Leighton's drawing is learned and scholarly—these, I believe, are the correct terms—when the orange of his "Flaming June," a sleeping woman tied up in an impossible knot, positively offends, and none of his other canvases present the stateliness of composition that hitherto has often atoned for artificial convention? Why repeat that Mr. Tadema's marbles are marvellous and his draperies classical, when, in his "Spring," the procession between marble walls has suggested neither beautiful line nor harmonious color? One asks why Mr. Hook in his marines and Mr. Davis in his landscapes, despite careful observation of nature and rendering as truthful, should produce such prosaic results. And one stops appalled before the crude, clever piece of scene-painting which Prof. Herkomer thinks is a picture, wondering how he came to believe that the meeting of the Bürgermeister at Landsberg and his Town Council, in a room of astounding ugliness, should be worth the trouble of recording on canvas with realistic dulness and on a colossal scale. There is no escaping it, since it faces the visitor upon entering and gives quite a new perspective to the galleries, as they open one out of the other.

Fortunately, several of the other Academicians are more readily overlooked, and it is a relief to turn to Mr. Orchardson, though he sends but one small painting. He calls this "A Flower"—an arrangement in rose and silver, would have answered as well; for it is a simple study in color, full of fine drawing and modelling in the chrysanthemums, which make a background to a woman in a pale-pink gown who leans over a rose, and the single figure in the composition. Mr. Clausen's work seldom fails to be interesting, and his "Harvest" arrests attention, even if it be chiefly to note that his treatment of summer afternoon light does not improve with repetition. His "Mowers" of a year or two ago, a picture with very much the same subject, is to be counted one of his finest achievements; but in "Harvest" a theatrical element enters into the statuesque grouping of the two men in the foreground; and, though the face of the one who stands is enveloped in atmosphere, the head is stuck flat against the sky, which is really but a surface of paint without a suggestion of air or light. Here is a failure, however, that is to be studied, for there is no mistaking its genuine artistic intention; and, for a success, Mr. Clausen shows a less ambitious "Farmer's Boy," in which quiet grays and dull browns in dim, solemn light have been made to present a beautiful harmony.

But, when all is said, it is Mr. Sargent who triumphs at the Academy as at the New Gallery. His portrait of Mr. Coventry Patmore is as fine a rendering of an old man as one could wish to see. It is a half-length, and the arrangement is simple to a fault; but the head is a masterpiece. Not an indication of old age is spared; the drawing of the wrinkled forehead and lined cheeks is quite merciless, the somewhat long hair and the moustache are silvery white; and yet Mr. Sargent has managed to express, in the firm mouth and the keen eye, an old age that is still full of vigor and energy. Nor do I remember one of his portraits in which the modelling is more accomplished, the brush-work more scholarly. He has also a small study, as striking, of the same head. Of his three other portraits, the most noteworthy is the "W. Graham Robertson, Esq." A Japanese screen, a poodle, a young man, of evident dandified propensities, in long black overcoat almost to his heels, leaning on a jade-handled cane, come together in a composi ion of dignified straightforwardness, and give Mr. Sargent the chance to carry out a fine color-scheme in black and gray. But somehow, perhaps because the character of the lackadaisical dandy is so well suggested, perhaps because of the serene severity of the color, comparison with Mr. Whistler's "Comte Montesquiou" is invited, and a lack of refinement and subtlety in Mr. Sargent's canvas at once becomes obvious. His remaining two contributions are presentments of women, and not so important, though the "Mrs. Russell Cooke," Dutch in the character of the face and the fashion of the gown, tremendously skilful in the rendering of the jewels, and the "Mrs. Ernest Hills," with the superb painting of white lace over black satin, find nothing to compete with them throughout the galleries.

It is an old complaint that the Academy does little to encourage outsiders, but this year the reason for it is more apparent than ever. There can be no special inducement for the Glasgow men to contribute when Mr. Paterson's fine landscape is skied, though the line abounds with MacWhirters and the like; when Mr. Lavery, who has returned to his old form and has never been more distinguished, sees his best portrait share the same fate, though Mr. Fildes and Mr. Wells are brought to the fore. It is easy to understand why the majority of the younger and more able Englishmen refrain from sending altogether, when Mr. Greiffenhagen has been treated with scarce greater consideration. Here and there, in a good place, a landscape by Mr. Parsons, or Mr. North, or Mr. Mark Fisher, a portrait by M. Carolus Duran or Mr. Tuke breaks the monotony. But it is no exaggeration to state that most of the better things are either sent aloft or neatly stowed away in dark corners. The consequence is that one hopes the younger generation will continue to hold aloof, unless, like Mr. Sargent, they can force the Academy to accept them. To stoop to Academical standards would lead, most likely, to absorption in the Academical rank and file, as has happened with the Newlyn school, to whom, not so long since, every one looked for the great

future of art in England. Now, already, the Newlynites are practically forgotten.

It is a mere matter of form to stray into the water-color and the black-and-white rooms. Neither is apt to contain work of merit or interest. Rumors are abroad of the rejection of illustrators who stand first in their art, but who probably have never been heard of by Academicians, still ignorant of the modern development and popularity of illustration. To mention two or three etchings by Mr. Charles J. Watson and Mr. Oliver Hall is to exhaust the list of notable contributions. The water-colors offer even less chance to be amiable. To persevere in opening these two rooms to such commonplace performances savors of farce. N. N.

BARANTE'S MEMOIRS.—II.

PARIS, May 10, 1895.

I LEFT Barante in Russia, at the beginning of his difficult mission. His correspondence throws a great light on the relations which France, entering after a revolution on the path of constitutional and parliamentary government, had to maintain with the most autocratic power in the world. The Emperor Nicholas was autocrat *par excellence*, but he was not lacking in a certain shrewdness and flexibility which belong to the Slavic races. His state of mind is well described in this despatch to the Duke de Broglie (February 9, 1836):

"The Emperor, like all the princes of Europe, was struck by the Revolution of July as if it were the greatest insult which had ever been received by the royal races. He experienced this feeling with the vivacity which I have noticed in King Charles Albert. Powerful and far removed as he is, he expressed his feeling without reserve. However, with him as with the others, it would soon have begun to grow weaker had not the insurrection in Poland taken place; he then received from the hands of France a profound wound, which was reopened year after year. . . . Thus disposed, the Emperor began to judge France with passion, to mistake her situation, to entertain illusions about our future; he would listen to no information contrary to his desire, his hope; his ambassadors displeased him when they tried to disabuse him."

Barante remarks, however, that the state of public opinion in Russia is not favorable to the French Legitimists.

"It is curious to observe to what a degree Russia remained estranged from the French Restoration. The shops and the drawing-rooms are full of portraits of Napoleon, of engravings of his battles, of all that concerns him. The worship of his genius finds even more adulation here than in France; from the Emperor to the humblest officer, nobody speaks of him without admiration. I have not yet seen a single lithograph of Louis XVIII. or of Charles X., and nobody has pronounced their names to me. When I expressed some surprise at this, I was told that the relations of France and Russia were particularly intimate at the time of the Empire, that the Russians were then received and caressed in Paris; that the court of Napoleon was military, on horseback, *en camaraderie*, while under the Restoration Louis XVIII. began to behave in a very extraordinary fashion towards the Emperor Alexander, to whom he expressed no gratitude; that the Russians ceased to be well received, and could form no acquaintance with old courtiers, and with gentlemen of the household belonging to another epoch and having other manners. In short, the ill will of the Government and of the Society of Saint Petersburg sprang from this, and if the Emperor reopened friendly communications between France and Russia, the Russian aristocracy would in all likelihood be the least adverse to us of all European aristocracies."

Barante was not long, also, in perceiving that the chief reason of the Emperor's enmity to Louis-Philippe was the growing attraction which constitutional France felt for constitutional England. The London conference, Talleyrand's mission to London, rendered this attraction very visible.

Barante was well informed of what was going on in France by his usual correspondents. Sometimes extraordinary remarks are mixed up with the endless speculations on ministerial changes. After Fieschi made his horrible attempt on the life of Louis-Philippe, and succeeded only in killing or wounding a number of people on the Boulevard St.-Martin, Count Molé writes, February 12, 1836:

"I was greatly interested in the late trial. Fieschi was not an ordinary man. All the country between the Alps and the two seas would not produce his like. One of the witnesses compared him to one of Cooper's savages. I saw in him the mountaineer of Corsica, a unique type which joins to meridional duplicity the most intrepid energy. I will only say to you that I found in Fieschi something of Pozzo, even more of Napoleon—not of the Napoleon of M. Thiers and of all those who have painted him as they imagined him, but of the Napoleon who was sometimes revealed to me by words which escaped from his lips, or by involuntary movements of his expressive face."

Thiers formed a new cabinet in the beginning of 1836, and he wrote to Barante: "As for our external policy, I have read all your despatches, and I cannot sufficiently tell you how sensible I find them—I would add witty, if we were at the Academy. . . . I shall remain faithful to the English alliance, since Europe has now made it our best alliance; but I shall avoid unreasonable declarations which would in the end bring about dangerous conflicts." The Emperor Nicholas continued to affect much regard for Barante, speaking as little as possible of Louis-Philippe. "I could see," wrote Comte Bresson to Barante, "that the King was much pleased with your despatches, but wounded by this affectation on the part of the Emperor of leaving him aside. He said to me, 'The reception was excellent for the Ambassador, but *blessante* for the King.'" Nicholas's great fear was to see an active alliance against himself between France and England; the incident of the Polish question, which was then a very burning question, constantly renewed this fear. Everybody in Europe desired the *status quo*, but on one side there were the three courts of the north, St. Petersburg, Berlin, and Vienna, more or less united by their fear of revolutionary ideas and by the memories of the partition of Poland; on the other were France and England.

Barante did not much believe in the offensive strength of Russia. He complains in his letters of the difficulty of getting any precise information; still, "I think," says he, "it may be considered certain that the Russian Government could only with difficulty take the field, outside of its territory, with a first army of 150,000 men, and with more difficulty with an army of 100,000 men in the second year. . . . Her finances especially set a limit to her power. Recruiting is neither rapid nor easy; it is helped by no system of reserves, and the great distances which the levies have to traverse are another obstacle to the keeping of an army." This was written in 1836, and the situation has since been much modified. However, Russia still showed in the last Turkish war that she is not yet organized for rapid military operations.

Thiers, writing to Barante, makes these sensible remarks:

"You speak to me of alliances. I do not cherish on this subject the projects which people suppose that I do. I am a partisan of the English alliance, but without exclusiveness. We must not place ourselves in two camps, one composed of the three courts of the north, the other of the two maritime powers, nor prepare ourselves by hostilities of language or of attitude for more real hostilities. . . . There is nothing to do now in Europe but to wait, and meanwhile to better our domestic situation, to become rich and strong. *Il faut faire du Cardinal de Fleury.* We shall see by and by."

Poland was the subject on which Nicholas showed more nervousness than on any other. Barante, speaking of Marshal Paskevitch, says: "The very words Warsaw and Poland, pronounced in the most indifferent manner, on subjects of trade or statistics, made him ill at ease. Paskevitch is probably a distinguished general, but he is no more allowed to be a politician than any other person in Russia. His conduct and even his thought are of passive obedience." Such extracts show well what a pneumatic machine an autocratic government is.

Barante did not always write on politics. Here, for instance, is an extract from a letter to Madam Anisson du Perron (who died only a few years ago, and was the true type of the intellectual ladies of past times):

"If the word Sybarite could be used in the 60th degree of latitude, it would well suit the life at Petersburg, exclusively arranged as it is for quiet and well-being. The summer is beautiful, but only to behold, as the cold and the wind abate but little. The length of the days charms me. I never tire of the sight of the Neva, so noble and grand. The islands are another beauty of Petersburg. Imagine, on the other side of the river, gardens divided by thousands of canals, small rivulets, rivers, and lakes, all ending in great forests which extend towards the sea. Every one has there a country house, well kept, surrounded by flowers; there are no walls, all the walks are in common—an immense public garden."

The Duke of Orleans was travelling in Germany in search of a wife; he was personally very attractive, and was extremely well received in Vienna and in Berlin, but many difficulties were thrown in the way of his matrimonial projects. Thiers wrote to Barante (June 30, 1836): "There is a unanimous cry here for pressing the marriage *quelconque* of the Duke of Orleans. I confess that I share this sentiment, and if we do not succeed with a great house, we must go at once to a house which will not refuse. . . . Any princess, pure, healthy, likely to be a good mother, will be sufficient. It is a stupidity to imagine that a woman sitting on the throne of France can appear of great or low origin. She will be so high that nobody will see in her anything but the royalty of France." The choice of the Duke of Orleans fell on Princess Helen of Mecklenburg. Barante could never ascertain exactly what part the Emperor of Russia took in this affair of the marriage of the French Crown Prince. The influence which he certainly exercised against the Duke of Orleans never took an official or diplomatic form; the advice he gave was given in his family correspondence. He probably spoke against the union with the French prince through his own wife or Prince Charles of Prussia. One thing is certain, and that is, that he showed much passion in the matter, and, when the marriage was concluded, great irritation. Any opposition put him almost beside himself. The marriage of the Duke of Orleans with a German princess made him feel that he had not as much influence as he thought over Prussia and Germany.

How difficult Barante's task must have been under such circumstances, can easily be imagined. He was, fortunately, a man of *esprit*, with a happy disposition, a politeness and a

sort of grace which preserved him from the violent temper of the Emperor. With Nesselrode he was perfectly at ease, and they conversed freely on all matters which affected Europe at the time. Occasionally Nicholas showed singular effusiveness. Whenever the life of Louis-Philippe was attempted (and, alas! it was attempted seventeen times during a reign of eighteen years), he thought it his duty to express his great horror and his sympathy. He was generally very attentive to the French whom he happened to see and who had been in the French army. He once took M. de Guinemont, a mere attaché at Copenhagen, formerly an officer in the French army, to a review: "The day was fine, the sun shone upon this imposing spectacle. The Emperor was enchanted. . . . Forgetting his usual gravity, he sang a soldier's song. Approaching M. de Guinemont, 'Well, comrade,' he exclaimed, 'what do you think of this? I hope these guns will never fire against French guns. God preserve us from war! But if, unfortunately, we had one, it would be fine to see the Russians and the French march together. Nothing would hold out against our two armies.'" The character of Nicholas—impulsive, passionate, autocratic—is very well depicted in these interesting memoirs of Barante. While reading these despatches I thought of the Crimean war, of the fall of Sebastopol, of the dramatic end of Nicholas! I thought, also, of all the late outpourings of the French and Russian so-called alliance.

Baron Brunnow, who was a long time Russian Ambassador in London, held a subordinate post at the Foreign Office in St. Petersburg during Barante's embassy. I once heard him say in London, not long before the war between France and Germany in 1870, that the misunderstanding between the Emperor Nicholas and King Louis-Philippe had been a very great misfortune, and that during the last part of his life Nicholas sometimes referred to it, and expressed regret at having helped to render the King's task more difficult.

Correspondence.

THE LEGISLATIVE TORMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article with the above heading is enough to appall the stoutest advocate of popular government. It is, however, not a bit too strong, and, more than that, it is applicable in a greater or less degree to every one of forty-four State legislatures and to Congress into the bargain. The gloomiest feature of that article is that it closes without a hint or suggestion of definite remedy.

And yet one ray of light illumines the subject—a light cast by the whole course of modern history, and which shows that almost the whole difficulty arises from one simple and definite cause—government by a legislature. Modern history has established with perfect clearness two propositions, (1) that a legislature is just as greedy and grasping of power as any despot; and (2) that while a despot may govern well, it is wholly impossible for a legislature which has taken the whole power of government to govern at all. It is just because we are trying to perform this impossibility that we are coming to grief.

The first failure was made in England by the Long Parliament, and Cromwell had to come and turn it out. The struggle was continued under the later Stuarts; and, after the Revolution, began the process of formation of a new system of executive power, at once strong and responsible, which makes the political history of Great Britain perhaps more precious for the world than that of any nation which ever existed.

The National Assembly in France tried precisely the same experiment as the Long Parliament, and through its successors met the same fate at the hands of Napoleon. For a century France has alternated between military despots and legislatures incompetent to govern; and if the last twenty-five years have shown as great relative progress as that of any nation, it needs no prophet to foretell that unless some constitutional means can be found for strengthening the executive power and checking that of the Legislature, the reins of government will be seized by the first military adventurer who is competent for the work.

In this country we have lost the very conception of executive power, and turn to the Legislature for everything, with results already apparent. A nation which limits its idea of executive function to a veto may be said to be well advanced on the road to destruction. To suggest that the initiative and guidance of legislation is the proper function of the Executive, and that the veto belongs to the Legislature, is enough to raise a cry at once of horror and contempt. Yet that is the result to be worked out, if the country is not, after infinite suffering, to seek relief at the hands of a Cromwell or a Napoleon.

What is the prospect of doing this? The great obstacle is that our people are accustomed to look to the Legislature for reforms, whereas the Legislature is the thing to be reformed. The work is to be done by the Executive, not a Cromwell or a Napoleon suppressing the Legislature by force of arms, but a Lincoln making a determined stand against the Legislature, upon legal and constitutional grounds, for the rights of his office and the welfare of the people. The proposal to give seats to the Cabinet officers in Congress is merely to give the Executive an equal fighting ground with the members of that body. But the real battle will have to be fought out in the States. I believe that in Massachusetts the situation and the public mind are ripe and only waiting for the man. The first step was taken some ten years ago by Benjamin F. Butler (*absit omen!*), who protested against the impotence of the Governor, and the government of the State by commissions. He won the field, though his offensive methods soon lost it for him again. The Hon. William E. Russell, in three annual messages, took the same ground as to the impotence of the Governor, the government by commissions, and the influence of the lobby, and was three times elected—as I believe, on that issue. But the Legislature sneered at him, and, after the usual fashion, he submitted without appealing to the people.

But the lesson cannot and will not be lost. Sooner or later the man must come who will not be browbeaten, but will put the case as between his office and the Legislature calmly but clearly before the people. And the man who can do that successfully will find but two names ahead of him in the roll of honor of the nation.

G. B.

Boston, May 25, 1895.

THE DECAY OF THE SENATE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The town of Canton celebrated yesterday the one-hundredth anniversary of the birth of its foremost citizen, Silas Wright. Similar celebrations were held in Brooklyn and elsewhere. This event suggests a comparison between the United States Senate of Wright's time and that of the present; and, in connection with the candidacy of Addicks, George Gould, and others, calls to mind the following extract from Plutarch's Life of Pompey:

"Two persons received from the people the name of Maximus, or the Greatest: Valerius, for reconciling the Senate and the people, and Fabius Rullus, because he put out of the Senate certain sons of freed slaves *who had been admitted into it because of their wealth.*"

O tempora, O mores!

N. L. Robinson.

Canton, N. Y., May 25, 1895.

A MONUMENT TO SERGEANT FLOYD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Those who are interested in Lewis and Clark matters will be glad to hear of steps which have been taken to perpetuate the memory of Sergt. Charles Floyd, who died on the expedition near Sioux City, Ia., August 20, 1804, and was buried on an eminence in that vicinity still known as Sergeant's Bluff. The grave has been washed into the river, but the cedar post which was erected over it is extant, having been removed a few yards from the original location. It is proposed by Mitchell Vincent and others to meet on the bluff on the ninety-first anniversary of Floyd's death and organize an association having for its object the erection of a monument on the spot, in the midst of a public park of some twenty or thirty acres, to be purchased by Sioux City and maintained by suitable legislation. It now seems probable that this project will be carried into effect within two years. Very truly yours,

Elliott Coues.

[Another correspondent writes as follows.—Ed. Nation.]

"Floyd was the first United States soldier who died on the Louisiana Purchase. Born in Kentucky, he enlisted under Lewis and Clark, was appointed one of their three sergeants, in the adventurous expedition up the Missouri and overland to the Pacific—a journey never before undertaken by white men. On the 20th of August, 1804, the hundredth day after leaving St. Louis, he died, and was buried about two miles below the site of Sioux City. His captains wrote: 'We buried him on the top of the bluff half a mile below a small river, to which we gave his name. He was buried with the honors of war and much lamented. A cedar post with the name, "Sergt. C. Floyd died here 20th of August, 1804," was fixed at the head of his grave.' Breckenridge, voyaging there seven years later, describes the post as a cross seen by navigators at a considerable distance. Catlin, who in 1832 had reached the Yellowstone in the first steamer that ever ascended the Missouri so far, ventured with two half-breed oarsmen in a canoe down the great river the same season, sketching all the way. Floyd's grave struck him as 'one of the most lovely and imposing bluffs.' He landed in front of it, encamped a couple of days at its base, several times sat on the grave amid the most delicate wildflowers by the cedar post and sign, etc., etc. From sketches then taken he painted a landscape, No. 376 in his gallery, exhibited in London and Paris, and now at Washington in the National Museum. In 1839 Nicollet, sent West by the Secretary of War, visited the spot. The post set up thirty-five years before had fallen. A cyclone was impending, but Nicollet would not let the steamer leave till his men had replaced the memorial.

"In 1894 a Journal by Floyd, which it was not before known that he had written, and continued till the last day but one of his life, came to light among the manuscripts of the Wisconsin Historical Society. It was the theme of an address before the American Antiquarian Society at their Boston meeting, and was published by them *verbatim, literatim, et*

punctuatim. This find crystallized the floating purposes of Iowa pioneers into a resolution. On the ninety-first anniversary of Floyd's burial their society will have a formal organization at his grave. Sioux City, as they believe, will lay out a park with that hallowed spot as a nucleus, and there stone or everduring brass will fitly commemorate the first man who laid down his life in scattering the darkness which had brooded over the trans-Mississippi *terra incognita*, the first light shining into a darkness that might be felt."

TAXATION OF FOREIGN STUDENTS IN GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To my personal knowledge three Americans and one Englishman left Berlin and came to Munich to pursue their studies in the University because they were made to pay income taxes in the former city. The fact is, all foreign residents are subject to taxation in North Germany, and no foreign resident is subject to taxation in Bavaria. It is quite possible that this regulation has been recently relaxed in its application to matriculated students in North German universities, simply because it tended to drive them away. Only a few days ago an American lady informed me that several of her friends are staying in Hanover in order to study German, and that they all have to pay income taxes. These young ladies are not matriculated students of any educational institution, but they are in Hanover solely for the purpose of learning German, being under the impression that the language is spoken correctly only in that country; whereas the Hanoverian pronunciation is regarded by the Germans as provincial and is not heard on the stage even in Hanover. It is to be hoped that the discussion of the taxation of students in North Germany will lead to its complete abolition; if so, many thanks will be due to the *Nation*. P.

Munich, May 3, 1895.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In 1888, there was in Berlin a party of five, consisting of a student of architecture, with his mother who was studying painting, and a student of medicine, with his wife and mother. It is needless to say that the authorities informed themselves regarding the personal history, temporary employment, aims, and ambitions of each of the five, but it may surprise some who are deterred from studying in Germany on account of the onerous taxes upon foreign students that of this party only the mother of the medical student was regarded as sojourning in the city for pleasure solely, and as being therefore a fit subject for taxation. I cannot recall the amount imposed, but it was trifling.—Yours respectfully,

R. Mowry Bell.

Santa Cruz, Cal., May 2, 1895.

[We cannot print anything more on this subject, concerning which there is much conflicting testimony.—Ed. Nation.]

THE NOMINAL RATING OF COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The absence of any test by which the standard of American colleges may be publicly tried is undoubtedly the cause of many of the discrepancies between the claims of their supporters and what proves too often, when closer relations are entered upon, to be the truth regarding their relative standing.

A few years ago the *Nation* called attention to the danger which the women's colleges especially were incurring from a loose system of admission by certificate. That warning seems to have been justified by the recent experiences at Radcliffe of several graduates of one of the colleges then under discussion. These women applied for admission to the graduate department of Radcliffe. Their application was refused, but, following the custom of Harvard in regard to the weaker and less adequately equipped colleges for men, admission to the senior class of Radcliffe was offered and accepted. In this way they lost one year in the pursuit of a higher degree. I am told that all acknowledge the justice of this decision, and admit that the work of their Freshman year was not up to the standard it should have reached, because so large a number are admitted insufficiently prepared, although the entrance requirements are nominally the same as those of colleges for men whose alumni are admitted directly to Harvard's Graduate School. A. B.

May 21, 1895.

Notes.

The Selden Society hopes to have ready in July a new edition of 'The Mirrour of the Justices,' the curious old law-book of which Lord Coke said: "In this . . . in effect appeareth the whole frame of the ancient common laws." The earlier editions are corrupt and often unintelligible; this one is being printed from the excellent MSS. in the possession of Corpus Christi College, Cambridge. The Society is also preparing for early publication a volume to be called 'Bracton and Azo,' to be edited by Prof. F. W. Maitland. Thanks to Prof. Maitland's admirable work in editing Bracton's Note-Book, the English sources of Bracton's treatise are before the student. Now it is proposed, by printing certain parts of Bracton's text and Azo's 'Summa' in parallel columns, to make plain how much Bracton and the English law through him do and do not owe to the Roman law. Azo's 'Summa' was at one time (as the proverb *Chi non ha Azzo non vada a Palazzo* still attests) a necessary possession of every Italian judge, and from it Bracton is supposed to have drawn most of his knowledge of the civil law. "Twice in the history of England," Prof. Maitland has well said, "has an Englishman had the motive, the courage, the power to write a great, readable, reasonable book about English law as a whole." Bracton and Blackstone are these two authors, and everything which helps to the understanding of the former and to the knowledge of the sources which he used, is to be welcomed by all who care for the history of our law and institutions.

The Jewish Publication Society, Philadelphia, have nearly ready 'The Talmud,' consisting of Emanuel Deutsch's famous essay, with notes of two lectures by him on the same theme.

'Advance Japan: A Nation thoroughly in Earnest,' by J. Morris, with illustrations by R. Isayama, and 'The Great Astronomers,' by Robert Ball, are in preparation by J. B. Lippincott Co.

A volume on 'Labor Legislation in the United States,' by W. B. Shaw, is to be issued by T. Y. Crowell & Co., as is also 'The Old Man Savarin,' short stories by Edward W. Thompson.

Ginn & Co. announce 'Lakes of North America,' by Israel C. Russell, Professor of Geology in the University of Michigan.

Fleming H. Revell Co. will bring out during the summer a 'Memoir of John L. Nevius, D.D.,' for forty years a leading missionary of the American Presbyterian Board in the Province of Shantung, China.

Prof. Cheyne's 'Introduction to the Book of Isaiah'; 'Selected Essays of John Stuart Mill,' with an introduction by Frederic Harrison; 'Three Months in the Forests of France,' by Miss Margaret Stokes; and 'Studies of Men,' by George W. Smalley, are in the press of Macmillan & Co.

M. Gaston Deschamps, the erudite literary critic of the *Temps*, is about to publish a volume to be entitled 'La Vie et les Livres,' a collection of studies on contemporary writers and of dissertations on events and things. The *Figaro*, which makes this announcement, calls his criticism *fine et un peu timide*, which is, perhaps, not a wholly unfair appreciation of it. In length and breadth his book will extend from Renan to M. Huysmans, and from Taine to M. Marcel Prévost, including Pierre Loti, Leconte de Lisle, Anatole France, and others.

The next book of M. Huysmans will be devoted to mystical art, the study of Gothic cathedrals, pictures of the "primitive" painters, and so on. Two years of labor will go to the making of the book.

The third volume of the 'Discours et Opinions de Jules Ferry' is just now coming out with commentaries and notes by M. Paul Robiquet (Paris: Armand Colin et Cie.). The first two volumes included the public life of M. Ferry from its beginnings under the Second Empire down to the Sixteenth of May. The present volume, of some 600 octavo pages, covers the epoch of the School Laws, and contains all of Ferry's speeches on the famous Article Seven; to these being added a number of articles, hitherto anonymous, written by him during this stirring period. Five volumes will be required for the entire work. Mme. Ferry and M. Charles Ferry collaborate with M. Robiquet in its production.

Prof. Chantepie de la Saussaye of Amsterdam has just announced his purpose to publish in 1896-7 a revised edition of his 'Religionsgeschichte,' the current edition of 1887 having already become obsolescent, though it was and remains by common consent the standard work on its subject. The trustworthiness of the coming edition will be increased by the coöperation with Prof. Saussaye of a number of experts on the religions concerned. The introductory portions, entitled "Allgemeiner Theil" and "Phänomenologischer Theil," will, however, be reserved by Prof. Saussaye for separate and subsequent treatment by himself.

One-half, or 600 pages, of the third edition of the Snow-Church Co.'s 'Legal and Banking Year-book' for 1895 is occupied with a compendium of the commercial and statutory law of the several States and of Canada, with maps of each; a third as much space is given to a list of attorneys and banks in the same territory and in foreign countries; and about 125 pages to lists of points accessible to banking towns in the United States and in Canada. Courts and court calendars, forms of depositions, patent-law and trade-mark statutes; U. S. diplomatic service, consuls and consulates; cipher codes, population statistics—are some of the other features of this valuable annual.

The reprint of Field - Marshal Wolseley's *Pall Mall Magazine* articles on 'The Decline and Fall of Napoleon,' with which we have already dealt, is issued in this country by Roberts Bros., with portraits and maps. It

forms one of a military series issuing from the office of the *Magazine*.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have published an apparently painstaking and faithful translation, by Miss Arabella Ward, of a volume which we noticed a couple of years ago under the title of 'La Femme aux États-Unis,' by C. de Varigny. The sagacity which we failed to discover in the original does not become more evident through the new medium. It would hardly be possible, indeed, for a traveller in a foreign land to ornament his narrative with a more meagre proportion of discriminating or carefully collated facts than is to be found in this volume.

As a treatise, Mr. Edward F. Strange's 'Alphabets: A Handbook of Lettering, with Historical, Critical, and Practical Descriptions' (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan), is disappointing. It attempts too much, and the historical portion shows an incapacity for clear, condensed statement; the criticism fails to reveal a sure sense of the beautiful. More and more "the practical descriptions" dominate, and the chief worth of this number of the "Ex-Libris Series" consists in its very abundant examples, mostly in facsimile, drawn from ancient MSS., from the fonts of early printers and the more and most modern typefounders—Caslon, Baskerville, Wilson, William Morris—from copy-books of several nationalities, from pottery, stone monuments, and metal-work. From these, selection must be made according to the taste of him who resorts to this book; he will get very little aid from the author. The typography is attractive, but there are some carelessnesses, *e. g.*, "Francesca da Bologna" (p. 76); "Francesco de Bologna (see above)" (p. 79); and on p. 54 the strange statement is made that *Incunabuli* (*sic*) is the generic name of block-books.

As the child—doubtless "daughter Irene"—whose picture follows the dedication of Mr. Clarence Moores Weed's 'Ten New England Blossoms and their Insect Visitors' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) seems not more than three or four years old, she will have to wait a little before enjoying her father's gift. In the meantime, children of ten or twelve can fully appreciate it and share with their elders a keen interest in some of nature's neatest arrangements.

For grown people whose childhood was not enriched by such studies, comes a pocket guide to British wild flowers, by Edward Step, called 'Wayside and Woodland Blossoms' (Frederick Warne & Co.). It is proudly furnished with 156 colored plates which add something to the book's value for those who wish to identify species, but little to its beauty. The descriptions are clear and not repellently technical. Besides the distinctively British plants, we recognize many of those cosmopolites which are everywhere at home, and as familiar to us as to our cousins over the water.

Though without the dubious advantage of color, Mr. F. Schuyler Mathews's careful description and graceful drawings of our 'Familiar Flowers of Field and Garden' (Appletons) are fitted to make them familiar even to those who have not before made their acquaintance. The author apparently takes special pride in his accurate use of color names, and is probably not unjustified in his regret that Gray "was at least partially color-blind." The flowers are arranged in the general order of blossoming, thus forming a floral calendar.

Boussod, Valadon & Co., 303 Fifth Avenue, send us the first part of Charles Yriarte's annual '*Figaro* Salon,' for 1895, with the usual large-scale half-tone copies of the works exhibited, and one separate colored plate (Chartier's "Murat at Jena"). Noticeable in this instalment is the number of paintings by women.

The *American Architectural Record* for May launches a series of issues to be wholly given up each to the work of a single architectural firm. Beginning is made with McKim, Mead & White, whose buildings are photographically pictured in great number, with letterpress by Mr. Russell Sturgis, who, after a brief biographical sketch of the members of the firm, describes and criticises their more conspicuous buildings and other constructions. The critical side of this undertaking will be much appreciated by the public as well as by the fraternity.

A portrait of the late President C. Welling and a sympathetic account of his life and writings will be found in the April number of the Princeton College *Bulletin*.

With the fifth quarterly part of *Bibliographica* (Scribners) Mr. Alfred W. Pollard begins his second volume and preserves the high standard set in the first. Perhaps there is an undue proportion of papers which are more interesting in England than anywhere else. There are but two outside the Anglican communion; and, as it happens, these are perhaps the most important papers in the present number. One is Mr. G. R. Redgrave's account of the little-known minor works of Sebastian Brandt, whose 'Ship of Fools' has cast his other books into undeserved shadow. The other is Mr. Paul Kristeller's careful analysis of the methods of the Florentine Book illustrators in the fifteenth century. Of the English articles Mr. Pollard's own, on "English Book-Sales, 1681–86," is the most curious. He remarks that, by the expenditure of twenty-five pounds at the auction sales he is considering, some two hundred volumes could have been acquired that would be cheap now at ten thousand pounds. The apparent profit seems alluring—but it is less than would have resulted from compound interest.

Theatre-going Americans who visit London this season will have an opportunity to compare the methods and taste of French and English theatrical managers of the "independent" school. The "Théâtre de l'Oeuvre" proposes to give six performances (including three different programmes) in June, at Mr. J. T. Grein's Independent Theatre. The provisional programme includes plays by Björnson, Maeterlinck, and Ibsen, and a new and original French play by François de Curel.

Tourists, on the other hand, who contemplate a summer in Switzerland may care to know that the inhabitants of Selzach, a small commune in the Canton of Soleure, have arranged to repeat their local Passion Play this year. The performances will take place on successive Sundays from June 23 until August 25, as well as on the festival of the Assumption, August 15. A substantial roofed hall has been erected for the play, which will begin at eleven A. M. and last until five P. M., with a "Mittags-Pause" for rest and refreshment. The price of seats (1,200 in number) varies from two to eight francs each.

Americans, finally, who happen to be in Germany during the autumn will have a unique opportunity of seeing and hearing most of the distinguished economists in the empire. The Verein für Socialpolitik has arranged a "Ferienkurs" to last from September 30 to October 12, in the University buildings at Berlin, with absurdly small charges for admission. During this period some eleven scholars, several of them of more than German reputation, will deliver each a course of six lectures. Among these may be mentioned Schmoller on social organization, Brentano on the wage-contract, Philippovich on the recent trade policy of Central Europe, Neumann on recent questions of German finance, and Knapp on currency. The official announcement tells us that the lectures are intended primarily for lawyers, officials, clergymen, teachers, and journalists, but that "wider circles, including women of cultivation, are also welcome." The reference to "gebildete Frauen" is a sign of the times.

A School of Pedagogy has been added to the other departments of the University of Buffalo, its faculty of four being equally divided as to sex. The course of study will cover a period of two years, and the school will open on September 25. Information in regard to it may be obtained of the registrar, Mr. Herbert G. Lord, No. 55 Cottage Street, Buffalo. President De Garmo of Swarthmore College, Prof. Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia, and Dr. W. T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, will be among the lecturers.

—The *Portfolio* for May (Macmillan) is a timely monograph on Japanese wood-engraving, by William Anderson, a collector and connoisseur in whose hands one feels entirely safe, and who is besides an agreeable writer. The history of this art in the three neighboring countries of China, Corea, and Japan is full of curiosity, and we inquire in vain why delineation did not pass beyond the stage of the silhouette into full chiaroscuro, and why the representations of the human face and figure remained so purely conventional. Mr. Anderson, apropos of the favorite theme of wrestling, remarks that the Japanese had all the opportunities of the ancient Greeks for viewing the naked figure, but made no use of its artistic possibilities. He intimates the connection between Japanese calligraphy and the easy command of the brush which produces such sure and yet flowing lines in picturing drapery and the life and action of plants and animals. After all the lamentation over the passing of the elder Japanese pictorial art, Mr. Anderson is evidently hopeful of what may issue from the adoption of Western methods with the graver. His illustrations, many in color, are beautiful, and those on page 57 show how, by the use of inks of different shades, the printer attained to effects produced by our "overlaying," or Bewick's lowering of the surface of the block. Mr. Anderson abstracts the native account of the engraving process already published by Mr. S. R. Koehler in a Smithsonian bulletin, and exemplified in detail with the tools at the National Museum at Washington. Perhaps the most astonishing statement in this essay is that the Coreans from an early date printed "not only from engraved wood blocks, but also from movable metal type," *teste* Mr. W. G. Aston, who will shortly produce his evidence in the Transactions of the Asiatic Society.

—Kyoto, the "sacred city" of Japan, is now celebrating its eleven hundredth anniversary. No war, however exciting or costly, has suffered the energies of those who planned the Exposition to relax. To the foreign visitor the greatest of all attractions will be the city itself. Nothing else like Kyoto exists in the empire, because for over a millennium it was the focus of Japanese art, religion, history, and politics. In our half of this century it was the birthplace of New Japan. All attempts to change the name to Sai-kyo, Western (in complement to Tokyo, the Eastern) capital, have failed. It still retains the name given

when the first of the seventy-seven emperors transferred the Court from Nara to this "citadel of peace," and the city of both premier and primate of the realm. Three handsome guide-books just issued in Japan have reached us. One in English, entitled "The Kyoto Industrial Exhibition of 1895," is from the competent pen of Captain F. Brinkley, the scholarly editor of the *Japan Mail*. It is a mine of historical and geographical information, and a vade-mecum for the student of art and artistic products. It is issued (with no illustrations) by the Kyoto city government. The others, well illustrated with half-tone pictures from photographs, are in Japanese. They have a line of English under each picture, and are clothed with covers as brilliant as a *géi-sha's* girdle. One describes the famous places of Kyoto, and the other the points of interest in Osaka, Kobé, and on Biwa Lake. The pulse of a Japanese always beats high when describing the "Blossom Capital," and there is no painful excess of modesty in the rhetoric employed. The Exhibition, which opened April 1, will close July 31 unless prolonged, as is quite possible. Among a hundred temptations to press upon space, we note that the bronze-chaser or porcelain-decorator often copies direct from the blossoms that "look in at him through the windows of his workshop"; that the mineral properties of the (mostly dry) Kamo River, like those of the Spaarne at Haarlem, make Kyoto's environs famous bleaching-grounds; and that some of the most illustrious names of noble families, including that of Ichijo, the Empress's, are simply those taken from the nine most ancient streets of this imperial city.

—The Proceedings of the Gibbon Commemoration, held in London last November under the auspices of the Royal Historical Society, have recently been published in a thin vellum-covered volume by Messrs. Longman. The opportunity was taken to bring together, for temporary exhibition, at the British Museum, a collection of Gibbon manuscripts—with somewhat startling results. Few readers of Gibbon's 'Memoirs of My Life and Writings,' published by his friend Lord Sheffield in 1796, have given much thought to the editor's statement that the book was selected and put together from six different sketches. They have very naturally assumed that the printed Memoirs came from Gibbon substantially as we now have them. No one can have guessed at the extent of the editorial "selection." It appeared, however, when the MSS. came to be exhibited and compared, that the work had been done with a freedom only equalled by its adroitness. Mr. Frederick Harrison tells us, in the address now printed, that the six original pieces "are not continuous narratives of different periods of his life; they are all more or less detailed sketches of his life from the beginning. No one of them is a complete whole; nor can any one of them be taken as plainly superior to the rest. They do not observe the same order of narration; they sometimes repeat the same phrases, sentences, and even paragraphs; sometimes they recount the same incident, or work out the same thought, in a totally new form, and even in a slightly different tone." The published life "is made up of passages pieced together with singular skill, first from one, then from another, of the six MSS. The order is constantly inverted; paragraphs, sentences, and phrases are omitted; whole pages disappear, and many characteristic points drop out altogether." "But there is more than this. Entire episodes are suppressed. Passages of Gibbonian humor or irony are omitted. . . . Epigrams are cut out of one MS., and are inserted in the middle of a passage taken out of a different MS." Mr. Harrison gives some surprising examples of editorial manipulation. Perhaps the most noteworthy is the account of Gibbon's love affair with Mlle. Curchod. One can hardly believe one's eyes when one finds that "I sighed as a lover, I obeyed as a son," was taken out of the somewhat cold-blooded account composed in Gibbon's later years, and inserted into the more pathetic narrative he had first written. Mr. Harrison well observes, dropping for the nonce into Gibbonian phrase himself, "I admire the skill, but I tremble at the daring." And this greatly daring person—there seems much reason to believe—was a woman, the daughter of Lord Sheffield, Maria Holroyd, afterwards the first Lady Stanley of Alderley.

—The recent celebration at Venice of the silver wedding of the King and Queen of Italy and the centenary solemnities of St. Mark has been made by the Government the occasion of a reorganization of the Academy of Fine Arts and of the Archæological Museum. The work has been effected by competent men under an order from the Minister of Education, who recognized the necessity of a complete rearrangement of both collections. Old documents disclose the fact that Titian's well-known "Presentation of the Virgin in the Temple" was originally painted for the large hall of the suppressed Scuola di S. Maria della Carità, now occupied by the Academy of Fine Arts. Hence sprang the idea of replacing this picture, which every one knows to be one of the chief attractions of the Academy, in its original position, so that the full effect intended by Titian should be obtained. This has been done. From similar motives, one of the side rooms has been remodelled so as to reproduce exactly the octagon chapel of Saint Ursula where formerly were Carpaccio's scenes from the legends of this saint. Paintings by Bellini, Sebastiani, and others, removed hither from the Scuola di S. Giovanni Evangelista, have likewise been placed in positions corresponding as nearly as possible to the original. The contents of the Archæological Museum had been in even worse disorder than the Art Gallery, so that a large part of the collection had been wholly withdrawn from exhibition. To Dr. Lucio Mariani of Rome was given the task of bringing a scientific classification out of this chaos. The new arrangement has led to the opening of five additional rooms in the Ducal Palace, which have hitherto been closed to the public. The decorations of the walls and ceilings as well as the fine chimney-pieces add to the interest of these rooms. Both the entrance and the exit to the Ducal Palace are now, in consequence of these changes, by the Scala d'Oro, which increases the impressiveness of a passage through these rooms. A branch of the Scala d'Oro, ornamented by remarkable stucco, is also now opened to the public for the first time. The action of the Government in making its contribution to the Venetian festivities one of permanent interest will be appreciated by future visitors.

—Philo the Jew, who lived in Alexandria at the opening of our era, had no theory of the inherent antithesis between Hellenism and Hebraism. Taking the Scriptures of his people in a mystical, and at times in a Pickwickian sense, he combined the refinements of monotheism with an eclectic Gentile philosophy, and clothed the whole with a graceful Hellenic culture. Mr. Conybeare, in editing Philo's characteristic essay, 'About the Contemplative Life' (Macmillan), had an eye to chiefly controversial ends, but he has, nevertheless, laid the merely literary student under an obligation. Glossaries and a learned commentary give the reader a philological apparatus for the study of Philo's works similar to that of the later Greek writers furnished in Schmid's 'Atticismus.' The logic of the excursus is convincing in favor of the authenticity of the work, but whether the reader prefers to be right with our editor and Renan or wrong with Zeller and a deal of good German company; and whether he believes that the Egyptian ascetics described by Philo were the earliest Christian monks, or a Jewish sect, or, as Renan contended, an imaginary people, invented by Philo as a *pendant* to the Essenes for the glory of Egypt—however profoundly the reader's soul may be at rest on these points, he will not be insensible of the charm of the essay. It gives a picture of the winning asceticism of a mind in which the pleasure of high thinking far outweighs the pain of plain living, and whose delicacy is outraged rather by the vulgarity than by the sin of the world. With Plato "beside him singing in the wilderness," this Jew found the wilderness "Paradise enow."

CHARLES BRADLAUGH.

Charles Bradlaugh. A Record of his Life and Work. By his daughter, Hypatia Bradlaugh Bonner. With an account of his Parliamentary Struggle, Politics and Teachings, by John M. Robertson. Putnams. 2 vols., xvi, 400, xii, 439, portraits and illustrations.

THIS is not a particularly well-digested narrative—it is in truth three books in two volumes, but, taking it as a whole, we have graphically and interestingly treated the career and character of a remarkable man—one who from humble beginnings, in the face of difficulties; self-weighted with the name of "atheist," won a high position before the world, and compelled the respect if not the admiration of those with whom he was brought in contact. Seldom was man more unjustly maligned; seldom has any man been better vindicated as to the general tenor of his life and actions. He was held back by none of the humilities, reticences, questionings, old associations, reverences, or prudential considerations that influence most men regarding the promulgation of negative religious teachings. He felt it laid upon him to devote his great powers of mind and of speech openly to the weakening of beliefs which are to most men their greatest consolations and support in life, and which are generally believed to be at the foundation of civilized society. For others he acted as a Winkelried, receiving into his own bosom shafts of condemnation, ridicule, and opposition, and making for them the path of life smoother. We have at the opening of the first volume his portrait as a saucy young dragoon; towards the end of the second, an engraving taken from that moving painting of him, an earnest, cultivated, weary man in advanced life, pleading his own cause at the bar of the House of Commons. These illustrations may be said to mark the developments through which he passed.

He was born in London in 1833, and was there domiciled during life. At fourteen he was suspended from Sunday-school teaching, when preparing for confirmation, for question-

ing the harmony between the New Testament and the Thirty-nine Articles. He was deprived of his situation as messenger in a solicitor's office, and was turned out of doors by his father. He drifted into free-thought circles, and soon developed those views which he subsequently preached:

"I do not say there is no god, but I am an atheist without god. To me the word 'god' conveys no idea, and it is because the word 'god' to me never expressed a clear and definite conception . . . that I am an atheist. . . . The word 'god' does not, to my mind, express an eternal, infinite, omnipotent, intelligent, personal, conscious being, but is a word without meaning and no effect other than it derives from the passions and prejudices of those who use it."

His determination to give open expression to such opinions moulded his whole life. He had to enter the army at first to obtain a living. He passed a middle life of turmoil and unrest. He was in his latter years hurled breathless and with torn habiliments from the steps of the House of Commons. St. Paul's words instinctively rise to the mind of the reader: "In labors more abundant, . . . in prisons more frequent, . . . in journeyings often, in perils of waters, . . . in perils by mine own countrymen, . . . in perils in the city, in perils in the wilderness, in perils in the sea, in perils among false brethren; in weariness and painfulness, in watchings often, in hunger and thirst, in fastings often, in cold and nakedness."

His father died while he was in the army, and his mother bought him out with the proceeds of a small legacy. He again obtained a situation in a lawyer's office. He gave himself to study, and became such a proficient in knowledge of the intricacies of the law as to be able to conduct cases for his employers, and to plead and win causes for himself and in the interests of free thought and political advancement before the highest courts in the kingdom. He acquired a working knowledge of some of the ancient and modern languages, besides a wide acquaintance with literature. As "Iconoclast" (so as not to interfere with the business prospects of his employer) he took a prominent part in the reform movements of his time, became the leader of the secularist party in Great Britain, engaged in public discussions, and added to his income by lecturing. In 1870, at the age of thirty-seven, he relinquished his employment, and thenceforward openly, under his own name, gave himself to public affairs and literary work. His marriage turned out unhappily through the intemperance of his wife. To lessen the temptation to which she was exposed in town, he broke up his home and sent her to live in the country. His daughters were the delight of his life. Many charming pictures does Mrs. Bonner give of the simple domestic pleasures of their early life. Their time was divided between alternate care of their mother, and residence with their father in hired apartments. After their mother's death they devoted themselves entirely to him. The death of the elder, Alice, was one of Mr. Bradlaugh's greatest troubles. Economical to a degree regarding personal family expenditure, he was never out of money difficulties. A well-stocked working library, a few articles of simple furniture, some presents from Indian natives grateful for his exertions on behalf of their country, and a few thousand pounds of liabilities, were all his "possessions" at the last. His debts were attributable to his generosity to others, expenditure upon the causes in which he was interested, his newspaper ventures, and the lawsuits in vindication of his principles or of public rights in which he was ever being entangled.

His life was pure. He was in his early days an earnest teetotaler. As a soldier, when in Dublin, he often broke bounds to deliver teetotal speeches "in my scarlet jacket, between James Houghton and the good old Father, the Rev. Dr. Spratt, a Roman Catholic priest." Later on, he was persuaded, from motives of health, to take light wine at his dinner. He was a warm, true, and long-suffering friend, a hard-hitting though fair and honorable opponent. His Anglo-Saxon temperament was eminently shown in his love of law where he believed law was, as in England, based upon the popular will. Physical force was exercised by him in resistance to constituted authorities only where he believed he had the Constitution on his side. He counselled submission whenever the law was decided as being against him. The hatred and opposition which he encountered, the threats of personal violence so often levelled against him, doubtless led to his keeping a revolver by him. The threat of its use appears to have served him well upon more than one occasion, when travelling upon political missions in Italy and in Spain. He was a born republican, though by no means a born democrat—at least his democracy began to show signs of wearing thin in later life.

Mr. Bradlaugh was a man of strong feelings held completely under control: "I have not a passion that I could not crush as easily as an egg within my hand if it were necessary for the good of the cause I love," he exclaimed upon one occasion, stretching out his arm and closing his fingers over an imagined object. He must have had a strong constitution to hold out so long under the incessant labors to which he subjected himself. We come upon passages such as the following:

"During the past twelve months I have addressed 276 different meetings, four of which each numbered over 5,000 persons; eighty of these lectures have involved considerable loss in travelling, hotel expenses, loss of time, etc. I have, during the same time, held five separate debates, two of these also without remuneration."

"'I arrived in Glasgow just one hour before the time fixed for the morning lecture—dirty, weary, hungry, thirsty, and sleepy.' After the evening lecture Mr. Bradlaugh had to hurry . . . to catch the train, which steamed out of Glasgow at 8:40, so that he might be in time for Monday morning's business in the city, having spent two nights out of bed, travelled about 900 miles, and spoken at Bedlington and three times in Glasgow in less than forty-eight hours."

We read of his having at times, for lack of means, to carry heavy baggage, to go without proper food, and leave his bag in pawn for his railway fare, and then "the most amusing feature was that an opponent, endowed with extra piety and forbearance, chose that evening to specially attack me for the money-making and easy life I was leading."

Like Izaak Walton and his great contemporary, John Bright, he found his principal relaxation in fishing—when a boy, following his father to ponds near London; when a man, accompanied by his daughters to the same places, and later on snatching a few days on Scottish lochs. These volumes abound in racy anecdote. Some of the most interesting chapters are devoted to the genesis and natural history of the fictions so pertinaciously circulated regarding the sayings and doings of persons of his opinions. He made several lecturing tours in the United States. He received the formal thanks of the French Provisional Government for sympathy shown after the fall of Sedan. Some months later he was refused entry into the country on account of pity manifested towards the Communists. He paid, as we have said, visits to Italy and to Spain, both in the cause of republicanism. There was a close and intimate, though blameless, alliance between him and Mrs. Besant during thirteen years of their lives, from 1874 to 1887, in the free-thought propaganda and in the editing of the *National Reformer*. His daughter writes:

"They were mutually attracted; and a friendship sprang up between them of so close a nature that had both been free it would undoubtedly have ended in marriage. In their common labors, in the risks and responsibilities jointly undertaken, their friendship grew and strengthened, and the insult and calumny heaped upon them only served to cement the bond."

Misunderstandings as to their relations perhaps not unnaturally arose from their association in the popular promulgation of delicate physiological statements generally thought proper only to be considered in treatises intended for the eyes of the medical faculty. The alienation of these friends came about through Mrs. Besant's espousal of socialistic and theosophical opinions.

No man ever passed through greater difficulties and stranger experiences in the House of Commons. For fourteen years he looked to entering Parliament. He was at length elected for Northampton in 1880. It was six further years before he won the unquestioned right to sit, speak, and vote. The difficulty arose out of the oath of allegiance. His desire to be permitted to affirm was at first refused. He expressed himself willing to take the oath, but he was, on account of his opinions, declared incompetent. He administered the oath to himself without obtaining recognition of its validity. He was then allowed to affirm and take his seat at his own legal peril. The courts decided against the legality of his position. Through clouds of actions for illegal sitting and voting, and on his part against the officers of the House for assault and exclusion, the struggle proceeded. Eight times were heavy majorities cast against him; five times was he removed by force; several were the committees struck to consider his case; four times the seat was declared vacant and he was reëlected by Northampton; upon as many occasions did he plead his cause at the bar. These undignified proceedings were brought to an end at the opening of Parliament in 1886. The new Speaker (Mr. Peel, who has just now retired) refused to interfere with his taking the oath. Mr. Bradlaugh showed true magnanimity in his subsequent bearing. Not a grudge did he show towards those members who had opposed, or towards the officers of the House, many of whom had roughly handled him. In the face of anticipations to the contrary, he (different from many outside platform celebrities who had entered the House) proved a complete parliamentary success. He was a stickler for its customs and its honor. One of the clearest handbooks on parliamentary procedure is from his pen. He made his mark in debate and on the statute book. In 1888 he carried a general affirmation bill, which passed the House of Commons and became a law. He advocated the cause of Ireland as if the majority of her members had not been his most virulent opponents. Had he lived he would doubtless have attained to office. As, on the 27th of January, 1891, in his fifty-eighth year, he lay dying in his humble lodgings, surrounded by the love of friends, attended by the untiring devotion of his daughter, and called upon by the Prime

Minister, the House of Commons, without a dissentient voice, passed a resolution expunging from its journals the resolutions excluding him in former years.

MORE NOVELS.

A Divided Heart, and Other Stories. By Paul Heyse. Translated into English with an Introduction by Constance Stewart Copeland. Brentano's.

An Altar of Earth. By Thymol Monk. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Marsena, and Other Stories of the Wartime. By Harold Frederic. Charles Scribner's Sons.

On Cloud Mountain. By Frederick Thickstun Clark. Harpers.

The Unbidden Guest. By Ernest William Hornung. Longmans, Green & Co.

Sweet Clover. By Clara Louise Burnham. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Untempered Wind. By Joanna E. Wood. J. Selwin Tait & Sons.

Pomona's Travels. By Frank R. Stockton. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Transplanted Manners. By Elizabeth E. Evans. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Scribners.

The Pollinctor. By James T. Bowyer. Richmond, Va.: J. W. Randolph & Co.

Danvis Folks. By Rowland E. Robinson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

"Realistic as Balzac, analytic as Tolstoi, picturesque as his own countryman Ebers," is the summing up of Heyse's endowments by the translator of three of his short stories; and with some deductions this is a fair criticism on the volume. Heyse's realism consists not so much in depicting real men and women as in making them very much alive even when they are wholly improbable; and this is the artist's function. In analysis his method is to show that he has deeply studied the human mind, and to avoid working out the problem in public. The complexities of life's situations are presented in a thousand differing phases, and the answer to the problem, or its unanswerableness, is made clear, yet no figuring on the blackboard goes on; the truths are left to tell their own story. Picturesque he is, too, in use of language, quick in feeling for the varying aspects of nature, and guarded in the use of this sense. "Minka" and "Rothenburg on the Tauber" are, to our thinking, more complete works of art than the longer story which gives the book its name. It is not that the characters therein are less real, but the crisis is less real; and here is Heyse's strong point, wherein, if he weakens, his story totters—the dealing, namely, with mental, moral, or emotional situation. There is an improbability of inner experience which is wholly different from that of character, and which is far less tolerable. The two succeeding stories, little masterpieces of pathos and truth, carry the reader along in constant sympathy. As to Heyse's style, it is of a beautiful finish and fine grain, and makes readable even the least commendable of his stories. The translation is well done, as by an enthusiastic student of the original.

'An Altar of Earth' (*Earthy* should have been added) is evidently written by a member of the sex whose mission is to exalt and refine: "Let us have the suffrage, O man! and we will elevate you." A book like this is full of suggestion on the point, for it prompts one to ask, "Has woman elevated literature?" 'An Altar of Earth' is full of advanced views on the woman question, the man question, the Socialist question, and has enough clever paragraphs to make it worth while to say that it is one of the most untidy, uncleanly, unwholesome, unsound books of the year. What has got into the women writers of England? Socialism, about which a great deal (but nothing new) is said, is made a peg whereon to hang such objectionableness of style, thought, and substance that capital itself would convert to pity if it had such meet food as a socialism pressed into so unsavory service. A naphtha bath offers hopes for some books, but of this one, after a mere cleansing, the residuum would be inappreciable—a clear waste of good naphtha. We advise the cheap and thorough fire.

Mr. Frederic's stories of the wartime are constructed thoughtfully and written admirably. They are full of a feeling which is all the more manifest from not being insisted on. The tragic stir of the days of the rebellion, as it affected certain small villages in the Empire State, forms the subject of the sketches; the homely humor of the village scenes is thrown up with telling effect against a background of war and death. The small boy's point of view adds to the narrative novelty and a certain ingenuousness of manner, inclining the reader to the mood of that great man who never could see a boy without wanting to give him a quarter. The age and the day when a firecracker and the guns of Vicksburg were only small and great brothers have had no more sympathetic delineation than in the story of "The Eve of the Fourth."

The dialect of Illinois transplanted to "Collyrado" in Mrs. Clark's novel is worth reading the novel for. Particularly as found adorning the speech of old Mrs. Irish is it peerless. Her whole character, indeed, is so original that if one did not care for mystery and murder and landscape, one might edit Mrs. Irish out of the volume and find copious entertainment. The mystery is well planned, but less well presented since one has divined it long before the end. The pictures of the hardest side of ranch life are appalling in their cruelty. Those of its kinder aspect are melancholy enough, but would be relieved if only we might, for a single incident, get rid of the landscape, which pursues one through the pages like an avenging bore, and on the whole is the most tragic feature of the novel. With Caliban, and reduced to his temper, the reader cries out, "There's wood enough within—what ho!" Old Mrs. Irish's threat, "There'll be scenery in this family!" takes on a meaning she did not suspect.

The 'Unbidden Guest' is a study of a music-hall singer, showing a great many of her manners and one of her songs and dances in full. How this young person stirred up an Australian country home, introducing herself there by fraud, how the mother suspected and not unnaturally flouted her, how the daughter looked askance, but, being saved by her from ruin, turned into her champion, how the men of the household became her credulous and affectionate slaves at once, and what good came of it at last, if any, may be read in the well-printed volume. Australian life, with its scenery, figures and speech, is the accompaniment to the story, and is given realistically but without fatiguing detail.

'Sweet Clover,' like all Miss Burnham's stories, is of the innocuousness which has too far fallen into desuetude among story-tellers. There have been times when it has been said of her books, almost as a reproach, that they were as milk for babes, food for convalescents, and so on. The harmlessness is still observable in her latest novel, and there is still a tendency to "pie and piety." But it is a "Romance of the White City," and in the very words lies a charm to make criticism "forget its errand." So we advise all the simple-hearted and true who did not visit the great Fair, and above all those who did, to read this little book, for all its doughnuts and buncombe, and float in gondolas, glide in electric launches, make rendezvous in State buildings, dream by sunset, marvel by the light of fireworks, steep themselves in beauty of architecture, and shed a tear over the burning of the peristyle. One almost repents of giving a book so damning an epithet as harmless, remembering how therein it has been read that Gilbert is "the only librettist in the world who says just what he wants to say and it happens to rhyme"; and that a girl's questioning of herself should be, not, "Can I live with this man? but, Can I live without him?" and that one of the Fair-goers rechristened a certain street as the Mudway Nuisance, and that Aunt Love declares, "When I want a good time, I ain't goin' to try to get it bein' trod on by camels and yelled at by Turks, all the time smellin' smells I don't know the name of and would be afraid to. No, sir."

Readers of 'The Untempered Wind' are entitled to claim the sympathy due to shorn lambs. It is a story of the sad life of a girl who was a mother yet no wife. One might expect it to be bitter, but it is also sour and scolding—a temper which never yet lent effectiveness to literature or persuasion to morality. The unhappy heroine lived in a village peopled by a race whose rickety degeneration through long intermarrying is repulsively emphasized. There is not a spark of feeling up and down the whole length of the village street, or of anything but a disgusting brutality except in the case of the two men who are in love with the heroine. She, the technical sinner, is not only an angel but a monopolist of goodness, and not only of goodness but of ordinary humanity. The life in a farming country, with its rotation of crops and seasons and flora and fauna, is described with intimate knowledge and wearisome abundance. As a whole, the book leaves the reader feeling like one who has eaten a kid seethed in its mother's milk.

We all love Pomona and her high-flown language. She is a delicious figure of speech. Yet her book of little journeys in England and Scotland reminds one of the eyes of Matthew Arnold's heroine, which were "too expressive to be blue, too lovely to be gray." Her letters are written almost too guide-book wise for humor, and are quite too Pomonal for mere letters of travel. The reader finds himself trying to digest two unassimilated portions, rural England and extract of Pomona. Decidedly, her especial humor, always delicately evanescent, runs very thin spread over the superficies of Great Britain. Yet Pomona she remains in spite of marriage, money, and culture, and as such dear to every acquaintance. This is a characteristic morsel from the journey on a Scotch steamer, in reference to an English tourist:

"As we got near the Clyde, the gentleman began to talk about ship-building, and pretty soon I saw in his face plain symptoms that he was going to have an attack of comparison making. I have seen so much of this disorder that I can nearly always tell when it is coming on a person. In about a minute the disease broke out on him, and he began to talk about the differences between American and English ships."

More internationalism is found in Mrs.

Evans's novel 'Transplanted Manners.' Her point of observation is a German *pension*, where the narrator lives and keeps a diary. Under her view there pass Russians, Hungarians, Greeks, Germans, English, and Americans. They come and go as figures do at a *pension*, and afford a moving panorama of race studies. The writer has obviously suffered from fellow-countrymen abroad, and her revenge—or, to be just, her self-imposed mission—is the portrayal of Americans compared with whom Daisy Miller was prudish and Lord Byron conventional. "Oh, my beloved country!" writes she; "what is to become of us as a people if the rising generation be allowed to follow all their whims from infancy to maturity unchecked, and obedience to children be considered the first duty of parents? How can we govern ourselves as a nation if self-control be not the earliest principle inculcated at home?" "The most perfectly well-bred persons I have ever met," she observes elsewhere, "have been Americans, because their good manners were the result of good feeling, and their tact was directed by taste, so that the result was harmonious character, not borrowed polish." Her strictures, therefore, it will be seen, are prompted not by prejudice but by patriotic yearning, and in a good cause she has forced herself to see and say many disagreeable things, which make her book a manual of instruction better fitted for parents and guardians than for young persons. The force of the lesson is heightened by unusual intelligence and good literary form with undoubted sincerity. Two reflections suggest themselves. First, that if there are such American manners floating about in Germany or elsewhere, something ought to be done about it; second, what?—with the added queries whether one who washes soiled linen as for Heaven's laws makes that and the action fine—or one—or neither? Aside from the main purpose of the book, some interesting secondary subjects are touched upon, as the art criticisms in connection with the operatic début of one of the characters, and, notably, some striking paragraphs on cremation and the accidental burial of the living.

No, gentle reader, we shall not tell you what a Pollinctor is. You will find out if you read Mr. James Boyer's book and have a dictionary at hand. You will need several dictionaries; you will find yourself floating in erudition legal, political, agricultural, medical, theological; erudition combined with such phrases as "The sun was making a crimson set," "More apt she has heard of," etc., "Very seldom young and healthy men like he admit death practical into their minds," "These talkers have no children of their own. If they had they would believe like I do in the rightfulness of my daughter," and this following, from an ode on Bull Run:

"And while the boy was staunching blood with band,
A cannon-ball came rolling 'long the land,
And struck the father's head with force enough
To put out life which had burned down to snuff."

The ode, which we learn, "it would not be fair to subject to the test of a cold and rigid reason" (and we ourselves think it defies coldness—certainly rigidity), is admitted by the writer "to fall short of Horace Flaccus," but it seems that Jefferson Davis "has been heard to speak of it as the best literary production of the war." The graceful directness of these phrases is offset by floods of that fine writing which seems to spring naturally and flourish abundantly wherever the African microbe is nourished in the leisure of the white South. The arguments for secession and the abuse of Yankees will be found entertaining, but they hardly atone for the gruesomeness of the story, which, viewed as a piece of literature, is travesty not remarkably pure or simple.

Mr. Robinson's book is a rich storehouse of folk-lore and folks-lore. His Vermonters belong to the well-nigh pre-maple-sugar period of history, to the time when the heroes of Bennington and Plattsburgh were still telling their tales and groaning over the unsoldierly quality of the degenerate June trainings of fifty or sixty years ago. The cares and joys, the raising bees and apple-dryings, but chiefly the huntings and fishings of Danvis, are described with a fine simplicity and a gentle unction that reflect the neighborhood spirit. The volume is one of more than passing value as a faithful record of manners and customs, and especially of dialect. That of Vermont has never been better set down, and that of the transplanted Canadian is matchless, and here first recorded, "prob'ly," as Antoine himself would say—delightful Antoine, who thought that more than half the time "de fun aut pay fer de troublesome fer get marry."

A Textbook of Invertebrate Morphology. By J. Playfair McMurrich, M.A., Ph.D. Henry Holt & Co. 1894. 8vo, pp. viii, 661, 291 figs.

MORPHOLOGY is defined as the science of form—by form meaning internal as well as external structure. The early naturalists, by force of circumstances, were obliged to confine their studies chiefly to external features, or those parts of the organism which by reason of their solidity were least perishable, such as the shell, the skeleton, or the exoskeleton. With modern methods came the opportunity for searching study of the softer tissues and the embryonic stages—a field so attractive and fruitful that for a time the student seemed to forget that animals possessed any organs of importance which could not be cut with a microtome. A reaction from this one-sideness was inevitable, and broader views have of late increasingly prevailed, especially in America; yet it is still true that by morphology is generally understood a combination of embryology, ontogeny, and microscopic anatomy, and for information about the salient characteristics of external form, or the interrelations of form and function which have done so much to determine both type and structure, no one would think of consulting a manual of morphology. The most important step towards remedying this unnatural divorce of the older and the newer biology which has been made of late, is the publication of Lang's splendid 'Lehrbuch der vergleichenden Anatomie, of which an English translation by Bernard is in progress. Putting aside matters of opinion, about which students will always find reason to differ, there can be little doubt that the work of the Jena professor stands foremost among recent handbooks of the subject, and with it must newer candidates for favor expect to be compared.

Prof. McMurrich's 'Text-book' is planned on much the same lines as Lang's, though condensed to about one-half the length and much less fully illustrated. For teaching purposes the condensation is not objectionable, and might have been carried even further with advantage; or, at least, a further separation of important from less important detail, indicated by a difference of typography, would have been an improvement. The classification adopted differs in several respects from that of Lang, and some of these differences appear to be original with Prof. McMurrich. Thus, Lang divides the invertebrate Metazoa into seven phyla, or branches, of the animal kingdom, not counting Enteropneusta of uncertain rank. The same animals are regarded by McMurrich as constituting ten "types," with several unassigned and more or less isolated small groups. In one or two of these cases we think the change is an improvement, especially in the constitution of the Prosopygia, while it is probable that the general opinion will be that in separating as primary types the Crustacea, Tracheata, and Arachnids, the distinctions between them have been overvalued.

The chief difference which will strike the observer on a comparison of these two textbooks is the much better subordination and system (seen not only in the text but in the typography) of the German work, and especially (as regards the latter point) in its English version. In a text-book, to learning should be united a grasp of the subject which will present biological truth to the unaccustomed eyes of students in something like its natural perspective, but with a diagrammatic saliency of the most important facts. In this the work under review decidedly fails. In chapter ix. are brought together an order, followed by two classes, another order, and, lastly, a genus, all (according to the author) of doubtful affinities. Such a course cannot be but confusing in the extreme to students, and has not been found necessary by other biologists. The same confusion appears even in the nomenclature, where (p. 461) we find the accepted terminology for a family applied to a division of ordinal rank, while in other places orders appear not referred to any class. Few entomologists will accept an arrangement such as that on p. 528, which associates Pulex and Melophagus as diptera, contrasted with Culex and Musca merely by the absence of wings. This, the only important deviation by the author from Lang's arrangement of the insects, is not a happy one.

Leaving these matters of form and mode of presentation, we may inquire briefly into matters of detail. Of course complete accuracy should not be required and cannot reasonably be expected in works which contain such a mass of facts as these text-books. However, in adopting Lang's characterization of the mollusca it would have been well to modify the phrase which speaks of the circulation as "open," since the researches of Menegaux and others have conclusively shown that this circulation, while partly lacunary, is completely closed. Another error, corrected in this country over six years ago, but overlooked by Lang, is the statement, copied by our author, to the effect that a verge is absent in the Diotocardia. This is true only of the littoral forms.

Most biologists would not have associated the Nemerteans with the Platyhelminths. The inclusion of Amphioxus in the Protochordata is not without some warrant, but will be questioned. Here it would have been in accordance with usage to adopt Cephalochorda for the type name and retain Leptocardia for the class. But it must be conceded that our author does not sin in this matter above other morphologists, who, as a class, ignore both consistency and usage in matters of nomenclature.

Since of students in biological courses those who intend later to pursue medical studies profit more from their work in zoölogy than almost any others, we regret that the author has not devoted more space to recent discoveries in parasitology. *Coccidium oviforme*, with its alleged peculiar development by an alternation of spore-generations, is certainly important both from a morphological and a medical standpoint, and there is hardly a form

which has been more frequently cited in medical literature during the past five years than this species; yet we do not find it mentioned. The animal which causes malaria is another form that is most important, from both a practical and a morphological standpoint, yet it receives no attention. The treatment of the entire group of Sporozoa leaves something to be desired. The chapter on Platyhelminthes is on the whole satisfactory, but the general discussion of homologies is marred by several errors in biology and classification. It would have been well had the author followed helminthologists in adopting a separate order Cestodaria for the genera *Archigetes* and *Caryophyllæus*. On p. 158 it is stated that the dog-tick is the intermediate host of "*Tænia cucumerina*." This passage should read that the dog-louse (*Trichodectes canis*) and the dog-flea (*Pulex serraticeps*) are the intermediate hosts of *Dipylidium caninum*. There is no authority, so far as we know, for the statement that the "dog-tick" (*i. e.*, *Dermacentor americanus*, Linné) harbors the larval stage of this worm. On p. 159 the author is in error in stating that "*Tænia solium* is by far the most frequent tapeworm of man," and that "*T. saginata* is of less frequent occurrence." Directly the reverse of this statement obtains, and this is an important point for the medical student to know, since the larval stage of *T. solium* as well as the strobila develops in man. An attempt is made to render the chapter on Nemathelminthes of practical as well as scientific importance, but unfortunately the chapter is far behind the times. It is not clear to the reviewer what McMurrich considers "obscure" regarding Ascaris, Trichocephalus, and Oxyuris, since these forms are now pretty thoroughly known.

In regard to *Trichina spiralis* the following statement is made: "Each female may deposit in the intestine as many as 1,000 eggs, from which, in the second or third week after injection, young *Trichinæ* measuring 0.01 mm. hatch out and at once proceed to bore," etc. This does great injustice to the activity of the mother Trichina, for, in reality, she becomes mature in two and a half to three days, and then lays 5,000 to 15,000 young, and the latter are well developed and ready to escape within six days after the infection. The viviparity or oviparity of the adult, and whether the young are able to lead an independent life within five days, or two or three weeks, may be very unimportant questions in many animals, but when we are dealing with a parasite which causes several hundred cases of disease (trichinosis) and many deaths every year in Germany, and whose ravages are not unimportant in America, it is desirable that these details should be stated correctly, if at all, in a text-book destined to be put into the hands of students preparing for a course in medicine.

The morphology of chapter viii. is not all that could be desired, and one is surprised to see that Kaiser's work on the Acanthocephala is not noticed. The treatment of these animals affords an excellent example of the desirability of referring a text book of this kind to specialists in the various groups before publication. On page 182 it is stated that Melolontha is the intermediate host for *Echinorhynchus gigas*, a statement which, of course, is correct. But for an American book, to be used in American colleges, it certainly is worth while to mention the fact that Melolontha does not occur in this country, and that here Lachnosterna forms the intermediate host of this parasite, which is extremely common in American hogs. Defects of this sort would have been noticed by any specialist had the chapter been submitted for expert examination.

It should be said that those departments in which the author is especially at home are naturally more effectively treated. In general, Prof. McMurrich's style is clear and easy and the proof-reading is excellent. An effort has been made to refer to American literature of the different topics while condensing the bibliographic references, and there are good indices. In spite of the defects of method which we have noticed, the work will be useful to students and teachers, and, in the subsequent editions which will no doubt be called for, we may anticipate such a reformation of incidental details as experience and criticism always suggest.

Birdcraft: A Field-Book of Two Hundred Song, Game, and Water-Birds. By Mabel Osgood Wright. Macmillan. 1895. 8vo, pp. xvi, 317, plates.

Pocket Guide to the Common Land-Birds of New England. By M. A. Willcox. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1895. 12mo, pp. xii, 158.

Summer Studies of Birds and Books. By W. Warde Fowler. Macmillan. 1895. Sm. 8vo, pp. viii, 288.

THIS is the season when, according to one authority, the young man's fancy lightly turns to thoughts of love; when a newer iris gleams upon the burnished dove, when the wanton lapwing gets himself another crest, and when various other incidents mark the ornithological calendar, including a steady output of bird-books from the press. They hatch with regularity, and so numerously that we are reminded rather of the artificial incubator than of the natural hen—most of them to die in pin-feathers, a few to acquire full plumage.

We should not be surprised if Mrs. Wright's 'Birdcraft' proved to be one of these few. She certainly shows the literary craft which would go for much in the lack of the many other admirable qualities her work displays. Her book belongs distinctively to the class of writings about birds with which such names as those of John Burroughs and Wilson Flagg have long been associated, and with which Mrs. Olive Miller's has more recently become connected. She is clearly in love with her subject, and her pliant pen adorns bird-traits with many charmingly turned expressions of decided originality. Mrs. Wright is perhaps nowhere happier than in the phrases she applies to birds' songs. The attempt to imitate these in words is always more or less of a failure, for the thing cannot be done; but this author makes some happy shots at a mark that can never be hit, and her fresh misses, in great variety, are an agreeable change from those which have been stale since Nuttall. Mrs. Wright's individuality stamps the book as something out of the common, and this is so attractive that, as we premised, her work can hardly fail to achieve success.

This desideratum seems to us all the more probable on turning from the pleasantries to the technicalities. If Mrs. Wright is quite happy in the former, she is not less wise in the latter; for the book smells of the closet, besides exhaling the fragrance of the woods and fields. Each of the biographies in which the author frees her own mind is preceded by due formalities, in which she is minded to observe the dogma and ritual of the established high church in all matters of nomenclature, diagnosis, habitat, and the like. Such orthodoxy cannot fail to find favor with the hierarchy of the present ornithological dispensation, and secure plenary indulgence for any sin of omission or commission of which she may be convicted between the covers—with one possible exception, which may be rather her fate than her fault. We refer to the colored plates. These are flashy and trashy—penny-dreadfuls of some experiment which the publishers seem to have tried, and which we advise them to retire from all the unsold copies. They are out of place in such an otherwise wholly praiseworthy book. The plain plates are not so bad.

The 'Pocket Guide' is "such a little one," and so modest withal, that if we count it all, we have no fault to find with it. The author says that "this little book is the outcome of a long experience in teaching college women to study our common birds." It treats nearly a hundred species, probably all of which may be observed at Wellesley College, where the author is professor of zoölogy; it treats them briefly, with due regard for the technical proprieties, "without fear and without reproach"—unless the author could be twitted with the fact that sandpipers are not among the land birds the title calls for. The pedagogy of the book is represented by artificial keys, which have been found useful and acquired increasing vogue since their introduction into Dr. Coues's 'Key' in 1872. This pocket-book may find its own niche of usefulness for beginners, though most students of New England birds will soon turn to Samuels, or to Chamberlin's Nuttall, or Brewster's Minot, or the Coues and Stearns Manual which the same publishers carry.

One might take up Fowler's 'Summer Studies of Birds and Books' with the expectation of being entertained with some pleasant gossip of the "outing" kind—for English field-naturalists rival our own in fecundity of *entretiens* anent their birds. But as one paragraph after another surprises and delights us, we open our eyes to the fact that we have in hand a rare book. It may be small-talk, in a sense, but it is said in a large way—at ease, at leisure, with all the power of ripe scholarship held well in hand. The writer is here released from the more arduous if not more serious vocations which must be habitual with him; he invites us to enjoy his vacation with him; and we should have been very sorry to miss such companionship. Most of the pieces gathered in this volume have appeared before, but have been to some extent rewritten in fitting them together. Probably the most intrinsically valuable chapter, as a contribution to science, is that one on the songs of birds, which contains many interesting and technically accurate observations, besides figuring the oscinine syrinx intelligibly. We should hardly know where to turn for a clearer or more comprehensible account of this subject, though we have many more elaborate ones of entire reliability. It may be our individual preference when we point to the chapter on Aristotle's birds as the one which has interested us most. Aristotle, of course, we have always with us, and Sundevall has elucidated his ornithology with great care and success; but our present author discourses on this classic theme in quite another vein, altogether admirable. It should be a caution to rash moderns who compound specific names of birds with Greek words for colors, fancying they know what these words meant to those who spoke them! The chapter on White of Selborne will doubtless suit English readers better than it may American ones. We have our own fetishes, and have established the cult of Wilson, Nuttall, and Audubon; but we have no quarrel with those who find White, Bewick,

and Walton to be names as easily conjured with. "A Chapter on Wagtails" is perhaps a fair example of our author's style, and we cannot forbear to quote one passage:

"It is impossible ever to weary of Wagtails. We are never altogether without them, yet whenever they present themselves to us we are constrained to give them our attention. Some birds you can glance at as you walk and talk, but no sooner does a Wagtail alight on the path in front of you than he compels you to pause and look at him carefully. There are, indeed, excellent scientific reasons why Wagtails should always be noticed; but apart from these there is a never-failing pleasure in contemplating their symmetry of form, their beauty of coloring, their graceful flight, their unobtrusive confidence, and that constant unresting activity of theirs—an activity which some mysterious grace of mental build never suffers to degenerate into fidgetiness."

There is something about the concluding clause of this extract which seems to us to characterize the book itself as well as the bird. Wagtails appear to be special pets of the author's, perhaps for some such reason. For the rest, we are glad that a certain "grace of mental build" was found in the author to permit him to include the memoir of his old friend Billy, although, as he says, that chapter "has to do neither with birds nor books." If half we are told about Billy be true for any but his personal friends, he certainly was a wonderful dog; and if there never were such a dog, we should have still to thank the author for an ideal. Everybody ought to make Billy's acquaintance, besides reading all the rest of these altogether admirable 'Summer Studies.'

History of the City of Rome in the Middle Ages. By Ferdinand Gregorovius. Translated from the fourth German edition by Annie Hamilton. Vols. I. and II. London: Geo. Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

THE appearance of an English translation of Gregorovius's 'Geschichte der Stadt Rom im Mittelalter' is a noteworthy incident in the rapid growth of interest in mediæval matters at the present time. To launch an eight-volume history upon a world which is said to be given over to the reading of newspapers shows either extraordinary courage or extraordinary cleverness on the part of translator and publisher. To scholars, the great work of Gregorovius has long been known as combining in a rare degree the merits of wide scholarship, clear historical insight, and attractive presentation. Partly, perhaps, because its author, unlike most German historians, was not a university man, his work has been singularly free from the pedagogical quality. He was one of the few Germans of recent years who put into their narration something of the grand style against which their contemporaries were protesting by word and by example. Yet his style could not be described as inflated or unduly elegant. He was a specialist, indeed, but one who knew how to bring his specialty into its true relations with the larger life of which it formed a part.

His choice of a subject for his life-work indicates of itself the nature of his mind and of his method. His special topic is the city of Rome. There had been already histories of later imperial Rome, histories of the Roman papacy, and histories of mediæval Italy; but Gregorovius, himself a foreigner, undertook to tell the fortunes of the Eternal City itself as it passed through the infinitely varied phases of its political and social life. To do this he had to know the history of imperial Rome, of the papacy, and of Italy, but it was his aim to subordinate all these to the record of what was going on in Rome as a community for itself. The problem was not an easy one, for Rome the city has had continually to suffer eclipse under the larger attractiveness of Rome the empire, Rome the papal seat, and Rome the Italian state. To resist the temptation to wander off into all these congenial fields required extraordinary scholarly character, and a sense of proportion quite unusual among "scientific" historians. That Gregorovius on the whole successfully resisted this temptation will perhaps prove to be his chief title to fame. One strong hold upon the main clue of his narrative was given him by his great interest in questions of topography and in all matters relating to the outward forms of civic life. He introduces each of the greater epochs into which his narrative is divided by a careful study of the extent of the city as shown by contemporary records, and gives also as complete an account of the principal buildings, monuments, and other works of art as can be gained from writers of the time. By putting together these introductory chapters one would have a continuous description of Roman topography from the fifth to the sixteenth century.

Again, it is a special feature of Gregorovius's work that he tries to reconstruct for us the forms of the Roman municipal administration and to set this in its right relation to the superimposed authority, now of the Roman empire, now of the papacy, and again from time to time of the German kings. This problem is indeed a desperate one, and it is not the least of the author's merits that when his clue is lost, he does not hesitate to say so. For long periods—during, for example, the tenth and eleventh centuries—the precise nature of the government in Rome is only to be guessed at. Names of officials appear in plenty, but these are generally little more than reminiscences of a mighty past. "Senator," "consul," "prefect," "patricius" are all familiar words, but the things they stand for differ by a whole world of political distinctions from the things they had represented in the days of Cicero. Occasionally such a word as "senatrix" betrays the vastness of the revolution that has taken place. One feels in reading Gregorovius that there are great gaps in our knowledge of these matters, but also that the historian himself is aware of the gaps and is not disposed to fill them by arbitrary combination. Rather one traces under his guidance how political forms, clear at one moment, are obscured in the next only to come out again in some new turn of affairs into renewed though ever varying life.

The two volumes before us deal with a period in some respects the most confused of the whole Roman history—that of the Germanic invasions and the rise of the papal power to the coronation of Charlemagne. In spite of the narrow limits of space, it is doubtful whether any better guide through this tangle has ever been written. The continued emphasis upon Rome as the central point of all this vast activity keeps the balance between the various warring interests, and holds our attention steadily to the meaning of the whole social movement. Gregorovius had this great advantage over Gibbon, that his gaze was forward rather than backward. He does not leave us, as Gibbon does, with a sense of decaying life, but rather of new constructive forces, which are building up by slow and often unseen processes the framework of a new civilization.

It is, therefore, a matter of congratulation that we are to have access to this really great work in our own tongue. The only regrettable thing about the translation is that it could not have been made by some one who was at once a scholar and familiar with the German language. It is the same old story of translation by one who knows German after a fashion, but whose knowledge gives out at just those critical points where the serious reader has a right to expect accuracy. Opening the first volume at random at page 276, we find "thus early," instead of "very early"; "after him," instead of "together with him"; "the Basilicas of Julius, of Calixtus, or Caius," for "the Basilicas of Julius (or Calixtus) and of Caius"; "great" for "greater"; "more numerous still," for "numerous, further"—all these slips occurring in one paragraph, and most of them distinctly changing the sense of the original. On page 281 we find "in each of which [churches] the seven cardinals read mass one day in the week," instead of, as in the original, in "each of which seven cardinals read mass in turn; each one day in the week." The standing crime of all translators, to leave out passages which they do not understand, is committed here, one may say, in moderation; and in general, where the course of the narrative is direct and only familiar matters are treated, the translation is smooth and accurate enough. The translator's lot is not an easy one at best; we may well be grateful that so devoted an admirer of her author has undertaken the present work.

Essays and Lectures relating to the Modern English Stage. By Henry Arthur Jones. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THE collection of essays and lectures concerning the English theatre written during the last twelve years by Henry Arthur Jones and now published under the somewhat misleading title of 'The Renascence of the English Drama,' first demonstrates the danger of prophecy, the author confessing that the earlier papers would never have been written if he could have foreseen what was going to happen, and, secondly, affords incidentally a most naïve revelation of Mr. Jones's estimate of himself as a dramatist, it being quite plain that his rosy ideas about the present and impending development of theatrical literature and art are due to the success of his own plays. Expressed briefly, his contention would read something like this: Ten or fifteen years ago no play treating life sincerely would have been tolerated upon the English stage; my plays treat life sincerely; they prosper, and, therefore, the English drama is in a condition of renascence.

The egotism that pervades the book is amusing and harmless, but it is impossible, in reading Mr. Jones's views of contemporary plays, players, playwrights, and managers, to help wishing that, in writing his own pieces, he had observed a little more faithfully the admirable principles which he preaches. His plays, however, whose merits and defects are alike conspicuous, are not just now the subject of consideration. His remarks on the theatre, its relations to literature, art, education, religion, morals, etc., exhibit, as might be expected, a wide familiarity with his topic, and are for the most part sound enough, if rather trite; but his fluency and enthusiasm betray him occasionally into exaggerations and contradictions. His pretension, for instance, that the dramatist has the right to portray "all aspects of human life, all passions," with "the freedom of phrase, the freedom of treatment, that are allowed to the

Bible and to Shakspere," is certainly open to dispute. If the modern dramatist had the right, he certainly would not have the discretion. The experience of the last few years is a sufficient indication of the use he would be likely to make of any additional license extended to him. In another place Mr. Jones says that the four chief qualities that any work of art, be it a play, poem, or picture, can possess, are beauty, mystery, passion, and imagination —a dictum which apparently delegates truth to the fifth if not a still lower place. He then proceeds to remark that the one virtue of realism is truthfulness, whereas elsewhere he argues, and argues rightly, that realism, as it is commonly understood to-day—the exact representation of some particular fact—is not true at all in the broad sense of the word.

In speaking of the ordinary modern manager, or, as he ought to be called, speculator, Mr. Jones denounces vehemently and justly "the detestable doctrine that a manager is obliged to choke the public with whatever garbage it relishes for the moment"; but in ascribing the evil to the spirit of "managerial shopkeeping" he fails to go to the root of the trouble, which is the utter ignorance and vulgarity of the vast majority of the men in present control of the theatrical business. There is not one in twenty, perhaps not one in fifty, of these persons who would be capable of knowing a good play if he should happen to see one. Most of them have not brains enough to recognize the truth of the elementary shopkeeping rule that the tradesman who gives the best service to his customers is the most likely to have a good business. Whatever improvement may be discernible in the literary and dramatic quality of recent theatrical entertainment is due chiefly to less than a dozen men, sufficiently well educated to be able to appreciate the merits of plays submitted to them by hitherto unknown authors, and shrewd enough to realize the fact that the best of everything is none too good for their patrons. At the head of them stands Sir Henry Irving, in whom business ability, artistic instinct, and histrionic power are combined in an extraordinary manner.

Of course managers, even of the best type, are powerless to produce good new plays if no good new plays are written. Mr. Jones complains that in the English theatre there is a certain "law of repression, of restraint, of gentle, but irresistible, suasion towards small, foolish, cockney ideals," and that therefore an author must make it his first business "to remove everything that can possibly offend the most untrained cockney intellect." This is true, doubtless, of the hack-writer who is scribbling solely for a market, the compounder of modern melodramas and farcical comedies, but it certainly is not the case with playwrights whose ambitions aim at something higher and more lasting than mere pecuniary success. It is not in the least degree probable that any great play will ever be written by a man chiefly anxious about the receipts in the box-office and his royalties. It is the man who is indifferent to every consideration save that of good workmanship who is most likely to reap both fame and reward. In this last category, of course, Mr. Jones wishes to be numbered, but, up to date, he has fallen far short of the standard by which he would wish other writers to be judged, and his latest production, "The Triumph of the Philistines," is reported to exhibit more symptoms of decline than of advancement.

His poor opinion of some of his contemporaries is expressed somewhat too openly, but his criticism of the drama of realism and heredity is vigorous and acute, and he is undoubtedly right in his contention that plays written in precise imitation of actual life are the least dramatic and the least illustrative of life as a whole. There was a time when Mr. Harrigan's transcripts of tenement-house scenes were acclaimed as masterpieces, but that delusion, happily, has been dissipated. Mr. Jones professes to believe that religion, politics, science, education, and philosophy are all likely to be dealt with on the English stage during the next generation. It would be interesting to know upon what grounds this faith is founded, unless, indeed, the reference is to contemplated productions of his own. No other prominent dramatist betrays any disposition to treat these subjects. There are signs, however, of a coming reaction from mere frivolity, on the one hand, and feverish and unclean passion on the other, and the improvement in literary style is indisputable.

Mr. Jones is not a good critic, or a safe guide, but he is an entertaining writer and at times a forcible one, when he avoids the excessive use of cumulative adjectives, which is his besetting literary sin.

The Colonization of Indo-China. Translated from the French of J. Chailly Bert, by Arthur Baring Brabant. London: Constable. 1894.

THE chief fault that we find with the above work lies in the title, which is incorrect and misleading for a book that is an account of only Hong Kong and Burma. As we understand it, the French title, 'La Colonisation de l'Indo-Chine,' though not very clear, is meant to imply that this study of the experience and ways of the British in similar possessions will be useful to Frenchmen in teaching them what to do with their own acquisition, Indo-China. In the translation meant for English readers, the idea is necessarily lost. Then, too, colonization to the Anglo-Saxon mind implies the sending out of settlers as to Australia or Canada, and not merely an establishment of officials plus a few planters and merchants. The French term *colonisation* here can mean only government and settlement like that of India. While we are speaking of the translation, we may say that in the main it is smooth, readable, and fairly idiomatic. In the last sentence of page 322, however, by rendering *que* "that" instead of "whether," the translator has given us the opposite of the meaning of the text.

M. Chailly Bert's volume presents us with an excellent study of Hong Kong and Burma, including a sketch of their history and development, the difficulties the English had to encounter, the means by which they overcame those difficulties, the manner in which the Government is carried on, as well as of the economic and other conditions of these two portions of the empire. His tone is appreciative and generally laudatory, though he has no hesitation in making criticisms when they seem called for. Throughout he makes us feel his competence. There is something French in his tendency to lay down rules and to generalize. We give two examples:

"When we consider what are the elements indispensable to the prosperity of colonies, we shall find that they are three in number, namely: good colonists, good laws, and good administrators. A good colonist is a married or marriageable man, who is robust and healthy, full of energy and enterprise, gifted with patience, and possessed of some capital. Good laws are laws which are unpretentious, liberal in their spirit, pliant in their wording, not overloaded with regulations, which do not try to provide for every emergency, and which tend neither to hamper the action of the colonists nor to restrict the responsibility of their rulers. Lastly, good administrators are such as have broad-minded ideas and aim high; are gifted with a comprehensive intelligence and right judgment; are jealous of nothing but the welfare of both settlers and the colony, and interpret the laws (also, if need be, amplifying them) in such a manner as to render them a power and not a constraint to the community" (p. xvi).

"Founding a colony is like building a house. From the very first, great activity prevails. Capital is accumulated; workmen and materials arrive in constant succession; the owners appear in rotation to inspect, supervise, and hurry on the workmen. The building emerges from the ground, the stories rise one above the other; ere long the flag flies from the housetop. And now the building only awaits tenants. If tenants are not forthcoming, the public which had admired the work from the first and envied its promoters, at once turns round and, instead of anticipating its success, now prophesies its failure. Henceforth every room, even to the topmost garret, must be let before the public can be brought back to its former opinion, and even then the public will always view it with a certain amount of distrust" (p. 52).

We close with a quotation from "a high official in the India Office"; it is worth meditating on in more countries than one: "I attribute the success which I claim for the Indian civil service in modern times chiefly to the fact that it is the best-paid service in the world."

The Life of Marguerite d'Angoulême, Queen of Navarre, etc., sister of Francis I., etc., and author of the Heptameron, etc. By Martha Walker Freer. 2 vols. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co. 1895.

THIS was an estimable book when it was first published, forty-one years ago, but it is not an estimable act on the part of its present publishers to reprint it now with no indication within the four covers that it is an old book. And an old book on this subject is, *ipso facto*, comparatively worthless. The interesting personality of Marguerite has been studied and restudied by writers of the last generation in France with zealous skill and patience, and the editors of her works, Felix Frank, Leroux de Lincy, Paul Lacroix, M. de la Ferrière, in their introductions and comments have accumulated a mass of information which in turn has been critically examined and discussed by MM. Louis de Loménie, Ch. d'Héricault, Anatole France, Littré, Paulin Paris, A. de Ruble, and A. de Montaiglon. Latest of all, Mme. d'Haussonville has published a Life of Marguerite. In Germany Herr Lotheisen has written a volume about her, and in America a short Life of her by Miss A. M. F. Robinson is in the "Famous Women" series.

It is, therefore, somewhat misleading to be told in this undated preface that "a Life of Marguerite . . . is now for the first time offered to the public." It is still true that no other Life of as large dimensions exists; but also no other Life contains as many mistakes—not careless mistakes of fact, but careful mistakes of opinion. They are mistakes to be forgiven a student of the subject in 1854, but which should not be promulgated now. This is especially the case regarding Miss Freer's views of Margaret's relation to the Reformation. It is known to every one now that it is a mistake to think of Margaret as "one of the earliest converts of the Reformed Church," and as suffering persecution for her beliefs. But there were qualities of Margaret's character and conditions of her

times which made possible this erroneous conception of her position. She was by nature distinctively a helper of her fellow-beings. Her singular self-effacement made her a woman at the door of whose heart no one ever knocked in vain. She was an ardent *giver*. From her gay youth to her saddened age, to all comers she gave, with an indescribable readiness and liberality, her affections, her sympathies, her strenuous efforts, her tender consolations. She had something of George Sand's large heartedness, and much, too, that resembled George Sand's chameleon-like tendency to reflect unconsciously the opinions of her friends. In reading Margaret's letters one no more needs to look at the address than at the signature. Every line reveals to whom she is writing, not merely by the subjects touched upon, but because the subjects are always seen from the point of view of the person Margaret is thinking of and feeling for—with whom, strictly, she is in "correspondence."

As illustrating various forms of her benevolence and beneficence there may be brought together some sentences from three different letters, not to be found in any one volume, but written within a few weeks of one another. In December, 1526, she returned to France after her visit of four months to the King, her brother, a prisoner in Spain; a visit to which she was impelled by her intense anxieties as a sister, but which was made possible only by her accepting the heavy burden of ambassadorial duties regarding public affairs. She had found Francis dying, in prison; she left him well and almost at liberty through her ministrations. And she writes, as one who has been immersed in state affairs, to her "chancellor," Jean de Brinon: "Je vous puis dire que j'ai eu affaire aux plus grans dissimuleurs et gens où il se trouve aussy peu d'honneur qu'il est possible." The next month she writes to her brother as the nurse of his five little motherless children, and tells him how they have all had the measles, but "now they are all entirely cured and well; and M. le Dauphin [eight years old] does wonders in the way of study, mingling with his schooling a hundred thousand other matters; and there's no more question of temper, but of every virtue. M. d'Orléans [four years old] is nailed to his book, and says that he wants to be wise; but M. d'Angoulesme [seven years old, later Henri II.] knows more than the others, and does such things, more like inspirations than childishnesses, that, monseigneur, you would be astonished at them. Little Margot [three years old, afterwards Duchess of Savoy] resembles me in not choosing to be ill. But every one says she is very charming, and is becoming much more beautiful than ever Mlle. d'Angoulesme was [that is, Marguerite herself]." Closing her letter, she assures the King that "nothing will seem to her trifling, nor difficult, nor scarcely impossible, in which she can in any way be of service to him." A few weeks later she writes to Montmorenci, "grand maître de France," to thank him for the pleasure he has given her about "le pouvre Berquin" (Louis de Berquin, a man of high character and position, who was found guilty of Lutheranism, and three years later than this letter was burned for his opinions). Marguerite speaks of what Montmorenci has done for "poor Berquin, which I feel as much about as if it were done to myself, and so I can say to you that you have drawn *me* out of prison."

State affairs, sick children, heretic prisoners—every moment something in which she is *serviceable*. "Rien n'estimera petit, penible, ny à peine impossible ou pensera vous servir de quelque chose." That was the natural pulsing of her heart. And to whom could she be more serviceable, who more needed kindness, than "the heretics"? It is unquestionable that Marguerite was interested by their tone of thought, equally unquestionable that she never felt herself to be one of them; most unquestionable of all that whatever they suffered it was to her as if she suffered it herself. This generous intensity of sympathy, this devotion not to a cause, but to the representatives of a cause, is so rare a quality that no wonder it has been interpreted to mean that which it did not mean.

To return for a moment to the present publication. As has been said, there is no indication in these volumes that it is not a new work. But in a prospectus previously issued the publishers announced, while giving no single date, that this reprint was from the second edition of the book, that edition being chosen by them because it contained "many important additions and corrections by the author." The present reviewer has a copy of the first edition (Hurst & Blackett, 1854). On comparing, paragraph by paragraph, eighty pages of different parts of it with the reprint, there has been found *no* "correction," save of "providentially" for "mercifully" (ii. 13), and *no* "addition." On the contrary, there are constant *omissions*, and often of important passages, varying from a few lines to several pages in length; and these passages are simply *dropped out*, no accommodation of the text being made, so that strange incoherencies are caused, producing misstatements which it would have been impossible for the author herself to make. The amount of the omissions can be calculated by the number of pages of the two editions, which include twenty-five pages of valuable appendices. Estimating accurately that ten pages of the reprint count for eleven pages of the original, it is clear that about one-third of the whole work is lacking.

The index, on the value of which the prospectus lays stress, has been made by an incompetent hand, and scarcely balances the omission of the half-page or more of headings to each chapter. (It may be said, by the way, that the omission of those, some twenty pages in all, was carefully *not* counted in the estimate just given of the sum of omissions *in the text*.) The absence of any table of contents is regrettable, all the more as it might so easily have been printed from these headings.

Another result of this most careless editing, or rather no editing at all, is an absurd condition of things about the illustrations. The arrangement of the three illustrations has been changed, while no corresponding change has been made in the text describing them; as there is no list of illustrations, it is perhaps not immediately perceived that the portrait which on page 356 of the second volume is said to be in the middle of the first volume, is really the frontispiece of the second, while the picture spoken of on page 357 as the frontispiece of that second volume, is really in the middle of the first volume. The positions of these two engravings have been just exchanged.

Herbart and the Herbartians. By Charles De Garmo. Scribners. 1895.

THIS volume is entirely occupied with the relations of Herbart and his followers to teaching, and furnishes a good deal of welcome information about Ziller, Stoy, Rein, Karl Lange, Frick, and others, their work and their doctrines. The philosophical part is excessively general and sketchy, and though a hundred pages are given to Herbart, there is no exposition of his system, nor anything on which any beginning of an opinion of the merits of his theories could be built. The Herbartians in this country have founded a club, which seems to be designed for a propaganda, not to say a party. There are those who think this one of the many indications of over-positiveness in the Herbartians. Herbart himself was very absolute in his opinions; but there was this half-excuse for him, that he conceived them to be rigorously demonstrated. The best of his followers, being quite alive to the strides that have been made in logic since Herbart's time, no longer insist upon the metaphysical proofs he offered, and it would therefore become them to temper the boldness of their master's conclusions.

The *apperception* which Herbartians always have on their tongues is nothing in the world but another development of the idea familiar to us of English culture under the name of the association of ideas; and many of the Herbartian applications of apperception to teaching might have been borrowed from Hartley. Hartley's 'Observations on Man' was published in 1749, while Herbart's writings were all in our century. It would have been a shame if the later development of the idea had shown no improvement on the earlier. That the theory of teaching should be based upon the law of association of ideas, in a generalized form, and upon the law of fatigue, is evident, if those are recognized as the sole laws of mental action. (Do not the heavy tomes of some of the modern Herbartians sometimes leave the second law out of sight?) To that extent every student of pedagogy must be a Herbartian. But when they assume that, in order to make "apperception" the sole law of mind, it is necessary to sweep away all entitative faculties, they fail to carry with them those teachers who believe in the guidance of ordinary good sense. One might as well say that the law of mechanics, being the autocrat of the physical universe, requires the denial of all special forces. Human faculties may be supposed to have originated through the action of association, but there is not the slightest necessity of denying that human powers are, in fact, specialized.

Another idea upon which the propaganda of the Herbartians is designed to wage war is the gymnastic conception of education. Dr. De Garmo sneers at "our favorite doctrine of mental discipline." "This conception assumes, first, that the mind can be well trained with a minimum of concrete knowledge; and, second, that the power gained in one department of knowledge may be transferred to any other." This is certainly the favorite doctrine of our teachers; is it not also a good description of the principles upon which modern physical science has been built up? Namely, physicists have made mathematics the basis of their work, which is "training their minds with the minimum of concrete knowledge." They have learned their mathematics by working fictitious examples, because they hold that the power so gained may be transferred to any other problem. In fact, the whole progress of physics is due to applying to one department the training gained in studying another. It will be, we guess, vain to try to persuade our teachers that this principle is not a sound one in the main. There is no part of instruction in which the Herbartians are weaker than exact science. Dr. Frick's course for a gymnasium, taking the boy at ten years of age and dismissing him at nineteen, includes no mathematics whatever, and teaches physics, as well

as the brief account in this volume enables us to judge, in the absurdest manner. The Herbartian books upon geometry betray a total ignorance of the subject, as it appears to a modern mathematician. The truth is, the only way the exact sciences have ever been successfully taught is by the despised method of "mental discipline."

Abandoning, as the Herbartians do, the theory of mental discipline, it is no wonder they have been greatly puzzled how they should unify instruction. For what they call the "core" of instruction for children, Ziller and others have adopted fairy tales, a cruelly mutilated Robinson Crusoe, and so forth. This seems a poor substitute for our "Rollo books" and their like, which are based on the principle of training the powers.

The Herbartians carry to great lengths the embryological theory of learning, according to which the individual student of a science must reproduce in his own course of thinking all the mental operations which in history have brought that science to its present state. This is more true of some subjects than of others. When Dr. De Garmo tells us that "if a man would advance in art, he must master its past to start with," and mentions improvements in the dynamo as an instance of what he means, he has experience all against him. American inventors should, in that case, be singularly unsuccessful, for their method is to make themselves thoroughly acquainted with the present state of the art, so as to know exactly where the shoe pinches, and to collect from various quarters (generally by applying training gained in one department to another) suggestions which may be applicable to improvements. As in other cases, the Herbartian notion has much merit, but it is pushed too far, regardless of the protests of good sense and of experience.

Essays and Addresses, Religious, Literary, and Social. By Phillips Brooks. Edited by the Rev. John Cotton Brooks. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1894.

After Dinner and Other Speeches. By John D. Long. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Company. 1895.

Commemorative Addresses. By Parke Godwin. Harper & Brothers. 1895.

Orations and Arguments by English and American Statesmen. Edited by Cornelius Beach Bradley. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 1895.

Of the first of these books it would suffice, upon many accounts, to say the least. Mr. Brooks is still a living power, and these addresses contain nothing, in quality, that is new to those who were familiar with his utterances. They breathe throughout the same robust, kindly, and earnest spirit, and this keeps them at the same uniform level of excellence. There is a sentence at the very beginning of the first of these addresses that is so characteristic of the manner in which Mr. Brooks developed a theme as to deserve to be quoted. It reads:

"How when we once get within the sphere of a great truth we find all mental life seeking its centre in it—thought and fancy, energy and faith, hope, fear, and speculation, all hurrying to the forum where their business is to be done and their fate decided. It is just as, when we come near a great city, we see life becoming more and more centralized every mile; the scattered interests and pleasures and pursuits of village life begin to look city-ward; the great roads begin to run in long straight lines on to the distant centre; the little lanes creep on between their hedges striving the same way; houses begin to take the city look; men are working for city needs with an eye to the demands of city taste or necessity, and each new-comer falls into the great stream and is carried on to the market-place with the rest."

Hardly any passage, we think, could better explain and illustrate to those denied the privilege of hearing and seeing this great preacher the synthetic, unifying power of his mind. When he took up a subject, all his "thought and fancy, energy and faith, hope and fear," seemed literally to be hurrying to the forum. Nothing can supply or suggest the kindling fire of his face or the swelling rush of his voice, but the words which we have selected come as near, perhaps, as any words could to indicate his manner and spirit when speaking.

Ex-Gov. Long's speeches have a different value. They are of a decorous and respectable character, possessing no distinguishable literary quality for the most part, and suggesting no marked individuality in the author. Yet, as he modestly says, they may have value as a partial reflection of the public sentiment, and of the topics and occasions, of a generation in Massachusetts which is now more past than present. The occasions vary from Forefathers' Day at Plymouth to the meeting of the National Association of Druggists, the heroes from Daniel Webster to Gen. Logan. The speeches in many instances have a local interest from their dedicatory character; and all of them have the merit appreciated by the old Scotch woman who thanked the Lord for the Psalms because they were short.

Much more ambitious are Mr. Parke Godwin's addresses. They commemorate G. W. Curtis, Kossuth, Edwin Booth, Audubon, and Bryant. With all of these men Mr. Godwin had the advantage of an intimate and, with most of them, a prolonged acquaintance. On this account these addresses have a certain historical value, sufficient at least to justify their preservation. They are, however, a good deal overwrought, and contain much fustian. But it is given to few to compose commemorative orations without yielding to the temptation to introduce a little fine writing, and Mr. Godwin's "purple patches" may be passed over by the judicious reader in view of the substantial merits of his matter. We incline to give the preference to the accounts of Curtis and Audubon, which are set in a somewhat lower key than the others.

Mr. Bradley's compilation hardly falls into the same category as the others on our list, but it is undeniable that its contents are of a superior order, consisting of some of the most notable speeches of such men as Burke, Chatham, Macaulay, Webster, Calhoun, and Seward. The speeches are intended for systematic study, and a number of notes explain phrases and allusions the meaning of which may not be clear to the ordinary reader, and concerning which elucidation may be convenient even for the scholarly.

Life in Ancient Egypt. Described by Adolf Erman. Translated by H. M. Tirard. Macmillan. 1894. 8vo. Pp. xii, 570. $6.00.

Although this volume is a translation, it is worthy of more than a passing notice. It originally appeared in German some seven or eight years ago, and is now published in English in a form closely corresponding to the original. The author, doubtless, might have added some details to his description, since recent discoveries have increased our fund of knowledge, but these additions would have supplemented the sketch by only a few lines without changing it in its essential features. The work of the translator has been well done, and the criticisms that one might pass upon it would affect only some minor details. Occasionally a genial or characteristic phrase of the author has been obscured, but the translation reads well and gives a clear notion of what was intended. The function of the publisher and printer has been discharged with credit. The type is clear, the paper is good, and the illustrations, reproduced from the original apparently without addition or subtraction, are sufficient for their purpose and admirably selected.

The book was prepared to fill a gap in the German literature of the subject, but it serves the same purpose in English as well. The work of Wilkinson is antiquated, and a large part of its value to-day lies in its pictures and its notes, the latter being the work of subsequent editors. There is an abundance of material in the works of Maspero, Edwards, Budge, and others, but it is scattered and hard to come by. Here the field has been covered by a competent hand, and the whole has been cast in a shape dictated by eminent knowledge of the subject from the vantage-ground of what the inscriptions tell as well as what the pictures show. Furthermore, the author treats his subject in an historical manner, tracing the changes which occurred in the course of the history. Perhaps the most striking instance of the variations wrought by time is to be seen in the matter of clothing and hair-dressing, but the changes here are merely symptomatic of a wide divergence in all departments between the early and later times. It is passing strange that such a man as Renouf should declare that even the Egyptian religion was stagnant and not subject to evolution and change. Such is nowhere else the case, and it is not the case even in conservative Egypt. Of course, changes were not as rapid in the period under review as now, but nevertheless change there was, and Prof. Erman brings out the fact in indisputable fashion.

The period of which Erman treats is that which began when the earliest monuments were erected, and ended with the time of the greatest extension of the kingdom under the nineteenth dynasty. It thus constitutes the more properly and purely Egyptian period. The matters passed under review relate to the private and public life of Egyptians of various grades, their arts, occupations, recreations, science, trade, war, and a variety of topics too numerous for mention. The material used in the delineation is drawn from native sources in monument, picture, and papyrus, and the whole range of sources has been laid under contribution by one eminently competent for his task by reason of knowledge and sympathy.

In closing, a word may be said regarding the author. He is the successor of Lepsius as "professor ordinarius" in the philosophical faculty of the University of Berlin and as head curator of the department of Oriental antiquities in the Royal Museum. Having given us the only two scientific grammars of the Egyptian language in its main periods which we possess, he has earned the distinction accorded to him by Maspero of being founder and head of the German "grammatical school of Egyptology." He is a man of enthusiasm and of keen insight, a minute scholar and a critic well qualified in all respects of knowledge and judgment. His pupils are enthusiastic admirers, and his work is of a solid and enduring sort.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

After To-morrow. Merriam Co. 40 cents.
Altieri, Princess Olga Cantacuzène. My Indian Summer. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Anderson, William. Japanese Wood Engravings. [The *Portfolio*, May, 1895.] Macmillan.
Bailey, L. H. The Horticulturist's Rule-Book. 3d ed. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Berkeley, Charles de. Instinct du Cœur. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Bierstadt, O. A. The Library of Robert Hoe: A Contribution to the History of Bibliophilism in America. Duprat & Co.
Blatchford, Robert. Merrie England: A Plain Exposition of Socialism. Commonwealth Co. 10 cents.
Block, L. J. The New World, with Other Verse. Putnams. $1.50.
Chapman, F. M. Handbook of Birds of Eastern North America. Appletons.
Dudley, Bicknell. A Gentleman from Gascony. Street & Smith. 50 cents.
Every Day's News. [Incognito Library.] Putnams. 50 cents.
Farmer, Lydia H. Aunt Belindy's Points of View. Merriam Co. 75 cents.
Fenn, G. M. Witness to the Deed. Cassell. 50 cents.
Ferry, Jules. Discours et Opinions. Tome III. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Fitzgerald, Joseph. Pitfalls in English. J. Fitzgerald & Co. 25 cents.
Goodwin, Maud W. The Head of a Hundred. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.25.
Hassall, Arthur. Louis XIV. and the Zenith of the French Monarchy. Putnams. $1.50.
Hornung, E. W. Tiny Luttrell. Cassell. 50 cents.
Kerner, Anton. The Natural History of Plants. Vol. I. Parts I. and II. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $7.50.
Kittel, Prof. R. A History of the Hebrews. Vol. I. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: Putnams. $4.20.
Knowles, A. C. On Wings of Fancy. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. $1.
Laveleye, Emile de. Essais et Etudes. Deuxieme série. Paris: Alcan.
Lee, J. P. Golf in America. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Mackenzie, Prof. J. S. An Introduction to Social Philosophy. 2d ed. Macmillan. $1.75.
Massey, Susanna. God's Parable, and Other Poems. Putnams.
May, Sophie. Jimmy Boy. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75 cents.
McFall, Capt. Crawford. With the Zhob Field Force. 1890. Macmillan. $4.50.
Memoirs of Barras, Member of the Directorate. Vols. I. and II. Harpers. $7.50.
Putnam, Ruth. William the Silent, Prince of Orange. 2 vols. Putnams. $3.75.
Remy, Nahida. The Jewish Woman. Cincinnati: C. J. Krehbiel & Co.
Riddle, A. G. Recollections of War Times. Putnams. $2.50.
Royal English Dictionary and Cyclopedia of Common Things. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.50.
Royal Handbook of Common Things and Useful Information. T. Nelson & Sons. 50 cents.
Souvenirs de Tante Claire. Geneva: Georg & Co.
Sterling, Amelia H. Torch-Bearers of History. Vol. II. T. Nelson & Sons. 80 cents.
Strange, E. F. Alphabets: A Handbook of Lettering. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.75.
Verlaine, Paul. Poems. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.50.
Voyages and Travels of Capt. Basil Hall, R. N. T. Nelson & Sons. $2.
Voynich, E. L. The Humor of Russia. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Walker, David H. Pioneers of Prosperity. San Francisco: The Author.
Watts, H. E. Don Quixote. Vol. III. London; A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Watson, H. B. M. At the First Corner, and Other Stories. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Willcox, Prof. M. A. Pocket Guide to the Common Land Birds of New England. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 60 cents.
Williams, J. L. Princeton Stories. Scribners. $1.
Winslow, Mrs. Erving. Readings from the Old English Dramatists. 2 vols. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $3.50.
Winter, William. Shakspere's England. New ed. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Wolseley, Viscount Field-Marshal. The Decline and Fall of Napoleon. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.

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[Continued from page iii.]

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 6, 1895.

The Week.

THE Republicans of Ohio met in State convention on Wednesday week, and adopted a platform on the money question which, while it might have been better, must be considered safe. It reads as follows:

"We favor bimetallism, and demand the use of both gold and silver as standard money, either in accordance with a ratio to be fixed by an international agreement, if that can be obtained, or under such restrictions and such provisions to be determined by legislation as will secure the maintenance of the parity of values of the two metals; that the purchasing and debt-paying power of the dollar, whether of silver, gold, or paper, shall be at all times equal."

It is easy to call this a straddle, but when we consider the present pretensions of the silverites and their ultimatum, which is "free coinage or nothing"—meaning free coinage at 16 to 1 by the independent action of the United States—the Ohio resolution distinctly negatives that proposition. Nobody is in favor of a return to the old policy of buying silver bullion and coining dollars on Government account. Even the Populists have abandoned that. Therefore the proposition of the Ohio platform to maintain parity under all circumstances is what the existing law promises, and what everybody except the 16-to-1 silverites is in favor of. Senator Sherman's speech at this convention was, in its practical aspects, a sound deliverance. It contained just enough unsoundness to make it palatable to those who do not understand the subject very well, but not enough to offend the elect or to disturb business. The nomination of McKinley for the Presidency next year has the ring of base metal, since it does not mention the McKinley tariff among his claims to distinction. Indeed, the only mention of the tariff in an unusually long platform is embraced in a few lines of general endorsement of the principle of protection, and a condemnation of the free-wool provision of the present tariff.

Gov. McKinley thinks it indelicate for him to say anything about the Ohio platform, inasmuch as it contains an endorsement of his willing self for the Presidency. He need have no scruples on that account. Of all left-handed compliments, this of declaring that a man is Ohio's favorite son, and then turning round and demonstrating that he has no influence in a State convention of his own party, is a little the worst. Foraker ran things with a high hand, and ruthlessly "turned down" every one of McKinley's candidates for a place on the State ticket. Then, with a wink as it were, he passed over the desired endorsement to the Governor upon whom he had just trampled. He is quite capable, a year from now, of repeating the endorsement and then choosing delegates to the national convention who will not vote for McKinley even on the first ballot. Meanwhile, there is the long and unbroken tradition staring the Ohio Republicans in the face, that they always lose the State in the year when a colleague for Senator Sherman is to be elected by the Legislature.

Visiting statesmen with Presidential aspirations who have been in town for the past few days, are leaving us one by one, somewhat overcome by the heat. So far as known, no one of them has betrayed his convictions on the silver question, or has failed to treat Tom Platt with the high respect due to his position as boss of New York. We have not been able to discover which of the candidates has profited most by his visit. It is said of Gen. Harrison that he has borne the heat better than the others, but there has been nothing to show that his presence here has aroused any fervor in Republican breasts. So far as enthusiasm for him as the candidate for 1896 is concerned, there are no signs of its existence in these parts at present. The same thing may be said of Napoleon McKinley. He came and went without visible commotion among the people. It is possible that both Harrison and McKinley would have received more encouragement for their booms if they had not so studiously concealed their convictions on the only great and pressing issue of the day, but nobody who has followed their careers can expect them to realize such a possibility. Both men have dodged and trimmed on the silver question so persistently that their personal followers do not know where they stand, and they will continue to dodge and trim to the last, entirely unconscious of the fact that the intelligence and property of the whole country are now eagerly looking for a candidate who has convictions on the subject and is not afraid to avow them.

"Tom Reed of Maine" has not lately been getting himself so unconsciously and innocently before the public gaze as have some of his rivals for the Republican nomination for the Presidency, but a biographical sketch of him in the last number of *Home and Country* has an ominous campaign look. From it we learn that Mr. Reed is now the most interesting figure in public life. This is said without intending disparagement of Harrison, McKinley, or Allison, who "are all in their way remarkable men," but the writer, as a friend of truth, cannot refrain from pointing out that "none of them possess the interest which Mr. Reed commands." This appears to lie partly in his height and "generous figure," partly in the shape of his head. The similarity of that dome of thought to Shakspere's has, as the friendly biographer observes, been often noted, but he asserts that he is the first to point out its "still more striking resemblance to Li Hung Chang." This seems to make it hopeless for any of Mr. Reed's rivals to angle for either the literary vote or the Chinese vote. But his main title to admiration is his resolute and independent character. "He never falters before new conditions or trifles with responsibility." We infer, therefore, that it must have been some other Reed whom the Populists chased into the cloakrooms in the last Congress when they tried to find out what he really thought about silver, and whom his honest-money friends in the East have in vain besought to pull his Sino-Shaksperian head out of the sand.

The return of Mr. William C. Whitney from Europe was announced in the morning papers, together with his views on the subject of bimetallism. Mr. Whitney is in favor of it, *i. e.*, the international kind. Most people who have taken only a superficial view of the subject are. Mr. Arthur James Balfour, whom Mr. Whitney quotes, is in this callow stage. When he and Mr. Whitney think a little harder, they will either be opposed to bimetallism in any shape, or in favor of it by separate action of each country. Don Cameron, who is perhaps the hardest thinker in this country, with one or two exceptions, has reached the last-mentioned stage, and that is the reason why the sound-money men of Philadelphia have formed an organization to elevate him out of the Senate. Such profundity as Cameron's ought not to be restricted to that narrow field. He ought to be on the lecture platform or in training for the Presidency. Mr. Whitney thinks that England is ripening for bimetallism. It was seventeen years ago that she sent delegates to the conference of 1878, and we were told then that she had begun to turn. She has been ripening ever since, with such steadiness that Sir William Harcourt said the other day that if a new conference should be held, the Government would not allow the gold standard for England even to be drawn into dispute; while the Liberal Unionists, of whom Mr. Chamberlain is the leader, said that they would under no circumstances remain in alliance with Mr. Balfour if bimetallism were a part of the Conservative programme. Mr. Whitney is still a young man, but he will not live long enough to see that peach fall.

The publication of Mr. Whitney's views on the subject of bimetallism has had an awakening effect on David B. Hill. "Free bimetallic coinage" has been among his patent rights for a long

time, although he would not tell what that meant, and nobody else could. It might mean international agreement or separate action. Mr. Whitney's move for international agreement has torn Mr. Hill's secret from him. He says he means the same thing. But he means more. Whitney did not tell what ratio he favored. Hill does. He goes for 15½ to 1. Presumably Whitney is for 16 to 1, that being the ticket of 'Coin's Financial School.' But Hill knows that the noble army of debtors will be in favor of 15½ as soon as they find out what it means. The reason why Hill favors 15½ is that he does not approve of two ratios at the same time—a ratio of 16 for the silver dollar and a lower ratio for the halves, quarters, and dimes. He would have it all one thing or all the other. This conception furnishes a new bone for Democratic conventions to puzzle and wrangle over. We shall not undertake to say what they will make of it or do with it. Having done so much for the debtor class, Mr. Hill does not forget that there is another side. "I would exterminate for ever," he says, "the greenback dollars which, by the endless redemption chain, make the chiefest of our existing currency woes." This is a check to Whitney that may prove to be a checkmate unless he bestirs himself.

Signs multiply that the free-coinage craze is dying out in each party. The action of the Republican League of Colorado in voting down a resolution declaring that the members would not vote in 1896 with any party which did not unequivocally declare for unlimited coinage at 16 to 1, is followed by equally significant developments among the Democrats. The Kansas Democratic State central committee, which had been convened with the expectation that it would issue a free-coinage address, rejected the scheme when the resolution was brought to a vote; and the Texas Democratic executive committee, which was counted upon to follow the example of the Illinois brethren in precipitating a free-coinage deliverance a year before the Presidential campaign, instead adopted resolutions to "defer expressions on the financial question to primaries to be held prior to the State convention of 1896"—unless the people "clamor" for an earlier expression of opinion. Evidently the politicians in both parties are fast learning that they have grossly exaggerated the extent of the "clamor" for free coinage among the people.

The Artful Dodger who produced 'Coin's Financial School' has an article entitled the "Free Silver Argument" in the June *Forum*, the object of which is to show that Congress in 1792, although it established bimetallism, made silver the unit of value. In other words, it said that two separate and distinct things should be equally valid as money or legal-tender, but that only one of them should be such. This is worthy of the Artful, and the way he proves it is characteristic. He goes back to the Congress of the Confederation, which confessedly did make the silver dollar the unit of value, and brings out a lot of papers connected with that event, mentioning a paper of Thomas Jefferson's, a report of the Grand committee on the money unit, and a paper submitted by the Board of Treasury to Congress in 1786, and the resolutions on coinage of August 8, 1786. All these things are anterior to the adoption of the Constitution and have nothing to do with the matter in dispute. Everybody knows that the Spanish silver dollar was the unit of value prior to the law of 1792, and everybody except Harvey knows that the law of 1792 introduced a change, to wit, bimetallism. Harvey thinks, or pretends to think, that that law established both bimetallism and monometallism (for unit of value means monometallism; it has no other meaning, and never did have and never can have).

Harvey winds up with some improving comments on his own patriotism. "I would a thousand times rather do benefit to one section of my country and its people," he says, "than to be subservient to the interests of England, *whose gold is so dear*, and to get which we are giving up our property at a sacrifice and adopting a method which will bring national bankruptcy." This is the Artful all over. Observe how slyly it is hinted that gold is peculiarly an English commodity, the fact being that England does not produce a dollar of it, while we produce more than $35,000,000 per year. "The question now to be settled," he continues, "is whether we are to have an English gold policy or an American policy." He did not say an American silver policy, but that is what he meant. "An English gold policy"! What does that signify? Why not say a French gold policy, a Turkish, Portuguese, Austrian, Scandinavian, San Domingan gold policy? Chili has just adopted the gold standard. It went into effect June 1, 1895. Why not ask whether the universal Yankee nation is to have a Chilian gold policy? The only reason why the question is not put in this way is that we have hereditary prejudices against England growing out of two wars, whereas we have none against Chili, or none worth mentioning. Yet it would be much more appropriate to refer to a Chilian gold policy than an English one, because Chili is an American republic which has "gone back" on silver, although it is one of her own products. "As foreseen by Jefferson," continues Harvey, "gold, the rich man's money, is now 'cornered,' and we must go to the gold gamblers of Europe to get it." Why so, when we are producing $35,000,000 per year of it? Finally, Harvey advises his readers to send to Washington and get several ponderous documents that are out of print, among them the report of the Monetary Commission of 1876.

Secretary Gresham might have had a few rags of reputation left him had it not been for the action of the diplomatic corps at Washington in praising his "lofty and unswerving spirit of honor, justice, and conciliation." This was fatal, and we were not surprised to find the *Tribune* arguing with great power and perspicacity that Gresham's successor must not be a man of whom such damning things could be said by foreigners—that he must be "not a tool of British diplomatists, not an instrument of Russian or German or French Governments, but an American." Did anybody ever hear of foreign diplomats paying a tribute to Blaine's honor and justice? We guess not. It is only a Secretary whom they can outwit and hoodwink and use for their own base ends that they go out of their way to praise. Minister Romero had the indecency to choose the very day of Gresham's burial to speak of "his high sense of right, his love of justice, his respect for the rights of others, his courtesy towards all." Not a word here about Americanism, not a word about our country right or wrong, no devotion to the flag, no manifest destiny, no Monroe doctrine—nothing but right and honor and justice, and qualities which, as Señor Romero maliciously says, "confer honor upon humanity in general." Heaven forbid that we ever have another Secretary of State who will have anything to do with humanity in general!

At the same time with the news of the new rule for the Department of Agriculture comes the gratifying information that the Civil-Service Commission is contemplating regulations for bringing within its jurisdiction the whole force of the Government Printing-Office. The movement with this end in view originated among the employees of the printing-office themselves, and has been favorably received by the Public Printer also. This institution is the largest of its kind in the world. Under the law it is required to do all the printing and binding for the Government, and the departments and bureaus pay for the work out of the appropriations allotted for the purpose. The charges cover the cost, and private individuals may obtain copies of the publications it issues by paying an additional ten per cent. It occupies, therefore, a peculiar position, and may in one sense be called a self-supporting office, although ultimately all the payments, except those from private individuals, which are unimportant, fall upon the Government. The force varies in size, but averages upwards of 3,000 men and women. The actual salaried force is in-

significant, nine-tenths of those employed being paid by the day, or according to the amount of work they do. They comprise foremen, copy editors, revisers, proof-readers, compositors, electrotypers, folders, and all the other classes of workers found in large printing-houses and binderies. At present the Public Printer appoints to these places whomever he chooses and under whatever tests of fitness it pleases him to prescribe. Many of the positions require that men who understand their trade thoroughly should be selected, but there are besides a large number of places for which little or no especial training is necessary, and these have for a long time been used by Senators and members of Congress as lodging-places for the poorer class of place-hunters. The importunity for these petty offices is a source of incessant annoyance. When the office is under civil-service rules, this will entirely disappear, and the public printing will be conducted on a business basis, untrammelled by political considerations.

One of the most commendable vetoes sent to any Legislature by an executive for many years is that which was addressed to the Massachusetts House by Gov. Greenhalge on Monday in the case of the so-called "veterans'-preference bill." The measure virtually abolishes the civil-service system in the case of all men who ever had any connection with the Union army. Under its provisions a veteran needs only to submit his sworn statement that he is qualified to perform the duties of the position which he seeks, accompanied by certificates (unsworn) from three "citizens of good repute in the community" that they know him to be fully competent, and the appointing officer must give him the place, without the slightest evidence of his qualifications. Schemes of this sort have been advocated for years by the spoilsmen and the Grand Army machine, but they have never come near carrying until this year. The great majority which the Republicans secured in the election of last fall, gave both of these elements confidence that they could now afford to disregard the independent-minded members, whose opposition had previously blocked their efforts. The bill was accordingly brought forward, and was pushed through each branch by the most overwhelming majorities. Nobody thought for a moment of such an idea as any opposition from Gov. Greenhalge. He is a Grand Army man, he has always been a regular Republican who has not hesitated to sneer at Mugwumps, and, without having ever taken any position against civil-service reform, has not been accounted especially friendly to it. The Governor's recent vetoes of bills passed by his party putting the police of Holyoke and Woburn under State control were the first indications of an unexpected independence, but even these did not lead to any expectation that he would "go back on his comrades" by opposing the veterans' bill. The message was consequently a great surprise, and the answer to it from the legislative mob of the Governor's own partisans was the immediate passage of the bill over his veto by 172 to 23.

The bill, now awaiting Gov. Morton's action, which makes "scientific temperance education" compulsory in the public schools, seems to be generally opposed by teachers and educational associations, but to be strongly desired by the Women's Christian Temperance Union and various church organizations. As such laws have worked in other States, New Jersey for example, they are fine examples of good intentions leading to perverse methods and bad results. Text-book publishers understand that the crasser and more violent their "scientific temperance" chapters can be made, the better chance will their wares have of securing the approval of the Women's Christian Temperance Union, which gives its "imprimatur" very much in the fashion of a Catholic prelate; and they proceed accordingly. The result is to degrade the character of the books and make their publishing and supply a species of monopoly. It would be just as reasonable to pass a law that no history should be used in the schools which did not devote twenty pages to denouncing the papacy, or defending the right of secession, or what not. Such laws are bad both for the book-makers, the schools, and for temperance; and this is the opinion of the official heads of the Board of Regents, and of several bishops and clergymen, who were quoted on Sunday by the Superintendent of Public Instruction. Bishop Huntington's opposition to the bill is all the more notable in that he confesses having signed a petition in favor of its enactment, but now concludes that "the arguments and facts against it appear to be abundant and conclusive." Dr. W. R. Huntington of this city writes with special competency, as he has been a member of a committee created for the specific purpose of studying, "from a scientific and impartial standpoint," the whole question of alcoholic stimulants, particularly its "educational phase." He protests with sufficient plainness against "palming off pseudo-chemistry and inaccurate physiology as necessary truth." Back of all this dispute over text-books and methods lies the fact that legislation of this sort is essentially hypocritical. Legislatures are entirely willing to please good people with a pretence of doing something against the saloons. If the Woman's Christian Temperance Union would but reflect how impossible it would be to get a law from the New York Legislature stringently regulating or repressing the liquor traffic, it would see how such legislation as it is able to secure inevitably has an air of burlesque and false pretence. In New Jersey one may see a licensed saloon planted directly in front of a public school.

We have been favored with a newspaper clipping which shows "a marvellous growth of the American tin-plate manufacture," and the writer who sends it to us says that it is only a short time since we were ridiculing and belittling every attempt to establish that industry in this country. Not exactly. We did object to the attempt to double the tin-plate tax on sixty-five millions of people in order that half-a-dozen persons might carry on the business in this country. The McKinley tariff was enacted in 1890, and in it the tin-plate duty was raised from 1 cent to 2 2-10 cents per pound. Before the industry was established, the Democratic party came into power pledged to put the duty back to the old figure, and this has been done substantially, the new rate being 1 1-10 cent per pound. Now the singular and admirable fact is that neither the advent of the Cleveland Administration nor the reduction of the tariff to the old figure has had any deterring or deleterious effect on the tin-plate industry. On the contrary, it has grown more in the past two years than it did in the previous two years. New industries which support themselves are always welcome to us. Among such industries we may mention the manufacture of quinine, which is now larger under the régime of free trade imposed upon it amid groans and shrieks by a Republican Congress twenty years ago, than when it was protected by a duty of forty-five per cent.

English notions of official propriety were recently set forth in Parliament on occasion of questions addressed to the Government regarding the attitude to be observed by certain public officers. One of these questions related to the recent article in the *Fortnightly* by the British Consul at Stockholm, on the controversy between Sweden and Norway. While mainly historical, and undoubtedly aiming to be impartial, the article bore rather heavily on the Norwegian claims. Sir Edward Grey informed the House that the Consul had been rebuked and advised that his action was an indiscretion which must not be repeated. An apology would be made to Norway if one were asked. The day before, the Postmaster-General was interpellated as to the conduct which would be required of postmasters and all post-office employees in a political campaign. He replied by reading the rule adopted by the department to cover such cases, which absolutely forbade the officers mentioned to take any open or active part whatever for or against the candidacy of any man for Parliament. They must not belong to a political club, sign a political address, or make a political subscription. They could vote as they saw fit, but were in duty bound, as public servants liable to serve under either party, to keep their political preferences to themselves.

MORE OF "COIN'S" FACTS.

Among the earliest statements in the now notorious treatise, 'Coin's Financial School,' is the following: "At the Christian era the metallic money in the Roman Empire amounted to $1,800,000,000. By the end of the fifteenth century it had shrunk to $200,000,000." The inferences which "Coin" draws from these two amounts have been generally attacked and roughly handled by various opponents; but as a rule the statements themselves have passed unchallenged. They are taken from a report of the so-called United States Monetary Commission of 1876, which was the proud work of Senator Jones of Nevada. In his seven-day speech of October, 1893, not published, however, till January, 1894, he quoted from that report at length, and the statement as to the "amount of gold in the Roman Empire" stands on page 3674. The "friends of silver" have repeated it again and again in Congress and out of Congress, as if its figures were as certain as the roster of the United States army.

What is Senator Jones's authority for these figures? He quotes in the same speech, and scores of speakers have quoted it before and after him, a passage from the second part of Alison's 'History of Europe,' vol. i., p. 34, which sets forth a general decline in the position of man from the time of the Christian era, owing to the shrinking in the amount of the precious metals. Sir Archibald, in a sentence which Senator Jones did not quote, says: "The treasure which formed the sole circulating medium of the Empire, which in the time of Augustus had been £380,000,000, had sunk, in that of Justinian, to no more than £80,000,000 sterling." These numbers Alison declares are based on authentic materials, set forth in an essay on the "Fall of Rome," to which he refers his readers. But this essay is not easily accessible, and we may question whether even Senator Jones, much less any of his countless copyists, including "Coin," ever saw it. At all events, they have never favored their countrymen with the "authentic materials." One need not waste time in discussing Sir Archibald Alison as an authority in political economy. None of the silverites who have repeated this paragraph on the metals to tediousness, would ever dream of quoting on any other subjects that fine old crusted Tory, who, for all he knew of the science of government and the progress of mankind, might have sat in Lord North's Cabinet. He could describe campaigns vividly, in spite of a bad style, and was a diligent and honest collector of facts when there were any facts to collect, but he could no more draw a sensible philosophical system from them than he could find the North Pole.

In the present case what earthly means had he, or Senator Jones, or "Coin" for determining the amount of gold and silver coin in the time of Augustus or Justinian or Columbus? And one would like, in passing, to ask "Coin" to tell, without looking in an encyclopædia, how far apart he supposes the last two were. What statistics exist of any treasury or mint or private estate in A. D. 1 or A. D. 500 or A. D. 1500? The whole science of political arithmetic is the invention of the last two centuries and a half—its accurate development can barely be traced through half that period. It is almost impossible to make any accurate numerical estimates for those days, even the latest; and for the earliest, absolutely so. We dare not say positively whether the population of Rome under Augustus was considerably smaller than Chicago's, or considerably more than London's, or somewhere between these extremes. No doubt both Augustus and Justinian tried to ascertain the total amount of taxable property in their respective empires; but the way taxes were farmed would make honesty almost impossible; and then, as now, book debts existed up to the millions, making a wide gulf between property and cash. The practice of hoarding was so general that the Roman satirists and the Christian evangelists both speak of it as a commonplace thing, and their treasury accounts and mint accounts are not accessible to us. What statistics exist of the produce of the royal mines in Greece and Spain of which Sir Archibald talks so much as giving out at the Christian era?

Scores of these questions might be asked, and they cannot be answered. If one doubled or halved any of the totals, it would be impossible to prove a blunder. Then what do these gentlemen mean by the "Roman Empire" wherein the money had shrunk? The empire of Augustus and that of Justinian were not the same. What is meant by "the metallic money of the Roman Empire at the end of the fifteenth century"? There was no doubt a territory then called the Holy Roman Empire; but it lay utterly outside that of Justinian, and almost entirely outside that of Augustus. One might as well compare the English monarchy of 1400 when it took in half France, of 1770 when it took in the American colonies, and of 1895, when it takes in India, having successively lost the other two. There are no trustworthy facts on which such estimates can be made; and the countries to which the estimates are applied do not admit of comparison.

And this is the stuff that has been quoted again and again by the "friends of silver" for twenty years! Alison, who has been the laughing-stock of economists for twice that period, is exalted to a profound and keen statistician; the Augustan empire is resuscitated from the dust of Rome, of Byzantium, and of —suppose we say Frankfort—to terrify us with pictures of ruin unknown to Gibbon, to Merivale, or to Mommsen, all derived from a mysterious shrinkage of what are perhaps the least destructible commodities used by man, and all done with a gravity which really makes intelligent men set to work to disprove the arguments erected on this basis, when in point of fact the true answer to the entire assertion is the same that has been applied to so many of "Coin's" other statements: "The boy lied."

THE CASE OF YICK WO.

Now that it is settled that the controversy over the registration laws of South Carolina will be carried up to the Supreme Court for a final decision on Judge Goff's ruling, it is worth while to recall the judgment of that tribunal in the case of Yick Wo vs. Hopkins nine years ago, as showing its view of the scope of federal interference in matters of State and even municipal legislation.

Yick Wo, a native of China, went to California in 1861, and engaged in the laundry business, which he carried on from the first in the same premises, under licenses from the fire and health officials. In 1880 there were about 320 laundries in the city and county of San Francisco, of which about 240 were owned and conducted by subjects of China. Of the whole 320, about 310 (Yick Wo's among them) were constructed of wood, like nine-tenths of the houses in the city. The capital thus invested by Chinamen was not less than $200,000, and they paid annually, for rents, licenses, taxes, gas, and water, about $180,000.

In 1880, ordinances were enacted making it unlawful for any person to establish or carry on a laundry within the corporate limits of the city and county "without having first obtained the consent of the Board of Supervisors, except the same be located in a building constructed either of brick or stone"; and punishing any violator of the ordinance by a fine of not more than $1,000, or by imprisonment for not more than six months, or by both. Yick Wo and 200 countrymen who carried on their business in wooden houses, under licenses from the Fire Wardens and Health Officer, petitioned the Supervisors for permission to continue in the same premises which they had been occupying in some cases for more than twenty years. All such petitions of Chinamen were denied. At the same time all petitions of laundrymen who had wooden buildings but were not Chinese, were granted with a single exception. Scores of Chinese laundrymen were then arrested for carrying on business without the required legal consent, and their business was practically ruined. Yick Wo was tried in a police court, found guilty of violating the ordinance, and sentenced to pay a fine of $10, and in default of payment to be imprisoned at the rate of one day for each dollar of fine until the fine should be satisfied.

The case was carried to the State Su-

preme Court, which sustained the local ordinance. Appeal was taken to the federal Supreme Court, which pronounced judgment on the 10th of May, 1886, the late Justice Matthews delivering the opinion. The court reversed the judgment of the State court, and rested its decision upon that clause of the fourteenth amendment to the federal Constitution which says:

"Nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

This provision was held to apply equally to Yick Wo and other Chinamen in like case, because the treaty between the United States and China guarantees to the latter's subjects in this country the same rights, privileges, immunities, and exemptions as may be enjoyed by the citizens of the most favored nation; and the Revised Statutes provide that all persons within the jurisdiction of the United States shall have the same right in every State and Territory to make and enforce contracts, to sue, be parties, give evidence, and to have the full and equal benefit of all laws and proceedings for the security of person and property, as is enjoyed by white citizens, and be subject to like punishment, pains, penalties, taxes, licenses, and exactions of every kind, and to no other. It was contended by Yick Wo's counsel that the ordinances for the violation of which he was sentenced were void on their face, as being within the prohibition of the fourteenth amendment; and, if not so, that they were void by reason of their administration "operating unequally, so as to punish in the present petitioners what is permitted to others as lawful, without any distinction of circumstances—an unjust and illegal discrimination, it is claimed, which, though not made expressly by the ordinances, is made possible by them." This latter position was sustained by the Supreme Court.

The Supreme Court of California had held that the city had the right to make ordinances to regulate laundries with a view to the protection of the public against such dangers as those of fire, but the federal court found nothing in the ordinances under review which pointed to such a regulation. On the contrary, the Supervisors were granted a purely arbitrary power. Yick Wo had complied with every requisite deemed necessary by law for the protection of neighboring property from fire or as a precaution against injury to the public health. No reason whatever except the will of the Supervisors was assigned why he and his two hundred fellow-countrymen should not be permitted to carry on their business in wooden buildings while eighty others not Chinese subjects were allowed to carry on the same business under similar conditions. The fact of discrimination against the Chinese was admitted, and no reason for it could be imagined except hostility to their race and nationality.

With reference to the principles that govern such cases, the Court said:

"The cases present the ordinances in actual operation, and the facts shown establish an administration directed so exclusively against a particular class of persons as to warrant and require the conclusion that, whatever may have been the intent of the ordinances as adopted, they are applied by the public authorities charged with their administration, and thus representing the State itself, with a mind so unequal and oppressive as to amount to a practical denial by the State of the equal protection of the laws which is secured to the petitioners, as to all other persons, by the broad and benign provisions of the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States. Though the law itself be fair on its face and impartial in appearance, yet, if it is applied and administered by public authority with an evil eye and an unequal hand, so as practically to make unjust and illegal discriminations between persons in similar circumstances, material to their rights, the denial of equal justice is still within the prohibition of the amendment.

"The discrimination is therefore illegal, and the public administration which enforces it is a denial of the equal protection of the laws and a violation of the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution. The imprisonment of the petitioner is therefore illegal, and he must be discharged."

This seems to be a broad assertion by the highest court in the land of the power to investigate the workings of any local law, and to interfere for the protection of a citizen against the unjust administration of any statute. The South Carolina registration law requires any man whose name has never been on the list to make an affidavit setting forth his full name, age, occupation, and residence when the act of 1882 was passed, or at any time thereafter when he became old enough to vote, "and the place or places of his residence since the time when he became entitled to register," and this must be supported by the affidavits of two "reputable" citizens who were each twenty-one years old in 1882, or at the time when the applicant became entitled to register. The registrar is given authority to determine whether the citizens who make the supporting affidavits are "reputable." If it should be established that this discretionary power has been abused, the decision in the case of Yick Wo would indicate that the Supreme Court of the United States might claim the right of the federal authorities to interfere.

"ADVOWSONS."

THERE is probably nothing in England more mysterious to foreigners than advowsons, and not many things which play a more prominent part in English life and have contributed more cases to the English law reports. An advowson is the right to fill a vacancy in the ministry of a parish, or, in technical phrase, the right of "next presentation to a living," and is, under English law, a salable commodity. It probably originated in the fact that the endowments of the English Church are nearly all parochial—that is, each parish minister is maintained by parish tithes or glebe lands given for the purpose in early ages, probably by the owner of the adjoining or contiguous lands, who made it a condition which grew into a custom, and then into legal right, that if he provided for the clergyman's maintenance, he should have the right to say who the clergyman should be. In fact, it resembled in its beginnings the modern practice of founding a professorship in a college with the understanding that the first occupant of the chair shall be chosen by the founder.

A very large number of livings are in the gift of the Crown, of the Lord Chancellor, of the Archbishop of Canterbury, of wealthy noblemen, and of the universities. None of these patrons have any use for them except to oblige friends or to reward deserving clergymen. But a very large number are in the gift of needy persons who by no means object to turning an honest penny by the sale of them. This selling of them, which there seems to be no means of stopping, is, however, illegal if the living be vacant. It is then called a simony. But a sale of the right to present when it becomes vacant at some future period, when, for instance, the actual incumbent dies or resigns, is a legitimate exercise of the rights of property. This has led, not unnaturally, to clergymen with means buying livings for their own use—that is, buying the right to cure the souls of a definite body of believers; such purchasers, of course, being often persons whose own souls were in a perilous condition. The scandals of the traffic are immense, and they are discovered by means of advertisements in the newspapers. The Archbishop of Canterbury produced some of these advertisements in the House of Lords the other day. He said:

"The value of benefices is going down, and is, in fact, so far reduced that the purchase of an advowson or next presentation is the very best investment that a clergyman can make, as he can obtain a rate of interest immeasurably beyond what he can get in any other way; and if he can leave it behind him as property, it is property which yields an immense rate of interest. As the value of livings goes down, the sales of livings increase. This is a matter of fact. For instance, there were eighty-three advertisements of advowsons in the advertising columns of the *Times* during the months of January and February, 1895, against thirty-seven in the two corresponding months of 1894. I have before now quoted to your lordships very shameful advertisements, but I should like to read two or three selected from advertisements actually in circulation now, simply to show the House that, while the advertisements have got rather less barefaced, their description and character show that they are intended for a class of persons very unlike that spiritual pastor whom your lordships would most wish to see in livings of your own, in love with his work and with his people.

"The advertisements run this sort of way: 'This preferment is only suited to a clergyman who is prepared to give a fair price for a really desirable county benefice.' 'This is an unusually desirable gentleman's property'; then comes a description of the house and grounds, concluding, 'This is a very compact gentleman's property in perfect repair.' The descriptions are interlarded with announcements that the benefices are near good towns or convenient railway stations, that yachts or fishing are to be had, and, what speaks for itself, 'first-class society.' (Laughter.) There are also more serious and grave defects appearing in the advertisements. One is, that 'there are no schools.' This would attract the kind of man who wants no trouble with the children of his parish. Another is, that the income of the benefice is derived from tithe-rent charge and the ecclesias-

tical commissioners. Where an income with very poor means has been augmented by this body and brought up to, say, £300, this is used, in some cases, as an instrument to make a large sum out of the sale of the benefice. The amount of charities bestowed on a parish is even held out as showing that there will be no demands made on the pastor. These descriptions are also, in some cases, colored with the most nauseous statements, that an 'evangelical' or a 'Catholic' clergyman is required."

This quotation is from a speech made by the Archbishop in introducing a measure of reform, but, oddly enough as it will seem in American eyes, it contains no hint of the abolition of the sale of presentations. It simply proposes to increase the power of the bishops over the character and qualifications of the persons presented. It will prevent a clergyman from buying the presentation in order to present himself—a not uncommon practice—and it will interpose a period of twelve months between the purchase of a presentation and the actual presentation. This last clause is meant to prevent speculation on the age of the actual incumbent and bargains for immediate resignation. But among the arguments against this to which the Archbishop gives weight is the following:

"A man who has just bought a large property may wish to buy the advowson of the neighboring church because it is to him a matter of the highest interest that there should always be a fit person presented to the living, and it would be very hard on such a man if, after having bought the advowson, the clergyman should die or be promoted within twelve months, so that he would not again have an opportunity of presenting to the church for perhaps forty years."

From any one who knows anything of the actual practice, the supposition that the purchaser of "the large property" will consider mainly the claims of the parish souls, and not the interests of a clerical son, brother, or friend, will call forth a smile.

There could hardly be a more interesting illustration than this whole subject of the conservative tendencies of the English mind regarding property. No one dares to propose the abolition of the entire system of appointing ministers, because the right of presentation has been for centuries recognized as private property by the English law, and no attempt to take it away without compensation would be thought of, while compensation would amount to an enormous sum. All that the Archbishop proposes is to remedy some of the very grossest abuses. Not a word escaped his lips going to show that he considered the whole system of providing religious pastors for the English people a very gross abuse, or even a system calling for any defence or apology. On the contrary, he and a large body of the clergy have used as their strongest argument against Welsh disestablishment, that it would endanger in England this mode of filling the parish pulpit. It has grown up, as the purchase of commissions in the army grew up, under the influence of the intense respect of the English mind for usage or prescription—that is, for anything which has been done without hindrance or opposition for long periods of time. The crop of abuses which came down from the Middle Ages under the shelter of prescription was very great. The monasteries and the municipal corporations were the greatest. Property in military commissions grew up later, but its abolition cost a great struggle, and is still looked on by many Conservatives as one of Gladstone's worst offences. The mode of officering the church, which really has nothing to do with the question of church establishment, is the only absurdity still left which has no better defence than long uses and "vested rights."

THE GREED OF AUTHORS.

Mr. Edmund Gosse has got himself into a pickle in a way that ought to serve as a warning to all lovers of paradox. It occurred to him, in a speech at the London Booksellers' dinner, to make a little joke about the struggling publisher at the mercy of the hard-hearted author. This was a pleasant gospel for the itching ears of his auditors, and their applause led him on from jest to earnest, and into the following dangerous assertion:

"It wants a little courage, or perhaps my brother writers will say a good deal of impudence, for an author to get up in this year of grace and seem to repudiate the 'author's rights' of which we hear so much. But I do it in the interest of the authors themselves, because I think some of our popular authors are killing the goose that lays the golden egg. . . . Often, when a very successful novel is published, you would find, if you looked beneath the surface, that the author had got the publisher's heart in a little hand-mill, and every now and then was giving it another turn, and then peeping in to see whether he was still alive, and then giving another little turn, squeezing out, drop by drop, royalty blood. . . . If the publisher is to endure the author's squeezing, he must squeeze you [the booksellers], and you must squeeze the public, which refuses to be squeezed. Then the joke is reversed, and the public declines to buy from you, and you decline to buy from the publisher, and the publisher rebels, and says to the greedy author, 'Get out of this, and starve in Grub Street, as you used to do in the good old times.'"

This would have been a dangerous saying in any land or time; and in England, within earshot of the Authors' Society, it was simply courting death. Mr. Walter Besant, as he then was (how he ever could have consented to become Sir Walter, with the implied comparison, we know not), was at once down upon Mr. Gosse with a demand that he retract or name the man. Mr. Gosse declined to do either, simply affirming that what he had said he had said "in perfect sincerity, and with some knowledge of the facts," and professing a gentle amusement over the fact that, "while for generations past everybody has been calling the publishers Barabbas without creating the least excitement, an humble person mildly suggests that authors should not be greedy, only to find the firmament rent with shrieks of censure." But the Authors' Society was not to be put down in that way. Its Committee of Management promptly passed a resolution severely censuring Mr. Gosse, and issued one of its lethal "circulars" on the whole subject.

The dreadful suspicion once laid before the public that authors were accumulating too much wealth for the safety of democratic institutions, eager and prying minds applied themselves to other aspects of the literary business, and immediately discovered new horrors. Authors are guilty, it seems, not only of selling their wares at monopoly prices, but of actually dealing in "literary futures." Cases were unearthed of novelists contracting to deliver stories of so many words and of guaranteed first-class workmanship, not only next year and the year after, but even in 1901. This is surely worse than being *fin-de-siècle*. Wherein is selling novels that do not exist any less heinous than selling futures on cotton or wheat? It is clear that the next anti-option bill will have to be enlarged so as to fine or imprison the cruel literary operators who beat down the price of this year's toilsome crop of fiction or verse by promising the weak publisher all he wants, even more than he wants, this day twelvemonth.

It is asserted, too, that the particular form of thumb-screw which the modern novelist applies to the Jew of a publisher to make him disgorge, is the threat to start a rival publishing-house which will give the author full half-profits. Scarcely more money or stock in trade is needed than is needed to set up a writer himself, and Thackeray explained what a moderate amount of pens, ink, and paper will suffice for that. Add in a sign, one chair to sit in yourself and one to plant your author in, a big job printing house around the corner to do the work, and the outfit is complete. English publishers are said always to yield at once when threatened with rivalry of this sort, despite the encouragement they might be tempted to draw from the Scott-Ballantyne partnership. American publishers, we believe, are not so easily shaken—especially not since the recent collapse of an author's publishing-house. When, as in that case, talk about 45 per cent. royalties becomes so soon talk about being perhaps able to pay 45 cents on the dollar, the oppressed publisher cannot be blamed for hoping that a few of the necessaries of life, such as yachts and villas, may be kept a bit longer from the insatiate author.

We must confess that we have not observed among authors of our acquaintance signs of the greed which troubled Mr. Gosse. Few, if any of them, we believe, would display the facial characteristics inevitably acquired by a man (as Balzac explained in the case of M. Grandet) in the habit of contemplating secret hoards of gold. Yet there are subtler and less obvious temptations to greed, or an appearance of greed, against which some of them are not wholly proof. One of these temptations is to disregard the literary company one keeps, provided one gets extra pay for it. Publishers of in-

ane or sensational periodicals boast that they can get the best names of the writing fraternity into their strange galley, provided the checks be made big enough. And it must be admitted that the results too often justify the boast. Now it will never do to rail at authors for writing for money. What was an honorable and sufficient motive for Shakspere, for Scott, for Hawthorne, is honorable and sufficient for any man. But there is such a thing as literary propriety, literary self-respect, the conventions of the craft, which no author with a reputation to sustain or to make ought lightly to violate—ought never to violate in evident obedience to the jingle of the guinea. Why should you figure in a charlatan's table of contents, any more than you would at his dinner-table, simply because you got well paid for it?

Another form of author's greed, or appearance of it, is the kind that pushes to the wall, not the luckless publisher, but the author himself and the reading public. We mean, of course, the nervous haste to take the kingdom of public favor by storm. If an author makes a hit, he must keep on hitting; if he strikes a new vein, he must at once work it out to the last filament, lest some other "jump his claim" or turn out an ore that better suits the public taste. Hence we have the feverish rush to produce the greatest possible number of books or articles in the shortest possible time, the digging up of old and unsuccessful writings to hitch them to the ones that have met with acceptance, the revamping and revarnishing. These eager authors do in earnest what Agassiz said in jest that he did—tell all he knew in the first half-hour and repeat himself ever afterwards. Mr. Howells has recently admitted that American fiction has been under a cloud for a few years past, and promises to give his explanation of the phenomenon. It is worth considering whether the haste, if not to be rich, at least to squeeze the orange dry without once relaxing the grip, has not had a good deal to do with it.

ON THE EVE OF THE ITALIAN ELECTIONS.

ITALY, May 15, 1895.

BEFORE this letter can appear in the *Nation* the general elections will have taken place. Never since the first elections after the proclamation of the kingdom of Italy in 1860 has such excitement prevailed—among candidates, electors, and journalists. The general public does not care a fig who gets in or who remains out. You will remember that the House was prorogued on December 15, 1894, precisely when the discussion of Giolitti's *plico*, or bundle of letters and documents, was to have taken place, and Crispi's report to the King provoked the meeting in the Sala Rossa, where the Marquis di Rudini, the late Prime Minister, and Zanardelli met Cavallotti and other Radicals and Socialists to protest in the strongest terms against the insults to the national representation contained in that report. It was agreed that all these parties or fractions of parties should pursue their work of opposition separately and independently. Certainly no one then dreamed that another six months could pass without the reconvocation of the old house or an appeal to the country. Such, however, has been the case, and during this time the nation has been governed as in the old days of despotism—royal decrees taking the place of laws discussed and voted in Parliament, old taxes increased and new ones imposed without the sanction of the national assembly. The ministerial pretext is that the electoral lists had to be revised, and that this could not be done in a shorter time. Now, at least, it is done with a vengeance, and some half a million of electors have been struck off the list. What really caused the delay was the action for libel brought against Giolitti by Crispi for the letters and documents handed over to the President of the Chamber, and which it was hoped would be subject to the ordinary tribunals. The Court of Cassation, however, which is independent, ruled that a minister or ex-minister can be tried only by his peers for acts or words done or spoken in the exercise of his functions; that hence it is for the House to decide whether Giolitti shall be tried by the high court of the Senate or the affair be quashed. Giolitti demands his trial; whether he will succeed will depend on the composition of the new House.

That with the Clericals and Crispinians combined the Government will have an enormous majority is certain, but how long it will remain faithful is by no means so sure. Every pressure has been brought to bear in the administrative elections, and in Milan, in Mantua, where the Democrats were all-powerful, this time they have been routed all along the line. The most astounding defeat is that of Zanardelli and his party at Brescia. He and Rudini keep their polemics within decent bounds, yet Crispi's organ *La Riforma* treats them with no more politeness than is dealt out to Cavallotti, who gives a Roland for an Oliver and something into the bargain. As we blamed Giolitti for presenting to the House a bundle of private letters to which he had no right, and of public documents which he ought to have handed over to the committee of seven, so we have no sympathy with Cavallotti, the "bard of democracy," who turns private detective and buys up from the scum of creation all the letters and documents which he can lay hands on to damage the reputation of Crispi. Still, though the manner of the revelations disgusts one, the facts remain, and are of a most serious nature. It is shown how much money was spent to prevent Imbriani's election, and how the attempt failed, how 500 lire per month was paid to one editor. But this is nothing to the treatment of the numerous unhappy prisoners arrested illegally and sent to the fortress of Port Ercole, stived in filthy dens, compelled to sleep on the straw with one covering, no mattress in this bitter winter, ragged, shoeless, full of vermin; old delinquents set free at the entreaties of a Deputy; perfectly innocent men, because Socialists, still detained with one pound of bread and bean soup for all sustenance; neither doctors nor medicine for the sick for two months running; an old man of eighty blind, another a cripple, a third a paralytic. In publishing these revolting details, Cavallotti piles the agony high by quoting Mr. Gladstone's letter to Lord Aberdeen anent the Neapolitan dungeons in 1850, and, sad to say, the story of yesterday and of to-day tally all too well.

Serious as are these charges, to me the gravest error committed by Crispi is that narrated by Marescalchi after resigning. He was one of the best functionaries in Italy; counsellor of the prefecture of Bologna during the sitting of the committee appointed to examine the cases, one by one, of the men arrested by the police and recommended for "domicilio coatto." Said committee in Bologna soon found that most of these unfortunates were as innocent as themselves, and were arrested to satisfy the private vengeance of so-and-so or of the police themselves. Hence the commissioners, magistrates, all, save one doctor, the secretary Condulmer, refused to sentence the innocent, and asked in some cases for further evidence against other accused. On this the counsellor is called up and informed that the questor is furious with the committee for setting free a certain Rubbi and for asking for further evidence against Gabussi, "who in any case is to be sent to *domicilio coatto*." One prefect was removed from Bologna and another sent, to whom Crispi telegraphed his displeasure "at the way in which the committee applied the exceptional laws," and continues: "I have written to the keeper of the seals to call the two magistrates on the committee to order, nor can I refrain from expressing my disapproval of the conduct of the counsellor of the prefecture. He ought to have supported the police through thick and thin, *i. e.*, have voted for the punishment of all of those denounced by the police. Instead of this, by agreeing with the two magistrates, he has been false to his duty." And to punish him for so doing he was removed by telegraph to another seat, with his vice-chief and the secretary Dr. Condulmer. The commissioners were changed, and the condemnations were passed wholesale and in such haste that many of the prisoners found themselves at Port Ercole without knowing of what they were accused or that they were condemned to *domicilio coatto*. Marescalchi sent in his resignation immediately, and has recourse to the Council of State against Crispi for violation of the law and abuse of power. But how many public servants with large families and no private property can afford to obey the dictates of their conscience?

Meanwhile the Socialists are more active than ever in their propaganda. They have presented seventy candidates, declining the alliance with Republicans, Democrats, or Radicals, by which they might carry many colleges, whereas now it is doubtful if they succeed save in a very few; but they say frankly: "We mean to count our forces on the first Sunday at the polls. We shall all vote for the Liberal candidate against the Crispinos." The Pope still maintains his veto, and the old programme of Pio Nono, "neither electors nor elected"; but how many will obey him? Cardinal Hohenlohe, who, at a dinner in his beautiful Villa d'Este at Tivoli, toasted the future candidates who should support Crispi, has been summoned to the Vatican by his Holiness, and, after a severe reprimand, requested to absent himself from Rome for a month, *i. e.*, till the elections are over; and the delinquent has betaken himself to Montefalco. The *Osservatore Romano* publishes a letter from the president of the Catholic congresses and committees to all the members of the regional diocesan and parochial committees, enjoining strict obedience to the Pope's decree.

"This time the abstinence should be total, full, and free, not only in virtue of absolute and unconditional obedience to the Pontiff, who will never admit the right of any one save himself to rule in Rome, but also to prove that it is vain to hope for the participation of Italian Catholics in the public life of their country until justice has been ren-

dered to the Holy Father—the justice that he demands. And if this, our policy of abstention in political elections, should convince those in whose hands are the destinies of our fatherland of the necessity of coming to a real understanding with the Supreme Pontiff, it will show that ours is not useless inertia, but one of the most efficacious modes of action."

The president promises to make known the number of abstentionists.

The only political manifesto yet published is Rudini's letter to his electors—a dry, heavy, but remarkable document, which would require a whole number of the *Nation* to examine and criticise. It is divided into two parts: the first expounds the reforms necessary to remedy the administrative, judicial, and economical abuses of which all complain in Italy. "Without these reforms," he writes, "I do not believe that we can for long preserve the fundamental laws of the state. Unless the nation is convinced that it can obtain a government founded on justice and morality, all governments will forfeit their *raison d'être* and all powers of resistance." To-day Italy, depressed, cares less for representative institutions than in the days gone by. Rudini, like all Sicilians, and now the Lombards, has always leaned towards the utmost decentralization, to local government, and there is no doubt but that the intense centralization which makes the Government arbiter, nay despot, in every branch of human affairs has contributed more than aught else to the present state of corruption and anarchy. Rudini proposes in reality the old regional system desired by Minghetti—each region to have at its head a lieutenant-governor. As a Conservative, he would have all associations bound to lay their status and number of members before the authorities; would restrict the suffrage still more than has just been done. Here the Radicals will separate from him should he return to power. What is certain is, that as long as the Government interferes, by bribery and corruption, in the elections, and allows the Government candidates to promise in its name all sorts of favors and prizes to individual electors and to communes, the wheels of state can never run fairly and smoothly; and unless immorality and peculation are punished in high places, it is useless to expect decency and honesty in the multitude.

Crispi has *posed* his candidature in about twenty colleges, and at the grand banquet which it is said will be offered to him at the baths of Caracalla he will deliver his "great speech." In all their old colleges the ministers will follow his example. The one discourse eagerly expected is that of Sonnino, who has never lied in his financial statements, never pretended that two and two make five, or that the outgo and income of the state is balanced; but he is a very Philistine in laying the taxes on the poorest classes, and all are anxious now to know whether they are to be mulcted still further. The programme of the Piedmontese opposition is one long protest against all the sins of commission and omission of the present Government, the arbitrary closure, the prolonged suspension of parliamentary debates, the royal edicts, the imposition of taxes without the consent of Parliament. They maintain that without radical economies in every branch of the administration, *even in the army and navy*, the country can never be redeemed. As for Eritrea, though they do not ask for total abandonment, they do protest against expansion; and as the manifesto is signed by the ex-Minister of the Navy, Brin, with seventeen other Deputies, it has a certain value of its own. Numerous colleges have invited Zanardelli to stand, but he has answered all, that, as he has ever disapproved of double elections, he cannot accede to the requests, but remains with only one string to his bow in his old and faithful college of Iseo.

J. W. M.

BARRAS'S MEMOIRS.—I.*

PARIS, May 22, 1895.

"HABENT sua fata libelli" is especially applicable to Memoirs. Strange is the history of many of them; the precautions taken by the writer often turn against his intentions. It happens, for instance, that the Memoirs of Barras, which are a violent pamphlet and diatribe against the Emperor Napoleon and all his family, are now published, a long time after they were written, by a man who is an ardent Bonapartist, viz., M. George Duruy, son of the historian Duruy, who was a minister of public instruction under Napoleon III. The elder Duruy was no ordinary man; he may be said to have brought about a revolution in the French University by using in his books the documents and methods of the new historical school. He was a strong liberal, and was called to the post of minister of public instruction by Napoleon III. at a time when the Second Empire was at war with the bishops of the Senate. His son, the editor of the Memoirs of Barras, has acquired some reputation in the literary and journalistic world.

Barras made his will on April 30, 1827. He said in it: "I give and leave to M. Rousselin de Saint-Albin an edition of 'Anacharsis' and my geographical maps. I wish besides that my papers and memoirs, deposited with one of my friends, should be given to him that he may edit the memoirs, as time has not allowed me to do so." Feeling himself very ill on the morning of January 29, 1829, he said to his godchild, M. Paul Grand, that he feared much lest his papers should be seized after his death, as there was among them a correspondence between himself and King Louis XVIII. He advised him to hide them, and died on the same day, at eleven o'clock P. M. M. Grand, with a servant, filled two trunks with the papers and had them taken in the night to the house of M. de Saint-Albin. The next day a search was made by a justice of the peace, and everything was put under seal. Madame de Barras instituted, on this occasion, a lawsuit, which was really of no consequence, as all the important papers were already in the hands of M. de Saint-Albin.

What were these papers, and what were these unfinished memoirs? M. Duruy explains at length; he tells us that Barras wrote long notes at various times on the events in which he had taken a part; these notes were materials for his future memoirs, some parts of which had afterwards received an almost definitive form. Sometimes two or three versions of the same event were made. Barras's wish was that his friends should make a whole of all these materials and give to his memoirs the best literary form; he desired that M. de Saint-Albin should with M. Paul Grand classify the papers (which were as many as 15,000), and do the final editing of the memoirs. M. Duruy (and I must agree with him) prefers the original editing of Barras to the more finished and literary editing of Saint-Albin, who conceived his work after the literary taste of a period which was too fond of rhetorical amplifications. However, Saint-Albin was faithful everywhere to the thought of Barras; he did not alter the texts; he simply clothed them in what he considered a decent and suitable style.

It would be tedious to give an account of the quarrels between Saint-Albin, Mme. de Barras, and M. Paul Grand on the subject of the Memoirs; it is enough to say that an agreement finally took place between the contending parties, and the Memoirs became in 1834 the exclusive property of M. de Saint-Albin. Why did he not then publish them? It was because his legal adviser told him, after having read them, that there was in them "un nid de procès correctionnels"—a fountain of libel suits. St.-Albin was unwilling to make any changes or suppressions in the work which he had received in trust, and he decided to keep the Memoirs in his portfolio. He died in 1847, and his children were also unwilling to publish the Memoirs. The elder, M. Hortensius de Saint-Albin, was, under the Second Empire, a Councillor in the Court of Appeal in Paris. He died in 1877. His brother, M. Philippe Saint-Albin, who became possessor of the Memoirs, was for a long time librarian of the Empress Eugénie; I knew him as a colleague in a society of bibliophiles—the most pacific, the gentlest of men. The idea of publishing a work which was a bitter satire on Napoleon and his family could never have entered his mind; he left the manuscript at his death to his sister, Madame Achille Jubinal, the widow of a Bonapartist Deputy of the Second Empire. M. Duruy entered by marriage the Jubinal family, and thus came into possession of the famous Memoirs. M. Duruy has thought it necessary to add very lengthy prefaces to the two volumes which have now appeared. He takes great pains, as a critic, to attenuate the historical importance of Barras's accusations against Napoleon. He oscillates constantly between two positions, that of editor of Barras and that of an admirer of Napoleon. He does not count sufficiently on the intelligence of the reader, who is perfectly capable of making allowance for the passions of Barras, who is well known to history as a profligate, cruel, perverse, and contemptible man. He was, at the same time, a man of intelligence, resolution, and courage, as he showed at different times in the terrible period of the Terror.

Barras was born on June 30, 1755, at Fox-Amphoux, in the department of the Var. The antiquity of the Barras, said a proverb of the country, equalled that of the rocks of Provence. His uncle, Melchior de Barras, Vice-Admiral, commanded a French squadron during the American war of Independence. He was one of the signers of the capitulation of Cornwallis. The Terrorist of 1893 likes to say that "the Blacas, the Pontevès, the Castellane, pretended to be our relations." He entered as cadet in the regiment of Languedoc. The history of his first expeditions, at Pondicherry, at the Île de France, is interesting enough, but more than one reader will leave it unread and turn at once to the chapters which herald the great Revolution. We find him in Paris, with little resources, living at the expense of an old aunt, and already in very bad company, a friend of the famous Madame de Lamotte of the "necklace," an associate of the Cardinal de Rohan. To do Barras justice, he says that it has been proved to him "that Marie Antoinette was not only innocent, but an entire stranger to this *tripotage* in which odious swindlers, as guilty as murderers, with unexampled audacity, thought to involve her name and person. I confess that my life as a young man generally not as particular in his relations as he should have been, threw me into

* 'Memoirs of Barras, Member of the Directorate.' Volumes I. and II. Harper & Bros.

the society of the woman Lamotte. I was not enough on my guard; I could not imagine how much perversity there was in her."

Barras was appointed administrator of the Var, and afterwards a member of the Convention. He threw himself from the first day into the current of the Revolution. The Convention ordered a levy of 300,000 men, and Barras was sent with Fréron to the Alps, where he had to organize resistance in the departments of the Hautes and Basses-Alpes. The important city of Toulon had been given over to the enemy, and the siege of Toulon became a necessity. It was during this siege that Barras heard of the execution of the Duke of Orleans (November 6, 1793). It is curious to see in what terms he speaks of him:

"I had sometimes met the Prince before and during the Revolution, and I always found him a man of simple manners, loving liberty like a private citizen, and without any personal ambition. It is possible that some of his friends entertained it for him or for themselves; he never was their accomplice; and it is in this sense that people could say that he was the least Orleanist of the Orleans faction. The execution of a beneficent prince, popular and quite inoffensive in politics, lacked even a pretext on the part of those who committed this crime deliberately and for their pleasure. It was one of the most delirious acts of the Revolution."

We note this judgment, without forgetting that the Duke of Orleans, by voting for the death of Louis XVI., did not allow history to pity him.

Let us return to the siege of Toulon. Barras needed an officer capable of placing a battery well; he found a very young one. "Satisfied," he records, "with a report he made to me, I said to him, 'I thank you, Captain.' He answered, very respectfully: 'I beg your pardon, I am only a lieutenant.' 'You are captain,' said I, 'as you deserve and I have the right to appoint you.' This was the first interview I had with Bonaparte." It is notorious that Bonaparte conceived the plan for retaking Toulon without making a regular siege from the land side; he made it impossible, by placing a battery on a certain cape, for the English fleet to remain in port, and when the English had retired, Toulon was easily captured. Barras takes great pains in his memoirs to minimize the part taken by Bonaparte and to magnify his own. He calls Bonaparte "mon petit protégé," and assumes a great superiority over him. "We are," he says, "generally disposed to a certain kindness, even to a certain admiration, for the man who in a frail body shows more strength than nature seems to have given him." He found in Bonaparte a certain likeness to Marat. "I saw a good deal of the latter on the benches of the Convention and even previously." The portraits of young Bonaparte and of Marat do not show the smallest likeness, and it is almost incredible that Barras should have discovered any.

The siege of Toulon was a great triumph for the republican army: after the operations of this siege, Barras returned to Paris. The Terror was at its height, and Robespierre had become a sort of Dictator. Barras was not without some uneasiness; he had been accused of many corrupt practices while he was in the south of France, and the "incorruptible" Robespierre was not lenient—his will was supreme in the Executive Committee of Public Safety:

"I had already," says Barras, "been two days in Paris, quite dumbfounded by what was going on, putting questions to everybody which received but evasive answers, when I seemed to wake up on hearing that my arrival was known to the members of the Committee of Public Safety, and that they were surprised that I had not yet brought my accounts and paid my respects to them. I went in consequence to the committee; Robespierre, Billaud, Carnot, Barère, Prieur de la Côte d'Or, Robert Lindet, were in session. I imagined that I had a right to find in their attitude the expression of some satisfaction. . . . The members of the Committee, seeing me come in, remained sitting and mute, their eyes fixed on their portfolios."

In the Convention, Barras received the felicitations of the assembly; we see in this contrast the germ of the division which culminated in the famous revolution of the Ninth Thermidor. "Robespierre had attained to a true Dictatorship by his reputation for incorruptibility and, so to speak, immobility; he had never varied in language, in manners, or in dress. He was always powdered, though powder was proscribed, atrabilious, sad, just as he had presented himself to the States-General." Barras thought it necessary to pay a visit to Robespierre, in the little house which he inhabited in the Rue Saint-Honoré. He dared not go alone, and was accompanied by Fréron. They were very coldly received; Robespierre finished his toilet before them, and hardly opened his mouth. Soon afterwards Danton was arrested and executed. On his way to the guillotine he passed before the house of Robespierre. He rose a moment on the bench to which he was tied, and, with his powerful voice, screamed, "You will follow us soon." After the sacrifice of Danton and the Dantonists, the remaining members of the Convention lived in perpetual fear. The real power was in the Executive Committees, and in the Club of the Jacobins, where Robespierre was omnipotent. Barras, feeling himself despised by Robespierre, tried, at the risk of his life, to form in the Convention the nucleus of an opposition to Robespierre and the Committees. He always wore arms. The first nucleus of the Thermidorians was composed of only seven members. We shall see now how the drama of Thermidor developed itself, and what a prominent part Barras took in it.

Correspondence.

WASHINGTON'S ANCESTRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A close examination of the records of Westmoreland and Northumberland Counties, Va., made several months ago, has possessed me of facts which may be of interest to some of your readers. The will of Col. John Washington, the immigrant, speaks of a second wife, but it has been supposed that this wife (name unknown) preceded Anne Pope. I am satisfied that the first wife of Col. Washington was Anne Pope, and that the second wife was Anne, widow of Walter Brodhurst. But, more than that, he had a third wife whose existence has never been dreamed of—a widow, Frances, daughter of Col. Thomas Gerrard, formerly of the Council of Maryland.

Now for the proof. From the records it appears that Walter Brodhurst died between January 26 and February 12, 1659, respectively the dates of making and proving his will, and that Anne Pope was certainly wife of Washington previous to May 11, 1659, when she received a gift from her father, Col. Nathaniel Pope, under the name of "Anne Pope, *alias* Washington." But that she was not Walter Brodhurst's widow is shown by the record of a suit, September 20, 1659, in which this lady appears as "Anne, the relict and widow of Walter Brodhurst." Ten days later Washington wrote to the Governor of Maryland that "all the company and gossips were invited to see his young son baptized," which could not have been over eight months after the death of Walter Brodhurst. The son was baptized during the marriage with Anne Pope, and it must be remembered that when Washington came to Virginia in 1656, aged about twenty-five, he stayed at the house of Col. Nathaniel Pope, where, perhaps, his affections ripened for her, and a marriage shortly afterwards ensued.

But in 1670 appears this entry, under a statement of accounts:

"We whose names are here underneath subscribed according to order of Westm^{r}land Court bearing date the 28th of Septemb^{r} 1670, having ꝑused the Gen^{ll} & ꝑticular Accounts Exhibited unto us by Lt. Coll. John Washington who married Anne the relict of M^{r} Henry Brett late of y^{e} County Deced, wee have examined y^{e} whole Inventory & Debts of y^{e} said Henry Brett And we Doe finde that M^{rs} Anne Brett als Washington hath paid beyond assetts the sum of sixteen thousand three hundred twentie nine pounds of tobacco & caske [etc.] as witness our hands this 3^{d} of 9b^{r} 1670. John Ashton, William Horton. 9th of 9b^{br} 1670, This Report with y^{e} account annexed to it was Recorded."

In another place, under date of May 31, 1671, Mr. Samuel Brett of Plymouth, merchant, empowers certain persons to execute a discharge to "Lt Coll Washington who Intermarried with M^{rs} Ann Brett y^{e} Relict & administratrix of Henry Brett of Plymouth merchant deceased."

An inspection of the will of Col. Washington, as published in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, dated September 21, 1675, and proved January 10, 1677, clearly shows that the wife Anne therein mentioned was not the mother of the three children named Lawrence, John, and Anne, but the dead wife mentioned. Now who was the Anne Washington of the will? No other than Anne, the widow of Walter Brodhurst, who in the interval since his death had picked up Mr. Henry Brett, who, like most of the leading Virginia merchants, had business in both countries. This is shown by a letter of Col. Chester to Mr. Brock, which contains a copy of an old document in the Diocesan registry at Lichfield, dated April 12, 1678, evidencing that Walter Brodhurst, her son, "was granted administration of the goods of Anne Washington, alias Brodhurst, late of Washington parish, in y^{e} County of Westm^{r}land, in y^{e} countrey of Virginia."

Now in Westmoreland there is a marriage contract between Col. John Washington and Frances Appleton, widow of Capt. John Appleton (*née* Frances Gerrard), dated May 10, 1676, showing that Mrs. Anne Washington, the second, must have died previous to that date.

The will of Henry Brett was probably recorded in England, and its discovery might lead to some further facts. But I would refer such of your readers as would like a view of the documents upon which the statement above is compiled to the forthcoming July number of the *William and Mary College Quarterly Historical Magazine*.

In the letter to Mr. Brock, kindly furnished me, Col. Chester states that "one of his maxims is that there is nothing impossible in genealogy." And the narrative above seems to point that way. What right had John Washington, the ancestor of the Father of his Country, to worry the genealogists in the manner he has done—marry two Annes and

then, surreptitiously, as it were, slip in a third wife between the date and proof of his will?

LYON G. TYLER.

WILLIAMSBURG, VA., May 27, 1895.

A GRIEVANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with pleasure the favorable notice of the first two parts of my Assyrian-English-German Dictionary in the *Nation* of April 18, 1895, and I beg to say that I have seen thus far nothing but favorable reviews of my book, with one single exception. To this latter I wish to call, in the name of justice, your readers' attention.

Two years ago a young Assyriologist and managing editor of the American *Journal of Semitic Languages* offered himself to me as co-editor of my Dictionary. The offer had to be declined, for reasons apparent to every Assyriologist. Therewith the matter rested for the time being. When, in the early half of September, 1894, the first part of my Dictionary appeared, I noticed at once that, owing to the fact of having read but one proof of the greater part of it, many of my corrections had been executed either not at all or wrongly, and, also, that I had overlooked errors which could not easily be detected in a first proof of so intricate a material as my Dictionary, containing, on every page, hundreds of abbreviations and references, and being, on the whole, pioneer work. At a great financial loss I cancelled the issue at once, and notice was sent by my publishers to all journals that had already received review copies, requesting them to please postpone reviews until the appearance of the revised issue. To this the editors of all those journals agreed with the one exception referred to above. I had personally asked the editors of this journal to postpone review of part i., stating that the original issue had been withdrawn, and the managing editor assured me that no respectable journal would notice this first issue, knowing that a revise was forthcoming. Of course, I relied upon the promise of this gentleman.

The revise of part i. appeared in the early days of January last, and a copy was promptly sent to the editors. Last week—that is, more than four months later—there was published in this *Journal of Semitic Languages* a review not of the revise of part i.—which, by the way, is not noticed at all—but of the original issue, which had been cancelled immediately upon its publication, and notice of which fact had been sent to all journals. The review is ostensibly written by another Assyriologist, who, as my successor in a Western institution, took this opportunity to prove to the outside world his great scientific superiority. Assyriologists, of course, will see at once the cause for this most cold-blooded attack, but the general reader of this Semitic journal, unaware of the facts stated above, will easily be misled. Both editor and reviewer, by the way, are Christian ministers.—Yours respectfully,

W. MUSS-ARNOLT.

CHICAGO, ILL., May 27, 1895.

JURY EXPERIMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The provision in the proposed Constitution of Utah for trials by juries of less than twelve, and for the finding of verdicts by a less number than the whole, is not entirely novel. The present Constitution of Louisiana, adopted in 1879, provides, "in cases where the penalty is not necessarily imprisonment at hard labor or death, the General Assembly may provide for the trial thereof by a jury less than twelve in number"; in civil cases the number of jurors is twelve, but the General Assembly "may provide that a verdict be rendered by the concurrence of a less number than the whole." To carry out these constitutional provisions the Legislature of 1880 passed two acts—in the one, providing that, "for the trial of all criminal cases where the penalty is not necessarily imprisonment at hard labor or death, said trial shall be before a jury composed of five persons; *provided*, that the accused may waive trial by jury and be tried by the court"; the other act of 1880 provides that in civil cases a verdict may be found by nine jurors.—Very respectfully,

ROBERT H. MARX.

NEW ORLEANS, May 29, 1895.

Notes.

A VOLUME of essays by Prof. Edward Dowden, 'New Studies in Literature,' and a translation, fully illustrated, of Dr. Crestos Tsountas's 'The Mycenæan Civilization' are in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A photographically illustrated 'Atlas of Fertilisation and Karyokinesis,' by Prof. Edward B. Wilson and Dr. Edward Leaming, is announced by Macmillan & Co., together with 'The Modern Reader's Bible,' "a series of books from the Sacred Scriptures presented in modern literary form," edited by Prof. Richard G. Moulton, of the University of Chicago.

Brentano's will market here the forthcoming (London) '*Times* Atlas,' to be completed in fifteen weekly parts.

Renan's touching and beautiful memorial of his sister, 'Ma Sœur Henriette,' has hitherto been known rather by its reputation than from actual knowledge. Some parts of it have been given to readers by one periodical or another, but the book itself has been very difficult to obtain. Only ninety-nine copies of it were printed, and these were given away to intimate friends and have been objects of pious care. On the few occasions when a copy has figured at a book-sale it has brought four or five hundred francs. A new edition of the volume will be published during the present month with illustrations by M. Ary Renan.

M. Paul Mariéton has in press a new work on the literary history of the Midi entitled 'Histoire d'une Renaissance'—the genesis of the Félibrige. It comprehends the epoch just previous to the Félibrige properly so called, and treats of its great forerunners, La Bellaudière, Saboly, Goudelin, the Abbé Favié, as well as such immediate predecessors as Jasmin and Roumanille. The book closes with the appearance of 'Mireille' in 1854. M. Mariéton is a militant *félibre*, and has already appeared as the author of 'Terre Provençale.'

M. Régnier, sometime a well-known actor, who had played Molière in connection with the chief artists of the century, had the design of annotating, for the use of players, all the works of that great writer. But he died before he had accomplished his task. He left complete no more than his annotations upon "Tartufe," which are now just appearing. The play is preceded by a detailed analysis of each of its characters, and many indications are given of stage traditions of the great actors who have played these rôles, of stage settings, and the like. The volume is entitled 'Le Molière des Comédiens,' and has been edited by Mme. Henriette Régnier, a daughter of the author, and by M. Legouvé.

In 'Der Anekdotenschatz Bacon-Shakspere's,' Edwin Bormann, the Leipzig author-publisher, follows up his 'Shakspere-Geheimniss' with the same scholarly air and capital sense of book-making, but with the same futility. He now passes from Bacon's philosophical works to his 'Apophthegmes New and Old,' and selectively shows how they hark back to "Shakspere's" plays, and so confirm the theory of a single personality and authorship. Where the resemblance in phraseology is close, Mr. Bormann sees Bacon's fondness for analogies; where it is remote and casual, his fondness for antitheses. The following is a fair sample: (Bacon) "Nero was wont to say of his master Seneca, that his stile was like mortar of sand without lime"; ("Midsummer Night's Dream," v. i.) "Would you desire lime and hair to speak better?" Mr. Bormann announces an English translation of his earlier work, 'The Shakspere Secret,' by Harry Brett, to appear early in October.

Brentano's sends us Gustav A. Seyler's 'Illustrirtes Handbuch der Ex-Libris-Kunde' (Berlin: J. A. Stargardt), an agreeable little side-pocket introduction to the fad of the hour, illustrated copiously and with taste, and furnished with lists of Ex-Libris societies, literature, periodicals, collections; designers and engravers of book-plates, etc. With German system Herr Seyler sets forth the various modes of indicating the ownership of a book, in their historical development; and it is well to remember that wood-engraving preceded copper, and may still assert its supremacy if rightly executed. We are taught how to describe a book-plate as to right and left, its dimensions, etc., and what are the conventional engraver's lines in heraldic representation. Our scruples are silenced as to robbing books of their plates, and the mode of despoiling with lukewarm water or alcohol is revealed. Finally, we are shown the different ways in which collections can be arranged.

The various addresses which the Apostolic Delegate, Archbishop Satolli, has delivered in this country, have been collected and published by John Murphy & Co., Baltimore, under the title, 'Loyalty to Church and State.'

Two valuable compilations of laws relating to the "labor question" are before us. The smaller and more practical (published by Macmillan) is by the well-known writer upon trade-unions, George Howell, M. P., and is nominally a new edition of his 'Handy-Book of the Labor Laws,' which appeared in 1876. But there has been so much important legislation since then, and so many decisions have been made by the courts upon the numerous statutes affecting employers and workmen, that this work consists to a large extent of new matter. The aim of the author is to furnish workmen with a manual of their statutory rights and privileges, and of rules and forms to be observed in maintaining them. The book is very well adapted for its purpose, and is interesting as showing the progress made during the last thirty years in removing legal disabilities from workmen and transferring them, to some extent, to their employers.

Much more comprehensive is the 'Lois Sociales' of MM. Joseph Chailley-Bert and Arthur Fontaine (Paris: Léon Chailley). This is nothing less than a digest of the laws of France bearing upon the social condition of its inhabitants. It includes not only the laws now in force, but many that have been repealed, and is, of course, a bulky volume. The method employed is to classify the laws ac-

cording to their subject, and when so classified to present them in chronological order. The great rubrics are: Labor, Providence, Property, and Protection and Assistance. Under the head of Labor we have first a chapter upon the individual, and then a chapter upon associations. The individual is considered with reference to the contract for work, the search for work, holidays and limitations of labor, wages and means of subsistence, credit, controversies, etc. The same systematic method is followed throughout; both chronological and analytical indexes are provided; and, as the start is made from the declaration of the rights of man in 1789 and the abolition of the guilds in 1791, the student is enabled to review the social history of the century to great advantage.

Mrs. Custer's 'Tenting on the Plains,' which we reviewed on its publication by C. L. Webster & Co. in 1888, reappears from the press of the Harpers in the more convenient form of a post-octavo, unaltered except by the omission of a biographical sketch of Gen. Custer and of three chapters of letters, chiefly his. This charming record of a life that can never be reproduced bears reperusal well, and the reader of the army novel whose plot requires intrigue and detraction should enjoy this ingenuous story of real life, unmarred by gossip or the appearance of evil. Mrs. Custer has the happy faculty of painting life with no more shadows, and those only nature's own, than nature requires to bring out the tones; and one may take these frank sketches as almost photographic reproductions of experience in bayou, plain, and cantonment. Her home and her heart are open to the world, but the world can learn from them only lessons of affectionate devotion. It is hardly fair to Kansas to reproduce (p. 221), with the title "Kansas in 1866 and Kansas to-day," a map that was probably true as drawn when the book was written, without explaining that "to-day" has receded nearly a decade. And Texas might object to the maps (p. 19) of "Texas in 1866 and 1886," as implying that there has been no advance in the last nine years. Grasshoppers, drought, and Populism are not the only products of either State; and, despite the plagues of gods and men, the prairie world does not stand still. There was a rumor that Mrs. Custer would cast into shape for print army tales beyond her personal experience; that she was gathering material, if not for a romance, at least for a collection of incidents that might or might not have a common thread. That venture would be a new one, but the demand that led to this reprint should encourage her to consider the project. She has made so many friends through her inartificial books that she may be sure of readers to welcome a fresh one, even on different lines.

For forty years we have witnessed experiments in intercollegiate magazines, and not one has gained a permanent footing or demonstrated its excuse for being, from Joseph Cook's down. We now have the *Bachelor of Arts*, published at 15 Wall Street, under the editorship of John Seymour Wood. Twenty-five colleges furnish forth a formidable "Advisory Board." The form we cannot think well chosen, being slab-sided as if for the pocket. Besides the contributed articles, there are regular "Comments on University News," edited by Edward S. Martin, to which it seems appropriate to give a humorous cast; and an "Athletic Department," edited by Walter Camp. Book notices bring up the rear, and are unsigned. We reserve further comment. We have found most interesting the unfinished article, "An American Collegian at Oxford," by John Corbin, and Mrs. Mabel Loomis Todd's excerpts from Emily Dickinson's prose and verse.

England is such an old, variously settled, and long-undisturbed country that it is especially rich in archæological interests. Among these are Deneholes, concerning which there is an interesting illustrated article in the April number of the *Reliquary* (London: Bemrose). The origin of these curious shafts and chambers sunk in the chalk formation (more especially in the valley of the Thames) is still shrouded in mystery. No reasonable theory has been put forward as to their origin and use. They date back possibly to the period of the Roman occupation of Britain. Camden, in the first English edition of his 'Britannia,' published in 1610, furnishes a rude illustration, and remarks, in connection with Tilbury fort: "Neere unto this place, there bee certaine holes, in the rising of a chalky hill, sunke into the ground tenne fathoms deepe, the mouth whereof is but narrowe, . . . but within they are large and spacious." The Essex Field Club has done good work in excavating and exploring those indicated by Camden, situated within a mile and a half of Grays, which is but an hour's railroad journey from London. It is well to add that without previous arrangement there are no means of descending or exploring.

The latest number of Petermann's *Mitteilungen* contains a summary of the newest hydrographic researches in the Baltic Sea, and a report from Dr. Sven Hedin of his recent exploration of the little Kara-kul lake in the Pamir. It derives its name, "Black Lake," from the fact that, on account of the wind, its surface is rarely covered with snow. The ice, as well as the water, is extraordinarily clear, and the weeds on the bottom at a depth of seventy feet can be plainly seen. The Kirghiz say that "the stars sparkle in it at night as in the heavens themselves." Dr. Karl Dove treats of the water-supply of German southwest Africa.

A recent number of the Danish *Geografiske Tids-skrift* contains an account of an expedition that was to leave Copenhagen early in May for the purpose of investigating the shores of Greenland. A liberal appropriation has been made by the *Rigsdag*, which will also cover the expense of a second voyage next summer, the climatic conditions limiting the work to four months. Besides the usual crew and officers, the party will consist of three zoölogists, a botanist, and a chemist. As one result of the enterprise, it is hoped that sufficient material will be collected to insure the publication of the 'Conspectus Faunæ Groenlandicæ,' now in preparation. Attention will be directed chiefly towards Davis Strait and Baffin's Bay.

On or before May 1, 1896, essays of original research in competition for a prize of $200 must be sent in anonymously to the President of Brown University. The themes are (1) a critical comparison of the claims of Rhode Island and Maryland respectively to precedence in establishing religious liberty in America; (2) a critical history of the movement towards disestablishment and religious liberty in Connecticut, and (3) Massachusetts. The prize will be awarded at Commencement, 1896. The giver is a friend of the University.

A friend and alumnus of the Chauncy Hall School, Boston, has recently offered seventy-five volumes of Shakspere as prizes to the pupils for memorizing the works of that poet. At least a thousand lines must be committed to entitle one to the first prize. If the experiment proves a success, the prize will be renewed, either at the same school or at others.

A timely addition to the "Old South Leaflets" (Boston) is 'The Monroe Doctrine,' making No. 56. The form is handy, and the appended notes exhaust the subject bibliographically.

—Mr. Humphry Ward, if we may go behind his anonymity, has written from New York a letter to the London *Times* with regard to American museums, which appeared on April 22, and in which some sound conclusions are mingled with mistakes in detail. It is stated that "the galleries owe their origin to the benefaction of some private collector, who leaves his pictures to the town, with money to provide a building." Then comes the remark about the trustees, that they are appointed as "friends of the family"; and although this, like the statement above, is only now and then true, what follows is of general application. These trustees are chosen, Mr. Ward thinks, "because they are prominent citizens, and not because they know anything about art." Moreover, "with a body of this sort the choice of new objects is apt to be of a somewhat nondescript kind. . . . We in Europe have long since discovered that the only way . . . is to appoint a really qualified man as director . . . and to fetter his discretion as little as possible. It is in this way that the National Gallery was raised by Sir Frederic Burton from a second-rate to a first rate position, and it is in this way that the Berlin Gallery, under Dr. Bode, has rapidly become its rival." An American who has watched the museums of his own country would be apt to say that purchase by opportunity has been the rule followed. A collection of porcelains, of engravings, or of ancient glass, a private gallery of old or modern pictures, is offered for sale. For some reason this particular opportunity excites interest; some money is offered towards its purchase provided more can be raised, and the remainder is raised by personal appeal. Other, generally smaller, collections are presented in single gifts. In this way of course the opportunities lost are apt to be fully as important as those improved, and if the complete record of any American museum could be made up, and the might-have-been compared with what is, the reading of it would surprise the more instructed public. Seldom has it been the case that a given work of art or a collection has been purchased deliberately and because it was felt to be the thing most needed. Never, it is safe to say, has an American museum raised any considerable fund and expended it with deliberation in buying as a thoroughly well-informed citizen would buy for himself. The apparent exceptions are those cases in which a definite sum has been set aside for the preliminary purchasing, and that sum put into the hands of a competent expert, as when Mr. Edward Robinson was employed to buy for the Slater Museum at Norwich.

—Mr. Ward calls attention to the Boston Museum of Fine Arts as being fortunate in having experts in charge of two of its departments—Mr. Robinson, above named, for classical antiquities, and, for Japanese art, Messrs. E. F. Fenollosa and E. S. Morse. It is an oversight that the sympathetic and devoted man who fills the place of director should not have been named. Mr. Charles G. Loring is not exactly an archæologist nor an expert in any one branch of fine art, but he is what is more needed in a place like his, a man with a

catholic taste, a hearty and reverential love for the works of art in his charge, and with a wide knowledge and sound judgment as to the field from which other works of art are to be drawn. As regards the New York Metropolitan Museum of Art, the account of its foundation and its singular relations with the city authorities is fairly correct. No very marked error occurs except the mention among the founders of the museum of two gentlemen who had nothing to do with it, and were named probably because they were well-known New Yorkers twenty years ago. The pictures, as a whole, are well characterized, the important ones chosen out for mention with good judgment, and, except that Mr. Ward thinks less of the "large and expensive casts and models" than the committees in charge would approve, the collections other than pictures are also well described. Especially just is the statement that in general the American collector of "Orientals" has gone straight to China and Japan, and has found his treasures "in the houses of the mandarins and the daimios, whose taste has always been different from that of the European collector, and, we may fairly say, purer."

—In the course of an article in the May number of the *Rundschau*, Herman Grimm makes some interesting comments upon the spirit of the age. The paramount value which attaches to the present moment he regards as the most striking characteristic of our time. We are absorbed in the life which we and our contemporaries are living; the past has lost its power to hold us; we are concerned only with what is new and alive, discarding the old and outlived; and the newspaper, as the purveyor of novelty and the universal means of communication between men, has become the chief factor in the machinery of modern civilization. "An irresistible impulse to feel free from the conditions which the past imposes" has seized upon Grimm himself; and the author of the 'Life of Michael Angelo' admits that he is no longer able to interest himself in the study of the past. Others, he says, have confessed to a similar experience. The forms of those elder times are fading; only a few, Christ, Homer, Shakspere, Goethe, still retain their outlines, for these have their being in an "everlasting now." "It is as if we had suddenly been transported into a new existence and had been permitted to take only our handluggage with us." The hatred with which Socialists look upon history, the resentment with which young writers of the Ibsen stamp regard other forms of literature, and the contempt which the secessionists feel for the older schools of painting, are all the products of this spirit. Much laborious burrowing is still going on among the dust-heaps of antiquity, but the faith of the public in the magic power of these things is gone; in Grimm's opinion, antiquarian research leads to nothing but the storing up of the "eternal-fragmentary." What we demand to-day is the new and novel; and we do not ask that it be great and good. The newspapers meet this demand; "they march at the head of our literary progress." These are strange words from that classic pen, and they seem to have been written without resentment or regret. They are the dispassionate statement of what the writer sees going on about him and reacting upon himself. He sees the past behind him wrapped in silence and studded with gravestones, and upon the palace of the Present he would inscribe the words of Bürger:

"Ach, lass sie ruh'n die Todten!"

—The centenary of the Paris École Normale Supérieure furnishes the occasion for the publication, by that institution, of a work which will contain, among other matter, the history of the 'École Normale de l'an III.,' by M. Paul Dupuy, favorably known by previous contributions to the history of that famous school, and notably by his volume entitled, 'L'École Normale (1810-1883): Notice historique, Liste des Élèves par promotions, Travaux littéraires et scientifiques.' M. Dupuy's latest researches have been in the direction of the origin and character of the idea leading to the foundation of the Paris Normal School by the decree of the Convention of the 9th Brumaire, An III. (October 30, 1794), and they will manifestly enrich the history of education with a chapter of more than ordinary interest. The idea of providing an institution for the training of principals and teachers for secondary schools had occupied the University as early as 1645; it had been resumed by the Parlement of Paris in 1761, after the expulsion of the Jesuits, and by the Church in 1780. Through educational reformers like Barletti de Saint-Paul and Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, it had been brought to the notice of the Government of the Revolution. But a far more important and effective impulse came from Alsace, and, through Alsace, from Germany. The account of this predominating influence of Alsace—"the only province of ante-revolutionary France able to furnish ideas and models" for popular instruction—in the history of the foundation of the École Normale is given in the section of M. Dupuy's work now published in advance in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for April. Many data, supported by documentary evidence, leave no doubt of the fact which the author seeks to establish. In July, 1793, during the discussion of a plan submitted by Robespierre, the idea and the name of *écoles normales pour former des instituteurs* were put forward. The law by which, in the following year, the Paris École Normale was established, provided that its students should go out and open other normal schools in the departments, just as the École des Armes sent its graduates from the *cours pour les poudres et salpêtres* back into their districts, there to organize manufactures of arms and gunpowder—two applications of the revolutionary method created by the Committee of Public Welfare. "The famous École des Armes was the real prototype of the École Normale."

—Dr. Joseph Edkins of China, the veteran scholar in the comparative philology of the Far East, contributes to the *Japan Mail* of March 30 a valuable paper on "The Origin of the Japanese." He gives the results of a searching study and wide comparison of the words used for numbers. The principle upon which he proceeds is that close resemblances are likely to be accidental, while slight resemblances are likely to be real. Between the Ainos and the Japanese the ten cardinal numbers differ so widely that we are forced to seek for kindred names of number on the Continent. Giving results and omitting details of processes, we find Dr. Edkins identifying the Japanese and Turkish words for one, four, seven, and nine, as of the same root and branch. He sums up his philological argument by concluding that at one time the Japanese were nomads in Siberia, and neighbors to the Turks and Mongols. Only after they reached "Nippon [Hondo]" and Kiushiu did they become acquainted with the Chinese. The sources of the contrariness between the Chinese and the Japanese are to be sought in the choice of a settled agricultural life by the one, and by the other of nomadic freedom. Dr. Edkins thinks it is quite possible to discover where the Japanese lived before they conquered the islands in which they now live. He urges that the scientific and comparative method be applied to the mythology and legends of both insulars and continentals.

—In primeval days, when the Japanese were far away in the north among the Tatar races, they, though remote from China, were sufficiently near the Indo-Germanic peoples to allow of and account for the rather large admixture of words common to the European and Japanese vocabularies. Dr. Edkins, in reasserting this fact, already known to students of the Japanese and the languages allied to or derivative from Sanskrit, refers, of course, to the old terms. A native writer, Mr. S. Fuzita, in *Shinri*, a Tokyo monthly magazine of scientific theology and philosophy, for March, 1895, discusses the modern phases of the subject. In his paper, "The European Elements in the Japanese Vocabulary," he gives a surprisingly large number of exotics which have become thoroughly domesticated. Omitting those words inherited from the sixteenth-century Portuguese and Spanish missionaries, and recently introduced Christian and theological terms, we note the wide range of the borrowing. The Dutch, Russian, and French, in their order, contribute the greater number of the contingent of expressions not taken from the English, which latter furnishes both single words and phrases. Noticeable is the proportion of words beginning with *g*, an initial letter rarely found in pure Japanese vocables; with *l*, a letter, or rather a sign-sound, unknown in the native syllabary; and *p*, which, as a rule, commences only onomatopes. We select a few of the new elements of Japanese conversation and ordinary public discourse: Bucket, butter, baby, beef, cheese, chair, influenza, ink, handkerchief, jam, ginger beer, halt, flag, cabbage, cholera, match, milk, napkin, overcoat, omelette, all right, organ, lemonade, ribbon, sandwich, sausage, cigar, cigarette, seat, stew, curry, soda, soap, soup, tobacco, violin, arch, ice-cream, etc., etc. The tendency to variety in pronunciation and spelling is corrected by the standard *kana* transliteration of the Tokyo newspapers and magazines.

—A century of existence for any institution west of the Alleghenies is a long period, and the University of Tennessee could claim this last year only by overlooking a period of suspended animation in 1808–1820, as we make out from Mr. Edward T. Sanford's interesting historical address just published by the University. The original Blount College was founded in Knoxville in the midst of Indian alarms, as, to compare small things with great, the University of Berlin was founded during Prussia's abasement to Napoleon's conquering arms; but Mr. Sanford does not fail to point out that in a slaveholding society there was no substratum of public schools for the higher education to rest upon. He has a hard task in defending the dealings of the founders and their fellow-squatters with the Indians; but the bad faith by which the college profited in the beginning was avenged by the perfidy that marked the State's execution of its pledge to Congress to endow the college with lands. Blount College, which nearly perished on being made East Tennessee College in 1807, was rescued from the grave by a union with the younger Hampden-Sidney Academy in

1820, under the new name; in 1840 it was magnified into a university, still local; in 1869 the State made it the beneficiary of the Congressional land grant for the founding of an Agricultural College, but with onerous conditions and without a particle of State aid, and even with a mean deduction from the fund of the expenses attending the sale of the scrip, as well as a dishonest failure to preserve inviolate the interest on the fund derived from the proceeds. In fact, Mr. Sanford's address is chiefly valuable as a contribution to the history of a too notorious trait of Southern character in the treatment of solemn public obligations, especially pecuniary. In 1879, the institution became the State University, and, in 1893, following the example of similar foundations, admitted women to its teachings, as Blount College had begun by doing.

COLERIDGE AS A LETTER-WRITER.

Letters of Samuel Taylor Coleridge. Edited by Ernest Hartley Coleridge. 2 vols., with portraits. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

It is not the fault of the editor if these letters are somewhat disappointing, as, for the most part, we must confess they are. There are interesting and touching passages, but they bear a small proportion to the mass, and these two portly volumes are rather materials for a biography than pleasant reading in themselves. Coleridge has no personal worshippers and few philosophical worshippers left to care for the commonplace details of his life. Literary form or grace the letters have none. Considering his indolence, Coleridge seems to have been a most voluminous correspondent, but with the possible exception of the five autobiographical letters addressed to Thomas Poole, none of the letters can have been intended for publication. The character of the writer, however, appears plainly enough, and we once more smile at the comical contrast between the magisterial morality of the philosopher and the pitiable weakness of the man. Coleridge, at all events, understood himself and his own mental history.

"So," he says, referring to his early love of fairy-tales and ghost-stories, "I became a dreamer and acquired an indisposition to all bodily activity; and I was fretful and inordinately passionate; and as I could not play at anything and was slothful, I was despised and hated by the boys; and because I could read and spell and had, I may truly say, a memory and understanding forced into almost unnatural ripeness, I was flattered and wondered at by all the old women."

From his childhood his mind had "been habituated to the Vast," and he "never regarded his senses in any way as the criteria of his belief." He would see armies of ugly spectres rushing upon him, and his good angel keeping them off. The man of whom this boy was the father might well in after-life reply to a lady who had asked him whether he believed in ghosts, "No, madam, I have seen too many of them."

Here is a piece of frank self-portraiture:

"As to me, my face, unless when animated by immediate eloquence, expresses great sloth, and great, indeed, almost idiotic good nature. 'Tis a mere carcass of a face: fat, flabby, and expressive chiefly of inexpression. Yet I am told that my eyes, eyebrows, and forehead are physiognomically good; but of this the deponent knoweth not. As to my shape, 'tis a good shape enough if measured, but my gait is awkward, and the walk of the whole man indicates *indolence capable of energies.* I am, and ever have been, a great reader, and have read almost everything—a library cormorant. I am *deep* in all out-of-the-way books, whether of the monkish times or of the puritanical era. I have read and digested most of the historical writers; but I do not *like* history. Metaphysics and poetry and 'facts of mind'—that is, accounts of all the strange phantasms that ever possessed 'your philosophy'; dreamers, from Thoth the Egyptian to Taylor the English pagan, are my darling studies. In short, I seldom read except to amuse myself, and I am almost always reading. Of useful knowledge, I am a so-so chemist, and I love chemistry. All else is *blank*; but I *will* be (please God) an horticulturist and a farmer. I compose very little, and I absolutely hate composition; and such is my dislike that even a sense of duty is sometimes too weak to overpower it.

"I cannot breathe through my nose. So my mouth, with sensual thick lips, is almost always open. In conversation I am impassioned, and oppose what I deem error with an eagerness which is often mistaken for personal asperity; but I am ever so swallowed up in the *thing* that I perfectly forget my *opponent.*"

We looked with interest for some confirmation of Lamb's picture of the inspired charity boy at Christ's Hospital unfolding to the casual passer through the cloisters, who stood entranced to hear, the mysteries of Jamblichus or Plotinus. But we find none, and that figure must be relegated to the delightful dreamland of Elia. The letters tell us little about Christ's Hospital; they tell us more about Cambridge, where we behold the sage sitting down to dinner in the college hall "in silence except the noise of suction which accompanies his eating," and rising in silence as he sat down. With Cambridge, too, is connected the farcical episode of the enlistment of "Silas Tomkyn Comberbacke" in G Troop of the Fifteenth or King's Regiment of Light Dragoons. The officers seem to have been wonderfully kind to their amazing recruit. They detailed Silas to take care of a sick comrade, thinking that to this his valor and horsemanship were equal, though it would be interesting to know the sick comrade's report of his nurse. Captain Ogle, who was himself well educated, talks to Silas whenever he comes to the stables, and sends him wine when he is sick. Silas has also the luck to find in the pot-house where he is quartered a man, surely not a dragoon, "of the greatest information and the most original genius he ever lit upon," who keeps him awake till three in the morning with ontological disquisitions.

Of the Pantisocratic episode we also get a good deal, and once more laugh at the contrast between the magnificence of the vision and the childish helplessness of the visionary as soon as he essays to take the first step towards practical fulfilment. He records with pleasure that "Lushington and Edwards have declared the system impregnable, supposing the assigned quantum of virtue and genius in the first individuals." We can faintly trace in the letters the progress of the philosopher from necessarianism (going the length of the belief that thought is corporeal) and Pantisocracy to Christianity and Toryism, or at least hearty sympathy with the war against the Revolution. "I have snapped," says the ex-Revolutionist, "my squeaking baby-trumpet of sedition, and the fragments lie scattered in the lumber-room of penitence." In a letter to John Thelwall, who had decried Christianity as a mean religion, there is a long passage in Coleridge's best style to which Christian apologists may refer with advantage.

Meantime Coleridge had to choose his line in life and determine how he was to make his bread. What he would have preferred would be, "like the Indian Vishnu, to float about in an infinite ocean, cradled in the flower of the lotus, and wake once in a million years for a few minutes just to know that he was going to sleep a million years more." He protested against being set to keep a school or write for a newspaper. The man who advised him to do either of these two things "he could not love." Nor, we shrewdly suspect, would either the pupils of the school or the editor of the newspaper have had reason to love that man. To become a Unitarian minister, he finally resolved, was a less evil than starvation. There was no need to starve, at all events when an annuity had been given him by the Wedgwoods, if he could only, like Southey, have buckled down steadily to literary work. He could form elaborate plans for a literary life, but they remained unfinished, like "Christabel" and "Kubla Khan." All his speculations are fine, but the practice never corresponds to the speculation. Here is the programme for dealing with differences of opinion:

"I have laid down for myself two maxims, and, what is more, I am in the habit of regulating myself by them. With regard to others, I never controvert opinions except after some intimacy, and when alone with the person, and at the happy time when we both seem awake to our own fallibility, and then I rather state my reasons than argue against his. In general conversation to find out the opinions common to us, or at least the subjects on which difference of opinion creates no uneasiness, such as novels, poetry, natural scenery, local anecdotes, and (in a serious mood and with serious men) the general evidences of our religion. With regard to myself, it is my habit, on whatever subject I think, to endeavor to discover all the good that has resulted from it, that does result, or that can result. To this I bind down my mind, and, after long meditation in this tract, slowly and gradually make up my opinions on the quantity and nature of the evil. I consider this as the most important rule for the regulation of the intellect and the affections, as the only means of preventing the passions from turning reason into a hired advocate."

Nothing can be more admirable. But presently we have a narrative of an encounter with Godwin:

"I was disgusted at heart with the grossness and vulgar insanocecity of this dim-headed pig of a philosophocide, when, after supper, his ill stars impelled him to renew the contest. I begged him not to goad me, for that I feared my feelings would not long remain in my power. He (to my wonder and indignation) persisted (I had not deciphered the cause), and then, as he well said, I did 'thunder and lighten at him' with a vengeance for more than an hour and a half. Every effort of self-defence only made him more ridiculous. If I had been Truth in person, I could not have spoken more accurately; but it was Truth in a war-chariot, drawn by the three Furies, and the reins had slipped out of the goddess's hands! . . . Yet he did not absolutely give way till that stinging *contrast* which I drew between him as a man, as a writer, and a benefactor of society, and those of whom he had spoken so irreverently. In short, I suspect that I seldom, at any time and for so great a length of time, so continuously displayed so much power, and do hope and trust that never did I display one-half the scorn and ferocity."

It is true that, before the meeting with Godwin, Mary Lamb had made Coleridge "a glass of punch of most deceitful strength," and that he wrote "an affecting and eloquent" letter as apology next morning.

On the close, darkness descends out of which cries of moral agony are heard.

RECENT ENGLISH POETRY.

Some twenty years ago, in the "greenery-yallery" stage of the Grosvenor Gallery in London, it was visited by wandering Americans as a change from the smug proprieties of the

Academy, though they often sought the latter temple of order again, as a change from the Grosvenor. In the latest English poetry, even in that which comes from the Bodley Head and the very headquarters of the *Yellow Book*, we see a reaction towards the standards of the Academy. It is well known that people sooner grow surfeited of the bizarre than even of the tame; and just now the Bodley Head is plainly disposed to forswear sack for a while, and live cleanly. The temporary outcome is, of course, commonplace. Lord de Tabley's new book, for instance, the second series of 'Poems, Dramatic and Lyrical' (London: Lane), has nothing in it to compare to the "Two Old Kings" of his former volume, and is not only tame in substance, but turgid. He transmutes Shakspere's *Cleopatra*, for instance, into this conventional and made-up creature (p. 8):

"So when proud Egypt in her fleet
Beat up, with canvas all unfurled,
Inflamed with Mœreotic heat,
To wreck the realm and clutch the world:

"Drunk with the wine of prosperous hours,
Insane to hope the wildest good,
She, queenly crowned with lotus-flowers,
Swept silken-sailed across the flood;

"Came with mosquito-nets, and came
With eunuchs, a decrepit band,
While, doting at her apron, tame,
The great triumvir gave command.

"But when she saw her burning ships
And heard the roaring of the fire,
The wanton paled her painted lips
And fled the falcon Cæsar's ire."

Probably there is no better safeguard against bad taste, for poet or common man, than an adequate sense of the ludicrous. In this Lord de Tabley seems deficient. The want seems also shared by Mr. Matthew Hunt, author of 'The King's Daughter, and Other Poems' (Stock), or he would not have risked a verse like this (p. 7):

"Luscious-scented honeysuckle
Straggles o'er the hedge,
Bulrush black and hard to pluck 'll
Hide the water-hen whose chuckle
Comes from out the sedge;
Marigold a loveless luck 'll
Bring to those that falsely pledge."

Mr. Arthur Christopher Benson, more guardedly, places at the head of his 'Lyrics' (Lane) some verses called "A Canticle of Common Things," and adheres manfully to his text. Yet his tone is good, and he gives us the satisfaction of choosing some unfamiliar themes, as water-newts and sky-rockets. This is perhaps the most graceful of his lays (p. 6):

AT TAN-YR-ALLT

Feathery woodlands, falling, dipping,
Down from the height to the river's edge:
Voice of the rivulet, dashing, dripping,
Crevice by crevice, ledge upon ledge;
Lawns high-sloping and sunlit spaces,
Glades that glimmer from crag to plain,
Shy unvisited secret places,
See, I fall at your feet again!

Voice of summer, delaying, coming,
Thrushes piping in bush and brake,
Bees round feathery catkins humming,
Buds that slumber and fear to wake;
Frail anemones, airy, slender,
Stars engendered of wind and dew,
Celandines faithful, violets tender,
Oh, to be worthy to sing of you!

Even this, it must be owned, ends tamely. Mr. Benson, who is an instructor at Eton College, dedicates his volume to Mr. Edmund Gosse. Mr. Gosse himself, who, out of all his various languages and literatures, has never yet extracted one really impressive or haunting poem, gives us in this volume, 'In Russet and Silver' (Chicago: Stone & Kindall), nothing else so felicitous as the title and the binding. Both these are effective; but he translates from the Dutch, the Swedish, and the Spanish, with the usual tame result, and imitates the Elizabethan lyrists and masquers without once catching their note. His meditations on his own advancing years are perhaps as much in earnest as anything he writes, but are scarcely attuned to music (p. 4):

"So, not forgetful of the past,
Nor sulking that it did not last:
Rememb'ring, like a song's lost notes,
The gleaming husks of my wild oats;

"Not, priggish, glorying in a boast
That I have never lov'd nor lost;
Not, puritanic, with a flail
Destroying others' cakes and ale:

"But, with new aims and hopes, prepare
To love earth less and more haunt air:
And be as thankful as I can
To miss the beast that harries man."

Mr. William Watson's new volume, 'Odes and Other Poems' (Macmillan), contains a poem addressed to Mr. Benson as a brother bard. Mr. Watson's muse is one of those painfully checked by publicity; he promised at first a clearer and simpler note than his fellows, and one still detects the flavor of Wordsworth and sometimes of Matthew Arnold. But, like the latter, he is academic; and there is no such stress of culture and of experience as that which forced itself through Arnold's natural restraints. Watson is placid and jejune; he never repels, but he does not kindle.

A placid evenness is what one always expects from the patient literary workman, Mr. Alfred Austin, and his 'Madonna's Child' (Macmillan)—a reprint of the second act of "The Human Tragedy"—forms no exception to his literary record. It contains, however, some pleasing Italian descriptions. The volume of 'Poems,' by John Devenish Hoppus (Bentley), is published by a sister, the well-known novelist Mrs. Alfred Marks, in memory of a brother who died fifteen years ago, a young medical student, to whom she attributes an intense earnestness and mental activity which are not, perhaps, fully represented in these verses. The most imaginative among them is the "Doch-an-Dorrach," or death-song (p. 75), which might well have prefigured his own departing. 'A Book of Words, reprinted in part from *Punch*, by A. A. S., editor and translator of "The Inspector-General" (a Russian comedy), with a few sketches by the Author' (Constable), is one of those laborious English collections of the flattest rhythmic jokes, worthy only of the dance-hall in quality and wholly exhausting to the feeblest American mind. There is plenty of rattling pun and ready rhyming; and yet "the heart misdoubting asks, Can this be joy?" Perhaps as good a joke as any is the transmutation of Whit Monday into Whit-manday—"A Bank-Holiday Impression," followed by dithyrambics which begin as follows (p. 103):

"Starting from my diggings near the Circus, where I keep,
Over an Aerated Bread Shop (which people who ought to know better will persist in calling Areated),
Now this Fourteenth of May, Eighteen-Hundred-and-Ninety-four, having put on my last season's top-hat and my grey striped nether-garments, unmentionable, but in fairly good repair, and not yet frayed at the edges,
(Camerado, whoever you are, I care not, I take you by the button-hole, I chant in your ear this poem of details, I insist on your listening to these personal details, I dig you in the ribs. Libertad for ever!)
Aware of the fact that this is Bank Holiday,
Aware of the fact that the place is chockfull of 'Arries and 'Arriets, two and two, but occasionally ten in a row. . . ."

'Rhymes of Rajputana,' by Col. G. H. Trevor, C. S. I., agent to the Governor-General of Rajputana (Macmillan), is a stately volume of Indian poems and lyrics, with a good deal that is interesting—in the notes. The verses themselves are so much less effective than those drawn from the same sources by Sir Edwin Arnold, or even by Kipling, that they have little positive worth; and there is a constant dipping into so-called Americanisms which would of itself be sufficient to show that their author, whatever else he may be, is clearly not an American. Thus, the following epistle, supposed to be written in 1764 by Raja Gaj Singh of Bikanis (p. 91):

"We little thought my friend our host
Was fooling us with elephant fights
And fountains playing, feasts and sights,
And dancing girls. What riles me most
Is—not the time in waiting lost
To hear if he would send his aid
To guard your fort against the raid
Of those Mahrattas who are round it
And growing much too strong, confound it!"

Much more serious and thoughtful, while also Oriental in spirit, is 'Homeward Songs by the Way,' by A. E. (Portland: Mosher), a little volume reprinted from a Dublin edition. The preface says: "I moved among men and places, and in living I learned the truth at last. I know I am a spirit, and that I went forth in old time from the Self-ancestral to labors yet unaccomplished; but filled ever and again with homesickness I made these songs by the way." The poems have the mystic and sometimes incomprehensible quality that one might expect from such an origin. The best are those which were apparently produced during some stage of being in Hindostan.

'In a Garden, and Other Poems,' by the Rev. H. C. Beeching (London: Lane; New York: Macmillan), is another of the books that may be regarded by the publisher of Beardsley and of Wilde as a propitiation to the demurer public. Some of the poems are, indeed, avowedly religious, and may be the object of derision among the younger swaggerers who fiercely curl their moustaches and defy all that is *bourgeois*, around the approaches to the Bodley Head. The publisher himself seems bound to offer a like atonement to these darker and more heroic spirits, for he has put upon the title-page a strangely funereal and Beardsley-ish approach to Mr. Beeching's otherwise cheerful garden. Nor can the fruits of this horticulture be regarded, in truth, as highly flavored; but the transplantations from the garden of Hellas, in the form of translations, are excellent.

In 'The Mummer, and Other Poems,' by Henry Gaëlyn (London: Stock), the title-poem has strength, but the best thing in the volume is this vigorous sermon on a Shakspere text:

"That land of such dear souls, that dear, dear land" (p. 17):

"O, England, God hath given thee quiet years,
And plenty, and great vantage, and wide sway;
But now dark clouds are closing round thy way,
And all that love thee are beset with fears;
Dreading to see thee humbled and in tears,
To hungry nations fallen an easy prey:
Most lamentable in thy swift decay,
A laughing-stock where once thou hadst no peers.

"Remember all thou holdest in thy hand.
Be vigilant, be strong, spare not thy store,
Nor yet with treacherous calms be thou beguiled.
A foeman's foot upon thy virgin shore
Would stamp thee ever as a thing defiled,
O land of such dear souls, O, dear, dear land!"

It certainly must be counted to the credit of the "Bodley Head" publishers that they have printed, in 'A Little Child's Wreath,' by Elizabeth Rachel Chapman (London: Mathews & Lane; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.), one of the most exquisite tributes ever paid by a mother's heart to the memory of a child. Mrs. Chapman calls herself "author of a companion to In Memoriam"; but this book is itself an In Memoriam of childhood, giving in a sequence of sonnets some faint reflection of that wonderful range of thought and cadence which made the elder and greater book an era in many sorrowing lives. Rising by varied steps above the personal anguish, she strikes at last a note so high as the following (No. xxxvii, p. 38):

Yea, lonely still and evermore without,
Shamed and forgotten by the weed-grown door,
Standeth the Christ, while rings the battle-shout,
While statesmen wrangle and while madmen roar,

Spurned is the lord of peace, his message spurned
As when his people thorns for solace gave;
As when Servetus or when Cranmer burned,
Or England dared to side against the slave.

Hark, from the savage wilds they go to tame,
Hark, what discordant sounds affront the ear!
His very priests, contending in his name,
Make it a thing of hate and scorn and fear.

Only the child his loving liegeman is,
And lays a timid hand, consoled, in his.

The most refreshing break that occurs, however, among these rather monotonous English voices, is from that Celtic muse which we have before now pointed out as the healthiest and purest source of contemporary British literature. The note, the themes, the very localities which appear in Lionel Johnson's 'Poems' (London: Mathews; Boston: Copeland) afford a relief from much in the recent London tone. The author is, like Ernest Rhys, Welsh-born and English-bred; he boasts himself a "Wykehamist" of Winchester College; he takes pride in 'England's Excellence' as enough for him (p. 33). Yet his talk is of Tara and Inisfail; of Rhual and Clywyd. His lyric verses suggest that fresh cadence brought by Bliss Carman from Canada, and they might sometimes be mistaken for those of the younger poet (p. 17):

"Sea-gulls, wheeling, swooping, crying,
Crying over Maes Garmon's side!
Cold is the wind for your white wings flying;
Cold and dim is our gray spring-tide."

But the English poet is much maturer; he has, moreover, a vast array of friends, to one of whom he inscribes each poem, as becomes a member of the Rhymers' Club; he is a Roman Catholic, and, besides all this, one of the still undiscouraged worshippers of the soiled Parnell. But he is most inspired when he puts into verse the purely Celtic quality, as in this (p. 41):

"TO WEEP IRISH."

(To the Rev. Dr. William Barry.)

Long Irish melancholy of lament,
Voice of the sorrow that is on the sea:
Voice of that ancient mourning music sent
From Rama childless: the world wails in thee!

The sadness of all beauty at the heart,
The appealing of all souls unto the skies,
The longing locked in each man's breast apart,
Weep in the melody of thine old cries.

Mother of tears, sweet mother of sad sighs,
All mourners of the world weep Irish, weep
Ever with thee: while burdened time still flies,
Sorrows reach God through thee, and ask for sleep.

And though thine own unsleeping sorrow yet
Live to the end of burdened time, in pain,
Still sing the song of sorrow, and forget
The sorrow, in the solace, of the strain.

It is pleasing to an American to find that the genius of Hawthorne has also reached this young Celto-Englishman, who writes of our fellow-countryman in this fine manner (p. 43):

HAWTHORNE.

(To Walter Allison Phillips.)

Ten years ago I heard, ten have I loved,
Thine haunting voice borne over the waste sea.
Was it thy melancholy spirit moved
Mine, with those gray dreams that invested thee?
Or was it that thy beauty first reproved
The imperfect fancies that looked fair to me?

Thou hast both secrets, for to thee are known
The fatal sorrows binding life and death;
And thou hast found, on winds of passage blown,
That music which is sorrow's perfect breath;
So, all thy beauty takes a solemn tone,
And art is all thy melancholy saith.

Now, therefore, is thy voice abroad for me
When through dark woodlands murmuring sounds make way:
Thy voice, and voices of the sounding sea,
Stir in the branches, as none other may:
All pensive loneliness is full of thee,
And each mysterious, each autumnal day.

Hesperian soul! Well hadst thou in the West
Thine hermitage and meditative place;
In mild, retiring fields thou wast at rest,
Calmed by old winds, touched with aerial grace:
Fields whence old magic simples filled thy breast,
And unforgotten fragrance balmed thy face.

Reminiscences by Thomas M. Clark, D.D., LL.D., Bishop of Rhode Island. T. Whittaker.

Bishop Clark's autobiography will make its most obvious appeal to those personal friends whose name is always legion where we have a man of his genial temper, a character so unascetic, a disposition so friendly to the pleasant side of life. It will appeal with almost equal emphasis to the ecclesiastics of his church, and to all who are interested in its history. Concerning this, as concerning his personal fortunes and achievements, his tone is as different as possible from that of certain other clerical autobiographers who have recently called attention to their unappreciated worth. We do not get the impression of any remarkable engrossment in either theological or practical affairs, and in the text we fail to find the magnificent ecclesiastic who confronts us in the photographic frontispiece. The tone throughout is rather secular than ecclesiastical, the insistence more on what is simply human and manly than on what is formal and official, the admiration of the writer going out to men less in proportion to their theological soundness or clerical efficiency than in proportion to their warmth of sympathy and their instincts of good-fellowship. The concrete aspects of our American development have for him a peculiar fascination. In one of his chapters he gives a partial list of his lectures on lyceum and other platforms, and the general impression we receive is that of a mind extremely practical. One lecture, "The Living Machine," was delivered 350 times. He once detected an aged clergyman preaching a sermon on old age which had been written sixty years before. It would seem that "The Living Machine" must have run about as long. About 1850, heedless of Hosea Biglow's warning, then of recent date, he wrote a prophetic lecture, "The Next Fifty Years." There are not many prophecies in the Old Testament that have been so literally fulfilled. The palace-car and dining-car are there with our electrical street-lighting and lighthouses, the typewriter, and nominally the phonograph, the anticipation not extending to the details of Edison's machine.

If boastfulness is the distinguishing note of loyal churchmanship, Bishop Clark is not a loyal churchman, for boasting is not in his line. He is at no greater pains to make his church appear without blemish than was Dr. McConnell in his 'History of the American Episcopal Church,' published four or five years ago. He speaks of personal religion as something "of which the Episcopal Church in times gone by had no occasion to boast." Of the ministry as he found it in 1835 he has but feeble praise, and his depreciation of the earlier things is no mere background judiciously painted dark in order to bring out the later things into more forcible relief. His optimistic temper helps him to believe that there has been improvement on the whole, but his attitude towards the ritualistic tendency and the multiplication of guilds and other like appendages of the modern church, is rather that of amused endurance than of cordial acquiescence. This lack of absolute engagement, this absence of any high-and-mighty tone, is the more remarkable because Bishop Clark was not to the Episcopalian manner born, but to the Presbyterian, and for the ministry of the Presbyterian Church he was educated at Princeton. He made but brief trial, however, of the Presbyterian ministry. He says: "My entrance into the Episcopal Church was precipitated by consciousness of my unfitness to express in extemporaneous prayer the sentiments of an intelligent congregation whose Christian experience had in a great many cases been matured before I was born." He is more reticent about the other reasons for his change of base, but we are left to infer that the "new terms of communion in other bodies," anti slavery, total abstinence, and so on, made the Episcopal Church attractive for him in comparison, standing as it did "very much aloof from all forms of organization outside her own borders," "undisturbed by any matters pertaining to secular affairs."

The change in this respect has taken place, for the most part, since the war. There is a sign of this in the chapter on the General Convention which met at Richmond in 1859. There was great difficulty in finding a subject for a Pastoral Letter. "Lotteries, card-playing, dancing, horse-racing, and theatrical performances were suggested; but just how to discriminate in dealing with these evils—if they were evils at all—did not appear. . . . The result was the Church was blessed with no Pastoral that year." Bishop Clark was on the Pastoral Committee, and he thinks that "a gentle suggestion of [his] as to the matter of slavery may have tended to produce this result." The trial of John Brown was proceeding at the time, and we have the testimony of another Episcopalian that not a word concerning that "obscene tumult" was spoken in the convention. Bishop Clark's chapter, "The Late War," is equally silent on the subject of slavery. The word does not occur. But the Bishop was an ardent Unionist and an active member of the Sanitary Commission. Consequently he saw something of Lincoln, but his reminiscences of him are unimportant, excepting possibly his mild anger when the Commission was crowding him more than he liked. "It looks to me as if you would like to run this machine," he said.

Before attaining to the bishopric, Dr. Clark resided in Boston, in Hartford, and in Philadelphia, and he has written much more expansively about his clerical contemporaries in these cities than about his own sayings and doings. The stories are often slight, the details often trivial, but occasionally we get a pleasant touch, a happy characterization. Bishop Griswold had feared for himself that he might suffer from too much dining out, but at the time of this confession he had only been invited out to dine once, and that by a clergyman of his diocese. Such an experience would justify the traditional *nolo episcopari*. The pages on Bishop Eastburn are more interesting because of certain of his limitations which are suggested rather than displayed. How gracious he could be is shown by his inviting one of his clergymen to preach in the morning, contrary to his custom, as the gentleman reminded him. "But this is a very hot day," said the Bishop, "and there will be hardly anybody there, and I think you had better preach." As an example of his "ample and flowing style," we have his paraphrase of "the broad way" of the Gospel as "that vast arena frequented by far the largest numerical majority." King's Chapel is spoken of as having "relapsed into Unitarianism," but we have never understood that it was originally Unitarian. This is not the only time the Bishop nods, as his proof-reader should have told him, at the same time correcting his spelling of Olmsted and Mansel. Delicious is the story of the English lady who profited much more by Bishop Eastburn's discourse than by Dr. Vinton's, because she could not help listening to the latter, "and so she lost the benefit of the discipline which she had

in trying to follow the Bishop." There is an account of the first Pan-Anglican Conference which minimizes the event as much as possible, and in fact a good many of the solemn functions in which the Bishop shared are made to appear in his narrative as if seen through an inverted telescope. Phillips Brooks, on the contrary, appears in his last chapter in the full proportions of his physical height and bulk, and of his corresponding mind and heart. The testimony is that of an intimate friend, but, this chapter being mainly an extract from a memorial discourse, it is less ungirt than the preceding chapters—a difference which is not for the better.

The Annals of a Quiet Valley in the Wordsworth Country. By a Country Parson. Edited by John Watson. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.

THIS is one of the infrequent volumes which fall gently and restfully from the press into the hands of the reader tired with the blare of sensationalism, or fagged by the rush of fresh-made opinion into print. There is not the semblance of a reason why speed should be made to read such a volume, as time is likely to heighten, rather than diminish, its interest. Its author could not for a sane moment be seriously likened to White, or Walton, or Goldsmith, yet there is just a touch of all of them in his pages. If the reader is addicted to moods of reaction, and likes, once in a way, to brood and philosophize upon the past, there is food here for retrospect, and material with which to humor a philosophic fit to the top of its bent.

For this country parson writes of good old ways, in the good old times, among the hardy dalesfolk or "statesmen," the race of northern yeomen who were content to wear out their bodies in toil, and let it be with their brains as Providence and the parson willed. If the parson sat at his wheel and spun the carded wool while he taught school behind the Communion rails in the church, no stanch dalesman thought the less of his pedagogy; nor of his divinity on the Sunday because he eked out his tithes—a penny on the account of each odd lamb, a halfpenny for each odd goose, two eggs for each old hen and duck, also for every person keeping bees a penny, and the like—by tilling his glebe on the week-day, by hiring himself out at the busy times of washing the sheep in the fell becks, of shearing, and of hay-harvesting, or by trudging his eight miles to the market with thirty-two pounds weight of his wool on his muscular shoulders. That such a parson should be a man to lend himself to quaint anecdote, and his parish clerk another of the same humorous ilk, is a natural expectation amply fulfilled here. The carrier, also, as a public servant had naturally a reputation at the mercy of the public tongue. But he belonged to the new order, when innovation in the shape of wheels had reached the dale, after the post-road had passed its foot and doctors given warning of the disorders—"chief among which was apoplexy"—risked by venturing into the wild and whirling vehicles that ran upon it. Until then, pack-horses had served the heavier needs of the valley, and peddlers supplied the women-folk with the few articles of wear that were not the work of their own industrious hands. Now, alas, honest homespun stuffs have gone out of fashion, together with the arts of spinning the hempen or woollen cloth, of knitting or of sewing, and the country girls find service in the provincial towns "genteeler" than work on the hillside farms their forefathers helped to reclaim from the mountains.

Comparative strangers have taken the place of the old fell-folk: "the church, too, has changed, and the parson—everything, in fact, but the illimitable mountains that shape the valley." Even the neatly turned wooden cups and saucers, the inexclusive three-mouthed pewter posset-cups, and the meal bread, have given place in the homesteads to tea-drinking and brittle china, with the delicate wheaten loaf. The homely customs and daily trivialities of the large, smoky firesides contemporaneous with the former, make the staple of the volume that has no other lore besides, except that of the wild and lovely nature of the Lake District. Nevertheless, it is conceivable the reader may feel there is more of wisdom in its pages than in many a volume where the "meddling intellect" has played a larger part. The pleasant illustrations, by Bertha Newcombe, are altogether in keeping with the modest faithfulness of the text.

Britain's Naval Power. By Hamilton Williams, M.A. Macmillan.

THIS story of the British Navy covers the period from the earliest times down to the victory of Trafalgar. The author is instructor in English literature to the naval cadets in training on board the *Britannia* for the naval service of Great Britain. He has been notably successful in compressing in a limited space the salient facts in English naval history, and in his earlier chapters presents much of interest that is little known concerning the early days of the English Navy. This interest is well sustained throughout, and though Mr. Williams is evidently much influenced by the works of Captain Mahan and others, the book is none the less praiseworthy on that account.

An interesting account is given, in the second chapter, of the fleet collected by Richard I., which accompanied him in 1190 to the Crusades—a fleet that sailed in eight separate lines, each line being spaced by a trumpet-call distance from the next, with Richard himself in the eighth line commanding and regulating the whole. Before reaching Palestine a most remarkable vessel of the enemy was encountered—a Turkish dromon carrying "1,500 men, Greek fire in abundance, and 200 most deadly serpents for the destruction of the Christians." Urged by Richard, the crew of his vessel leaped overboard and succeeded in disabling the enemy's rudder so that she could not be steered. Unable to board her, the English galleys formed in line, and, at a given signal, hurled their iron beaks together upon the huge dromon, with the result that she sank at once, carrying down most of her crew and drowning (we are glad to relate) the 200 serpents.

In the third chapter we have well described the battle of Sluys, which occurred in 1340 on the Flemish coast, between the English and French fleets, the latter being at anchor, and consisting of 190 vessels with no less than 35,000 men on board. The usual fate of fleets at anchor was suffered by the French, notwithstanding that they met "the dogged insular persistency" of the English with the usual "brilliant bravery" of their own nation. So crushing was this defeat that tradition relates that no one of the courtiers of the French King was bold enough to break the news to him—a task finally performed by the Court fool. Interesting, also, is the account of the battle of "L'Espagnols-sur-mer," in 1350, with the vivid description of the defence of the *Salle de Roi* and the other naval exploits which gave to Edward the Third the sobriquet of "King of the Sea."

The vicissitudes of the English Navy are related in the succeeding chapters, which are illustrated by a number of quaint old engravings. The story of the Armada is well told, and with sufficient detail to be entertaining, and finally we are brought down to the time of George I. and the battle off Cape Passaro in 1718. The somewhat doubtful episode of Jenkins's ear, said to have occurred during the reign of George II., is related, with an account of the war against the Spaniards in 1739, and Vernon's victory at Porto Bello, on the Isthmus of Panama, and his subsequent failures and disgrace. We reach more solid ground when we accompany Anson on his voyages, wonderful in experience and hardships, and to be commended to the youthful mariners of the present day as instances of what "rounding the Horn" and cruising in the Pacific meant in 1740, when the *Gloucester*, disabled and scurvy-stricken, was a whole month from the day she was sighted from Juan Fernandez in reaching her anchorage at that island.

The French and Spanish wars of the latter part of the last century are treated in the main with correctness, and sufficient prominence is given to the most important events. In the matter of our war for independence, the author, as a rule, does justice to the efforts of the Americans afloat and ashore, the affair at Penobscot being an exception. The three Continental cruisers and thirteen privateers were there overpowered by a much stronger force of regular men-of-war, which included a line-of-battle ship, under Sir George Collier. Faulty, too, is the description of the loss of the *Royal George* at Spithead in 1782. A moment's warning was certainly given, as has been pointed out in these columns, to the officers on duty, and the capsizing was owing partly to neglect and want of care as well as to the wind and increasing sea of the roadstead.

The last three chapters are devoted to the wars with the French republic and the French empire, glorious to the navy of Great Britain, and from which she emerged as the great sea-power of the world. The author is happy in his account of these wars. Perhaps a proper appreciation is wanting of the disorganized and demoralized condition of the French Navy that resulted from the French Revolution—a condition to which the French Army rapidly adjusted itself. Englishmen, we suspect, do not, as they should, read the lucid writings of Jurien de la Gravière upon these wars. They acknowledge, however, the individual bravery generally shown by the French, and the losses of English vessels of war were so few and far between that there is no temptation to resort to the hair-splitting so prevalent in discussing the tonnage, weight of guns and shot, nativity of crew, etc., of the frigates and sloops that fought actions in our own war with Great Britain in 1812. The author is mistaken, we think, as to Nelson's idea being to go straight ahead for Copenhagen by the quickest route. His suggestion (see Nelson's Despatches, vol. iv., p. 355) was that the Russian fleet should be attacked first at Revel and destroyed before the English fleet was weakened by the attack upon Copenhagen. Fell the trunk first, he said, and the branches go with it.

Churches and Castles of Mediæval France. By Walter Cranston Larned. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. Pp. xii, 236. 1895.

THIS book contains 24 of those photographic

prints which are so common nowadays, and which certainly add to the amount and to the good quality of popular knowledge. The views of the west fronts of great French cathedrals, Amiens, Chartres, Bourges, and such châteaux as Chaumont and Chenonceaux, are as important to give as if they were not already well known. Such views as that of the ramparts of Carcassonne, the castle of Falaise, and the apse of Beauvais seen from the south over the tops of the houses, are of much less familiar subjects. All are valuable, not one but what will furnish at once information and artistic pleasure, while many will serve to correct the hasty and ill considered remarks to be found in the text.

Of the text there are twenty-five chapters, the first devoted to "the Historical Monuments of France," and so far valuable that it informs the reader that there are certain buildings which are classed under that title and cared for by the State. The statements contained in this chapter are often inaccurate and misleading, and no mention is made of the Commission des Monuments Historiques nor of the real organization of this branch of the public service. The other chapters are devoted to the different cathedrals, castles, and walled towns, with the usual mixture in the chapters of description and the expression of opinion with anecdotes of travel. Beauvais Cathedral is found "far too high for its length," and therefore "out of proportion," but no mention is made of the fact that only the choir and transepts stand for the cathedral, as the nave was never built. The aqueduct-bridge which spans the river Gard, a building with absolutely no decorative or artistic purpose whatever, is gravely instanced as a contrast to the beautiful temple at Nîmes, which, by the way, our author takes to be "Greek." It is stated that it is not in temples, *e. g.*, in the Maison Carrée, under consideration, "that the chief glory of Roman architecture was to be found," and we are taken to the Pont du Gard for what was its chief glory from this point of view: its mere bigness and solidity. It is odd, by the way, that such enthusiasts as our author never stop to inquire whether, in engineering matters, the moderns are not fairly skilled rivals of the ancients. A few miles distant from the Pont du Gard is the larger structure which carries the aqueduct to Marseilles, the bridge of Roquefavour; and no Roman bridge that we know of compares with the Maintenon aqueduct, nor surpasses half-a-dozen other modern structures that might be named. The beauty and the importance of Roman architecture were not in these objects of mere utility.

The book makes no pretence to exact knowledge or to critical discrimination; the brief prefatory note is perfectly explicit as to that and is pleasantly frank. Neither in the note, however, nor in the pages of the book is there any reason offered or implied for the making of such a book. They exist by scores already —books by travellers who find cathedrals impressive, ruined castles romantic, and buildings where famous people have lived, useful texts for their historical reminiscences. It would be difficult without using terms more severe than the occasion warrants to express the remoteness from just and adequate criticism of most of the remarks upon important works of art with which this book is filled.

A Manual for the Study of Insects. By John Henry Comstock, Professor of Entomology in Cornell University and in Leland Stanford Junior University, and Anna Botsford Comstock, Member of the Society of American Wood-Engravers. Ithaca, N. Y.: Comstock Publishing Co. 1895. Large 8vo, pp. 701; 6 plates, 797 figures.

THE publication of this volume is the completion of a work which has been in preparation for at least a decade of years—a portion of it having appeared in 1888, under the title of 'An Introduction to Entomology.' The original plan has meantime undergone some modification, and the authors believe that in its present form the Manual will more fully meet the wants of teachers and students. There has long been a demand for an elementary work that should present the study of insects in a systematic manner, with so much classification as would permit the habits and names of the more important groups, if not of individual species, to be readily ascertained, and the study successfully prosecuted both in its scientific aspect and in its practical application. Such has been the aim in the preparation of the present Manual, and, so far as can be judged from the somewhat limited examination we have given it, it has been attained. Prof. Comstock is a successful instructor in Cornell University. For several years he has been engaged in working out an entirely new system of classification in the Lepidoptera, which, so far as given to the public, had already been accepted by many of our leading entomologists; it has been more fully elaborated in the present volume, in which, also, has been introduced a uniform system of nomenclature in the several orders of insects (particularly in regard to the wing-veins), the want of which has hitherto been a great annoyance to the student in general entomology, in passing from one order to another.

Perhaps the best feature of the Manual is the analytical keys, by the aid of which insects may be readily referred to the respective orders, and, with no great amount of study, to their several families. Beyond this the limits of a single volume would not permit the tables to be carried. Of course, means by which the student could refer an insect to its genus and to its particular species, such as we have in our botanical manuals, is a great desideratum, but wholly impracticable at present. The cost of such a work would not admit of its preparation, nor of its remunerative sale; its magnitude would forbid its use in the classroom. The briefest descriptions available for recognition of the species so far as now known would necessitate a score or more of volumes of the size of the present one. But from the more than 800 figures contained in the Manual, most of which, it is understood, have been engraved on wood by the associate author with the skill and fidelity only to be attained by the zealous entomologist after years of devoted labor, the merest tyro will easily be able to name many of the specimens in his collection, especially in the Lepidoptera, to which more than 200 pages are assigned. Thirty or more of our butterflies are beautifully figured and their principal features given, and many other species succinctly characterized. In recognition of the growing demand of the day, many of the species mentioned are discussed in their economic aspect.

In the division of the insects into orders, a larger number has been designated than by Brauer or Packard or any other writer. Nineteen orders are recognized, no less than nine of which were originally embraced in the Neuroptera. Several of these contain but a single family each and embrace but a few insects, and it is questionable whether their structural differences are sufficiently marked to call for their assignment into groups of ordinal value. There are many who would prefer a more simple classification not departing quite so far from the old seven orders; for it is evident that if ordinal grouping is to be carried to the point where the true relationship and line of descent of the groups shall be fully shown, it may be continued indefinitely without ever reaching a stage that will be entirely satisfactory. The erection of new orders certainly does not necessarily imply progress, for no two systematists will agree on what they shall embrace or what name they shall bear. The student is perplexed by this constant suggestion of change, and, in despair, falls back upon the simple and convenient seven-order system of Linnæus (amended by Olivier in withdrawing Aptera and adding Orthoptera), which had been quite generally adopted by our naturalists fifty years ago and is not yet obsolete, especially if we add the two orders of Pseudoneuroptera and Thysanura. In their own justification the authors of the Manual state: "It seems to us easier for the student to learn the characters of a large number of well-defined groups than it is to learn those of a smaller number of vaguely defined groups."

The chapter on "Insects and their Near Relatives," briefly reviewing the animals made up of a series of rings or segments on some of which jointed legs occur, will be found useful and important, as showing the true place of insects in the animal kingdom. In the following chapter, which treats of the Hexapoda, their metamorphoses and external anatomy are ably and comprehensively explained and illustrated. Finally, students will appreciate the indication, in parenthesis, of the syllables and accent of each scientific name introduced. Partial accentuated lists had previously been given in several of the families, but nothing nearly so full as this.

Furth in Field: A Volume of Essays on the Life, Language, and Literature of Old Scotland. By Hugh Haliburton. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams.

MR. HALIBURTON'S essays cover four groups of subjects, but they are so short and so superficial in treatment as to suggest the suspicion that they are merely a collection of newspaper articles. The most important and original is the series which describes the scenery of Roxburgshire around Ednam, the birthplace of the poet Thomson, and Southdean (Soudan), his father's parish, where he spent all the most impressionable years of his life. Our author traces effectively the influence of the natural beauties of his home on, and the direction it gave to, the poetical faculties of the author of the 'Seasons.' Short as these articles are, they contain frequent repetitions—evidence of very careless reëditing.

Another series proves, what very few deny, that Burns was well read in poetry, and that he borrowed more often unconsciously, through the inevitable process of assimilation which works in every retentive mind, than consciously, as our author would have us believe, from the sources of his reading.

What might have been the most interesting of the essays are those which are handled least thoroughly, namely, descriptions of the rural customs, vanishing from the Scottish Lowlands, such as the festival of "The Bear Barrel," held during the barley harvest; "The Foy," or feast given to former fellow-servants and apprentices by one leaving, or by the mas-

ter when the apprentice had served his full term; "Hogmanay," or the New Year's Eve frolic, devoted by the whole population to drinking and to "thigging" or begging and "guising" or masquerading, by not only the very poor but the well to-do, whom custom allowed without loss of self-respect to thus bemean themselves; "Hansel Monday," the first Monday of the "New Year," the Scottish day of gift-giving and gift-getting; St. Valentine's and All Fool's Day.

The author, like most antiquaries, traces many of these curious customs to the survival of heathen practices permitted by the Church —it would probably be more correct to say encouraged by the Church. In apostolic times the policy, to use a modern phrase, of the organizers of the early Church was evidently to permit the widest latitude in unessentials to their converts, and not to discourage adherents by opposing their innocent habits. The Roman Catholic Church has always followed and even extended the principle in its missionary work among barbarous and semi-barbarous peoples, by appealing strongly to the senses and encouraging amusements not canonically immoral. It was only last year that a Mystery Play was performed in British Columbia. It is possible that the custom of guising at Hogmanay may have been derived from the Jews; but more probably a common origin is to be found in a universal instinct. The Jewish custom of "guising" at the feast of Purim is carried even further than the Hogmanay practised in Scotland; for, among the Jews, boys and girls disguise themselves in clothes of the opposite sex. As contributions to these interesting subjects the few pages of Haliburton's book are important; unfortunately, however, they are too few.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Armelani, Francesco. Ellero o Guyot? Studio Critico-Sociale. Pitigliano: Osvaldo Paggi.
Benson, E. F. The Judgment Books. $1.
Bra, Dr. M. La Thérapeutique des Tissus. Méthode Brown-Séquard. Paris: J. Rothschild.
Burns's Cotter's Saturday Night, etc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Caldwell, J. E. Songs of the Pines. Toronto: William Briggs.
Clark, Andrew. Addenda to the Life and Times of Anthony Wood. Vol. IV. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Clark, Rev. G. H. Oliver Cromwell. Harpers. $1.25.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Exercises in Old English. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.
Deutsch, Emanuel. The Talmud. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Ebers, Georg. In the Fire of the Forge. 2 vols. Appletons.
Frye, A. E. Complete Geography. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.55.
Galt, John. Annals of the Parish, and the Ayrshire Legatees. Macmillan. $1.25.
Glouvet, Jules de. France, 1418—1429. [Bibliothèque de Romans Historiques.] Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Hardy, Thomas. Far from the Madding Crowd. Harpers. $1.50.
Henderson, W. J. Afloat with the Flag. Harpers. $1.25.
Hittell, J. S. The Spirit of the Papacy. San Francisco: J. S. Hittell.
Hunt, James. A Home and Work for Every Man; and an Invincible British Empire. London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co.
Lee, Dr. E. J. Lee of Virginia. 1642—1892. Biographical and Genealogical Sketches of the Descendants of Col. Richard Lee. Philadelphia: The Author. $10.
Luffmann, C. B. A Vagabond in Spain. Scribners. $2.50.
Macray, W. D. A Register of the Members of St. Mary Magdalen College. Vol. I. Oxford: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Marchmont, A. W. Parson Thring's Secret. Cassell. $1.00.
Markham, C. R. Major James Rennell and the Rise of Modern English Geography. Macmillan. $1.25.
Mitchell, Dr. S. W. Philip Vernon. Century Co. $1.
Morley, Prof. Henry, and Griffin, Prof. W. H. English Writers. Vol. XI. Shakspere and his Time. Cassell. $1.50.
Moore, George. Celibates. Macmillan. $1.50.
North, Sir Thomas. Plutarch's Lives. [Tudor Translations.] Vols. I. and II. London: David Nutt.
Powell, J. W. Canyons of the Colorado. Meadville, Pa.; Flood & Vincent. $10.
Prévost, Marcel. Notre Campagne. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer Bros. & Co.
Putnam, Prof. Daniel. A Manual of Pedagogics. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.50.
Robinson, Rev. E. G. Christian Evidences. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.25.
Rollins, Alice W. Aphorisms for the Year. 2d ed. J. A. Thulman. 50 cents.
Sangster, Mrs. Margaret E. Little Knights and Ladies: Verses for Young People. Harpers. $1.25.
Scott, Sir W. Waverley. 2 vols. London: Archibald Constable & Co.
Searle, G. M. Plain Facts for Fair Minds. Catholic Book Exchange. 50 cents.
Sergeant, Adeline. Dr. Endicott's Experiment. Cassell. 50 cents.
Seyler, Gustav A. Illustrirtes Handbuch der Ex-Libris-Kunde. Berlin: J. A. Staargardt; New York: Brentanos.
Smalley, G. W. Studies of Men. Harpers. $2.50.
Southworth, Mrs. Vivia. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Spenser's Faerie Queene. Part VI. Illustrated by Walter Crane. London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Stephens, W. W. The Life and Writings of Turgot. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
Stockton, F. R. The Adventures of Captain Horn. Scribners. $1.50.
Story-Maskelyne, Prof. N. Crystallography: A Treatise on the Morphology of Crystals. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Sullivan, J. W. Tenement Tales of New York. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
The Countess Bettina: The History of an Innocent Scandal. Putnams. 50 cents.
The Wee Widow's Cruise in Quiet Waters. Cassell. 25 cents.
The Yellow Book. Vol. V. London: John Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day.
Thirty Years' Work in the Holy Land. London: A. P. Watt; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Tolstoi, Count Leo. Master and Man. F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Walker, T. A. A Manual of Public International Law. Cambridge: University Press: New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Wordsworth's Ode on Intimations of Immortality, etc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 13, 1895.

The Week.

THE silver convention held at Springfield, Ill., on Wednesday week is now called the Altgeld convention. The one which it is proposed to hold not later than August, of a national character, might well bear the same name if it should be held, but it will not be held under the auspices of the Democratic national committee. So Chairman Harrity says in a telegram published by the *World*. He says that he does not intend to call the committee together until the usual time, and that, in his opinion, a convention held in advance of the regular period would be harmful to business interests and prejudicial to the welfare of the Democratic party. Several other members of the national committee have communicated to the *World* their views, showing that there is not the least chance of holding such a convention under the auspices of the Democratic party. If it is held under any other auspices, it will merely signify the departure of the Populist Democrats to the place where they belong. They will join the party that supported Weaver for President in 1892. They can now nominate Bland, or Bryan, or Altgeld, but their following will be small. The rank and file of the party will support very wild measures and very wild men so long as they are branded Democratic, not when they wear a different name.

What tough work we have still before us in currency matters is well shown by an interview reported in the *Tribune* of Saturday with Capt. Howell, editor of the Atlanta *Constitution*, an influential paper printed in one of the leading commercial cities of the South. He says the South is "worked up" to an extraordinary degree in favor of silver, and he thinks the idea is not going to die out. He himself is in favor of "arranging a money system to suit ourselves, without recognizing foreign powers in the arrangement." Why is this? Why do we shut out foreign powers? The answer is easy. Because, "when we have a money system that is in conformity with that of all Europe and the rest of the world, whenever there is a panic in any place in the world, we feel the effect of it." "There is no use in denying," he adds, "that, during the period in the history of the country when silver was most largely used, from 1860 to 1875, was the most prosperous time we have ever known." His remedy for panics, you see, is quite simple, and we are glad he has come on with it so soon; but why did he not come sooner? He makes no provision in this scheme, however, for our foreign trade, amounting in all to about $2,000,000,000 annually. In what kind of currency should this be carried on? Or does the Captain propose to drop it wholly, and just let us sell these things to each other?

Capt. Howell's account of the currency of silver and accompanying prosperity between 1860 and 1875 satisfies us that 1860 was the year of his birth, and that his earliest financial ideas were derived from Uncle Remus. It has long been known that the South was short of collateral. In fact, one of the Southern financiers in Congress declared seven years ago that it was rather collateral than currency which the South needed. Capt. Howell admits this, and says that this is the cause of the high rate of interest at the South. The rate is now 10 or 12 per cent. Increase the currency, the Captain thinks, and down would go the rate. But why should one lend money to a man who has no collateral, at a low rate of interest, because there is an abundance of money in the country? The question with a money-lender must always be, not how much money there is per capita scattered around the State, but how much per capita the man has got who wants to borrow. "I have no collateral, Colonel, and want a loan mighty bad, but there is so much money in the country to-day I should not think you would need much security," is an address to a bank president which would, we have no doubt, make any bank in the South ring with laughter. It would be discouraging to find the editor of a leading newspaper in such an infantile state of mind regarding the principles of finance, if it did not prove that he was personally prosperous and never wanted a discount.

Postmaster-General Wilson delivered the commencement address at the University of Mississippi last week, and among other things said: "I long to see the South again in national leadership." Unfortunately it is only in very rare cases, like Mr. Wilson's, that the South for many years has contributed to the national councils men worthy to be followed throughout the country. The senatorships from that part of the country are largely filled by old fogies who do not even stick to what was good in their ante-bellum Democracy, but are given over to every sort of financial folly. The Southern vote in each branch of Congress was practically solid for the income tax, and both of the Southern Democrats on the Supreme bench voted to hold it constitutional. "Sound money" and "strict construction" have alike lost their hold upon Southern men, and they "wobble" around at the mercy of any gust of popular feeling. Until the South escapes from such a morass, the rest of the country will not be likely to accept its leadership in anything.

The Republicans are not to escape entirely the embarrassment of a decision on the silver question this summer. They have been enjoying the confusion into which the Democrats have been thrown by the "snap" convention in Illinois so much that they have overlooked the approaching convention of the National League of Republican Clubs at Cleveland. This convention will be attended by delegations from Colorado, Montana, and the other mining States which are bent upon securing the strongest sort of a silver declaration. Senator Dubois of Idaho says that it will be hardly worth while for the Republicans in his part of the country to go into a campaign next year unless the national convention declares for free coinage, and he proposes to tell this truth to the League of Republican Clubs, with the hope of securing something from them. It is, of course, impossible that the silverites should have their way in the Cleveland convention, but there is some danger that their threats may lead to the adoption of a compromising deliverance. At any rate, there is at present enough to occupy Republicans in "bracing up" the delegations from the sound-money States.

Since the spring season began, the price of wheat has advanced 25 to 30 cents per bushel. It is generally agreed that the speculators had the chief hand in this advance, and that, in fact, the recovery has been largely due to reviving confidence in the stability of our currency. For capital may be invested in grain as well as in stocks, a leading motive in both cases being the confidence that if the grain itself, or the contract for its future delivery, be laid aside for a month or two, it may be resold then at higher prices. We wish to call attention to one phenomenon connected with this movement. Not a breath has been heard, during at least four months, from the advocates of the "anti-option" law. Yet nobody can have forgotten the urgent plea of these philanthropists a year or two ago. Speculation in grain and cotton "futures," we were then informed, must be prohibited by law, unless the farmer is to be absolutely ruined. Why? Because speculators always force lower prices, make an artificial market, and cut the ground from under the farmers' feet. And certainly the successful produce speculators did sell during at least two years, and prices did fall. But here, all at once, is half the floating capital of Chicago and New York scrambling to bid up and accumulate grain contracts, with equally strong speculators bidding up and accumulating cotton. Still more wonderful, the men who are selling "fu-

tures" and checking the market's upward movement are the farmers with plenty of growing wheat and cotton.

Platt's address to the Republicans of this State is an ingenuous and engaging appeal to them to look upon him as the only genuine reformer that they have among them at present. The wicked newspapers have lied so about him and his late Legislature that he finds it necessary to take the people into his confidence, and, with the assistance of the truthful and virtuous Charley Hackett, tell them the exact facts in the case. This is what he says in the address. What he said to Charley in private probably was: "These confounded Mugwumps and anti-Platt Republicans have been telling the people such ugly things about our doings at Albany that we must lie a little to set the public mind right in the matter, or there will be disaster at the polls in November." So the two composed the address, and it is a powerful document. We have space only for a single one of its more obtrusive falsehoods. Speaking of the new ballot law, Platt and Hackett call attention to "the amendments to the corrupt-practices act extending its provisions to party primaries and conventions," but make no mention of the fact that every attempt to amend that act in such a way as to stop the corrupt use of money in nominations and elections was fairly hooted down in the Assembly. The amendments cited by them are perfectly useless, or they would never have been permitted to pass.

Mr. Elihu Root's opinion on the "constitutional point" raised by Mr. Aldridge, State Superintendent of Public Works, leaves so little of the point that even Aldridge and his "owner," Platt, must see that it would be a sheer waste of money to go into court upon it. There is nothing for Aldridge to do now except to obey the law and have all the places in his department filled in accordance with civil-service regulations. Undoubtedly had he thought that he would be obliged to administer the office in this way, he would never have accepted it. He went into it as a spoilsman, hoping to use it as a machine for the benefit of Platt politics. When the Governor consented to appoint him, in spite of the protests of reformers, Aldridge jumped to the conclusion that the Governor would stand by him through thick and thin, that he shared his own contempt for reformers, and would uphold him in all his plans for "working the office for all it was worth." He did not suspect for a moment that the Governor, after appointing so notorious a spoilsman to office, would be so hard-hearted as to remove all the spoils of the office from his control. He accordingly snapped his fingers at the law, tried in one way and another to bulldoze or cajole the Civil-Service Commission, got bills through the Legislature enormously increasing the patronage of the office, and awaited in confidence the cordial support of the Governor for his course. To his astonishment, the Governor took sides with the reformers by vetoing his patronage bills, and joined with the Civil-Service Commission in compelling him to obey the civil-service law. What is left for Aldridge now? Nothing but cursing and communion with Platt.

The interesting announcement is made that Prof. Collin, who acted as "legal adviser" for Governors Hill and Flower, has resigned from the Law Department of Cornell University and has opened a law office in this city in partnership with Blue-Eyed Billy Sheehan, late of Buffalo, under the firm name of Sheehan & Collin. It is added that Sheehan is a Democrat and Collin is a Republican, but by whatever name they call their politics, they have long dealt in the same kind of law. While Hill was Governor and was fighting ballot reform, Collin supplied him with the kind of "law" he wanted in order to base his opposition on "constitutional grourds." When Flower was Governor and wanted to veto the appropriation for the Lexow investigation, Collin furnished him with the "law" for that action. Later, when Flower wished to deny the right of the present Legislature to meet under the new Constitution, Collin gave him a lot of "law" for so doing, and came in person to this city with it, reading it with much pride to an assemblage of our leading lawyers, but disowning it when he saw what extremely short work they made of it. He and Sheehan have worked together harmoniously in political law for many years, and they may work with equal harmony in private law, but they will not be able to back up their views with the power of the State Government. We congratulate Cornell University on getting rid of Collin. Whatever else may be said of his kind of law, it is clearly not a kind which should be infused into the minds of ingenuous youth.

The late Pennsylvania Legislature was one of the worst the State has had for many years. It became notorious for the openness with which it waited for the orders of Boss Quay before taking action on any measure of importance, and the obsequiousness with which it obeyed those orders. Public sentiment was repeatedly set at defiance in the most flagrant manner, and both the boss and his tools seemed to exult in opposing public feeling. Even measures which had no partisanship about them, like the bill for the retirement of judges upon a pension at seventy, could make no headway if Quay for any reason came out against them. As a means of showing his power, apparently, the boss had Quay County established. The only wonder is that he did not change the name of the Legislature to agree with the facts. There is at present great indignation against Quay among Republicans. But we doubt if it worries him much. The indignation will not hurt him unless it can be kept alive and potent till members of the next Legislature are to be nominated. That will be a year hence, and before that time the probability is that most of the present "kickers" will have forgotten all about it, and Quay will run the caucuses as usual.

The most surprising feature of the session of the Massachusetts Legislature which has just adjourned was the development of Gov. Greenhalge as a man of independence and force. We do not recall any other case precisely like it. There have been plenty of instances where men who had no previous political record have shown unexpected firmness in executive positions. But Greenhalge had been long in politics, he had been a member of Congress, and he had served as Governor one year without ever varying from the lines of the strictest partisanship. Indeed, he used to sneer at Mugwumps for their alleged assumption of superiority, and would have resented the notion that a Governor should set himself up as knowing more than a Legislature which his party controlled. Yet during the session just closed he vetoed no fewer than sixteen bills, among them several of great public and partisan interest. Beginning with a refusal of his approval to the first bill that reached him proposing an increase of salary, on the broad ground that this is no time for such measures, he blocked a great number of grabs which their promoters had expected to log-roll through. By his vetoes of the Woburn and Holyoke State police-commission bills, he checked the dangerous tendency towards centralization and the decline of local spirit. Finally, by his message returning without his approval the soldiers'-exemption bill, he did his best to save the civil-service system and the reputation of the veteran from the harm which a combination of the spoilsmen and the Grand Army machine was bent upon inflicting.

Judge Holmes of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts has given a decision on the question of the right of strikers to exert "persuasion, advice, and social pressure" to prevent men taking their places, which will excite a good deal of comment. He admits that "it is well settled that deliberately and in combination to interfere with a man's business to his pecuniary damage, by persuading others to have nothing to do with him, is actionable (Walker vs. Cronin, 107 Mass. 555)." But he holds that this applies only to interference for pure mischief or for harm's sake. Interference for a good purpose, such as to compel a man to accept the strikers' schedule of wages, would be justi-

fiable, in his opinion, though he admits that "the weight of judicial opinion is the other way." The trouble with this decision is that it recognizes the doctrine out of which all that is mischievous in strikes arises, and which, pushed to extremes, would be destructive of industrial freedom. We mean the doctrine that persons who have once been employed by a particular man or corporation have the right to remain in the service as long as they please on their own terms, and to employ any means short of violence to attain this end. It is only on the theory that they have a vested interest in the places they have left, that strikers are morally or legally justified in trying to prevent other men from filling them by either "persuasion, advice, or social pressure," or patrolling.

If we applied this doctrine to any other contract—the hiring of a house, for instance, or the employment of a domestic servant—its absurdity would become at once apparent. If a tenant whose offer of rent had been rejected by the landlord were to collect a crowd in front of the house to dissuade other tenants from renting it, or if a butler were to distribute handbills denouncing his late employer's service, and organize patrols to keep would-be successors away, everybody would cry shame, and the police would interfere. But a factory-owner, whose credit, and maybe his bread, are dependent on his success in managing his business in his own way, would find, under Judge Holmes's decision, that he had entered into a compulsory partnership with a number of men whom he disliked and wished to be rid of, but who had the power of fixing his "schedules of wages." Moreover, Judge Holmes appears, in defining intimidation, to overlook the state of mind of the persons intimidated. A course of conduct which frightens people and limits their freedom of control through fear, whether it consists in hooting, jeering, threatening, or "persuading" with a big stick, is surely, or ought to be, unlawful, whatever the motives of those pursuing it. Any agency which prevents me from doing what I should like to do, and could do legally, is an abridgment of my freedom.

Many of the Southern States of late years have held their State elections at some other period of the year than the time for choosing members of Congress and Presidential electors. This system was adopted in order to secure immunity from the federal election laws, the national authorities having no right to interfere with any election in which no national official was chosen. Now that these laws have been repealed, the States will doubtless consolidate their elections, thus saving a very considerable expense. Florida takes the lead. The Constitution makes the State election now come in October. The Legislature has submitted to the people an amendment, which will doubtless be ratified, changing the time to the day of the election of federal officials in November.

Much of the Cuban war news with which we are favored from day to day is open to the suspicion implied in the old Spanish proverb, *Luengas vias, luengas mentiras*—lies are whoppers in proportion to the distance from which they come. Still, there seems little doubt that expeditionary forces from this country are landing from time to time in Cuba, though doubtless not in such overwhelming numbers and possessed of such overwhelming valor as the correspondents would have us believe. This is a business upon which our State Department should keep a watchful eye. A country that has taken such high ground on the duty of neutrals, and made England smart for negligence, cannot afford to be negligent itself. Of course, it is difficult, if not impossible, the nearness of Cuba to the Florida coast being considered, to prevent straggling filibusters from slipping across. Nor can the sale of munitions of war be prevented. But anything like a regularly organized force, especially anything like a ship fitted out for fighting, should not be allowed to get away from her shores by a nation that has made the *Alabama* case a precedent in international law. We know of no complaints that the Spanish Government has made on this score, nor of any cause for such complaints. The reason for putting a lawyer like Mr. Olney at the head of the State Department is that all these questions should be treated dispassionately as matters of law, not of sentiment. We have no doubt that our obligations towards the friendly government of Spain will be as scrupulously discharged by Secretary Olney as they were by the late Mr. Gresham.

Meanwhile, there can be little doubt that the rebellion, far from being almost put down, is spreading and becoming more formidable. Capt.-Gen. Campos has had to call for more troops and money. He is finding his task almost as difficult as Lord Howe found his in this country, and not altogether dissimilar. The insurgents cannot stand against regular soldiers, but in that very fact lies the mischief. The rebels will not be caught in the open for a pitched battle, to put their fortunes to the touch at one stroke, but run off into the interior fastnesses, whence they emerge in sporadic bands of guerillas to tire the Spaniards out with marching up and down to overtake an ever-fleeing enemy. Every week that passes makes them surer of themselves and more audacious, while all the time they are drilling and organizing and getting better fitted to meet the troops of the line on equal terms. It was these tactics that drew out the former rebellion through ten years, and they seem now to be in successful operation again. The outlook is a gloomy one for both Spain and Cuba. Spain is ready to spend her last dollar to retain the island, but her last dollar is nearly enough in sight to make any great prolongation of the contest equivalent to bankruptcy. The "ever-faithful isle," meantime, is ravaged, its industries flattened to the earth, and the best prospect before it is that of a huge debt and crushing taxation, whether the rebels win or lose.

At the Lord Mayor's banquet on May 22, Sir William Harcourt made some sensible observations on the passion for piling up public expenditure. He justly said that it had now become "an international epidemic." In all countries which have a public finance at all, finance ministers have to struggle desperately to make both ends meet, if they are at the mercy of the Legislature, or, if they are in a responsible government, have to refuse mercilessly a whole line of appropriations asked for by the representatives of the people. Of all things in the world, as Sir William said, the easiest to invent is some fresh mode of expenditure, and everybody will vote for it with enthusiasm. Concurrently, however, the hardest thing to invent is a new tax against which everybody will not vote with high and stern indignation. The case was well put by a French minister the other day, when he affirmed that "no finances in the world can bear the strain of a policy at once military, naval, colonial, and philanthropic." The combination is indeed formidable, and here, too, the greatest of these is charity. We can support an army and navy, we can pay for the ordinary business of government, but when it comes to voting every man a competence, to making a bad business a good one, to bolstering up prices and giving every man a good profit and plenty of cheap money—above all, when it comes to insuring every worker employment at high wages and short hours—then the bottom of the inexhaustible public treasury is reached in a twinkling. Philanthropic public finance is only another way of saying public bankruptcy.

That so many inexhaustible public treasuries are already exhausted is a disagreeable surprise to Socialists, tacit or avowed, and excites them to anger. Our eloquent old friend M. Jaurès was tremendously outraged in the French Chamber the other day when the Finance Minister opposed some of his schemes to promote popular virtue and happiness by means of public appropriations. The Minister coldly said that there was no money in the treasury, but M. Jaurès passionately asked what of that, and threateningly wanted to know if he was going to oppose "the law of democratic evolution." That this law is to drain the treasury there can be little doubt, but some other law has got to be devised to fill it up again, and toward such a law democracy does not seem to evolve,

"SAFE AND PROPER BIMETALLISM."

THE change in Mr. W. C. Whitney's views about money, as announced in the press on Monday, is extremely gratifying. His first deliverance on his arrival here ten days ago was intensely bimetallic, and it was bimetallic, too, not offhand, or at first blush, but after "having given a great deal of attention to the subject." But he was not for lonely bimetallism, or for bimetallism by divine ordinance, or for bimetallism as "justice to silver." He was for "international bimetallism," or a "safe and proper bimetallism," created by "the co-operation of other nations and commercial peoples." When were we to have this? "Within two or three years" sure. "Germany has declared in favor of it; England will soon follow." The "strongest and most enlightened English statesmen," including the "brainy Balfour," are "in favor of it." Those who remember that the first attempts at international bimetallism through "conference" began seventeen years ago, and that the safe and proper bimetallists were then far more confident of the coöperation of England than they are now, have smiled over these earlier convictions of Mr. Whitney. We are not surprised that a little greater familiarity with the subject has apparently caused him to abandon or greatly modify them. He is now for "sound money." Not a word does he say about bimetallism of any description. "If the silver-men should carry the next Democratic convention, it would split the party in two." And he adds:

> "You see, prominent men all through the West have been preaching for the past fifteen years that the free coinage of silver was all that was necessary to make things boom. They have maintained that by establishing a ratio between the two metals of 15½ or 16 to 1, this country could solve the financial problem for the entire world, and that other nations would have to follow. These people have become so thoroughly saturated with this kind of talk that it will take some time and much work to counteract its influence. There are a good many sound-money men in the West and South; and the Memphis convention, I think, has helped the cause along.
>
> "We had this same experience in another form after the panic of '73, when greenbacks were regarded as a panacea for all the ills of the country, and that spread throughout the whole country, and both parties were obliged to take some sort of a stand on the matter, but finally the good sense of the people asserted itself, and we haven't heard much of greenbackism since. I think the people will eventually treat this question just the same as they did the greenback question. They want sound money now just as much as they did then."

This is common sense, and it is the opinion of New York. Mr. Whitney's bimetallic gospel is as much out of place here to-day as abolitionism would have been at the South before the war. Proper or improper, people will have none of it, and they are prepared to be as "unjust to silver" as may be necessary to take care of their credit and their business.

We will now make a few plain statements about this international balderdash. Sir William Harcourt stated boldly the other day, what every man of sense knows to be true, that neither the present Government nor any Government that may come after in England will ever give the smallest countenance to any attempt to displace the gold sovereign from its present position as the national standard of value. Mr. Chamberlain is as emphatic on this point as Harcourt. There is not a man in the party who does not know well that the Conservatives dare not go to the polls with any silver or bimetallic nonsense in their heads. Asking the great English business world to change its standard of value on the demand of a lot of foreign bullion speculators, is like asking them to give up India or the Rock of Gibraltar. Mr. Balfour is dabbling in the idea, but Mr. Balfour is not a business man, nor an economist, nor a man known in any sense in the world of finance. He is an acute dialectician in the metaphysical field, but he has no more head for questions of currency or finance than some very able men have for mathematics. We doubt if a single English business man of weight, even of the bimetallic persuasion, pays much attention to what he says on this topic. The rock on which the huge superstructure of English commerce—the greatest the world has ever seen—rests is stability, stability of currency, stability of taxes, stability of policy. Consequently the idea of trying experiments in currency in combination with foreigners has never taken strong hold of the national mind. Were it put seriously to a representative body of Englishmen whether they would go into partnership with Russia, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Greece, Mexico, Ecuador, and the rest of the financial ragtag and bobtail, in trying to create, without any necessity of their own, an artificial standard of value, we believe the author of the proposal would have to run like a "welsher" on the Epsom Downs. In truth, the idea is so preposterous to any one familiar with the tone of English thought on this class of questions that the expectation of any support from England for the bimetallic craze, we make bold to say, discredits the intelligence of any man who holds it. Were the Conservatives to go to the country with any such scheme, the Liberals would come back to power, with Harcourt at their head, with a very great majority, which would last as long as the bimetallic craze made itself visible in politics.

The secret of the queer tales about the progress of bimetallism in England which travellers like Mr. Whitney bring back, is that of late years they see a great deal of the impoverished landholding class, who, like the "debtor class" everywhere, are in favor of anything that will raise prices. "Cheap money" is money in which mortgages could be paid off, in which grain would rule high, and rents come back to their own level, and settlements be made easy. The same class fondled the protective idea for nearly a whole generation after the rest of the nation had buried it. When, therefore, they get hold of a wandering American, they fill him full of bimetallism, and he comes back and tells us the game is up, and that silver is going to be redeemed. It was they who threatened us so long with "fair trade," meaning some kind of return to duties on food, but the British business world has no more notion of allowing the pound sterling to be tampered with than of putting ten shillings a quarter on wheat. And we may depend upon it, when the work of raising values by international agreement is once begun, it will not stop at silver. Everything will be raised by treaty, and nobody will ever see another poor day.

MEDIÆVAL METHODS.

IN the recent legislation which gives the veterans of our thirty years (ago) war priority over all other male citizens of Massachusetts in the strife for office, the great and General Court of that progressive commonwealth has reverted to mediæval methods in an astonishing manner. A thousand years or so ago, any subject of King Rodolph or King Edred, who was charged with invading his neighbors' rights by force or fraud, might clear himself by taking a solemn oath that he did no such thing; and he was then expected to produce as many friends as possible, who attended him to court and gave affirmative testimony that he never did it. If friends were not forthcoming, he had to fall back on the Almighty, who would maintain his servant's innocence in two ways, by the combat or by the ordeal, such as walking barefoot over hot ploughshares, a method never resorted to except by such as were short of devoted friends. These ways of testifying to one's probity or good conduct have been thought barbarous and obsolete. But the Massachusetts Legislature virtually revives them.

There is in this country a tremendous pressure for Government appointments. The good things of the public are sought for eagerly, passionately, rapaciously, by a crowd of office-seekers, who have as a class acquired a very bad repute and are greatly distrusted. In order to wipe out this reproach, the very worst of the crew, on whom the long-suffering public has long had its eye as plunderers and defrauders, have always been able to produce an army of backers, devoted comrades, the true mediæval compurgators, ready to make affidavit that Jake or Barney was one of our best citizens. But the suspicious public at last "got the snuff into its nose," as the Neapolitan says, and determined to put the office-seeker through an ordeal by making him walk the hot ploughshares of an examination, believing that they would prove cold and harmless to one whose character and training fitted him for the work. But your Massachusetts veteran has no intention of thus establishing his fitness by the judgment of heaven, demonstrated in his own person. He much pre-

fers to take solemn oath that he is no rapacious office-seeker, that he is really competent, and to bring two friends, true feudal compurgators, to assert (not swear; *he* takes all the oaths required) that they believe him to be exactly the man for the place. No ordeal for him; compurgation, if you please. And why not the third plan? Why not the combat? Certainly; that he went through thirty years ago—as if Front de Boeuf, accused of roasting Isaac of York in 1194, should swear he helped the Christians in Palestine about 1160. This is mediævalism made easy. In fact, there is a more recent precedent. Readers of Sir Walter Scott will remember one Sir William Scott of Deloraine, whose habit it was, like others of his clan, notably the poet's own ancestor, to make incursions into England, drive off cattle by the score, burn down any buildings inconveniently situated for his purpose, and kill any Cumbrians who foolishly resisted. For these amiable traits the warden marched an army into Teviotdale, and said to Lady Buccleuch:

> "We claim from thee William of Deloraine,
> That he may suffer march-treason pain,"

and then recapitulated the above exploits. Her reply, thoroughly approved by all the clan Scott, was that

> "—either William of Deloraine
> Will cleanse him by oath of march-treason stain;
> Or else he will the combat take
> 'Gainst Musgrave for his honor's sake."

And so he did, and, by sending Richard Musgrave after his brother, proved that he had never raided his estate at all.

There has been an organized raid upon the Treasury and public service of the Union and the States. The noblest principles of our institutions, the noblest heroes of our history, have had their sacred names abused to provide greedy and incompetent men with positions which belong by every right to such, and such only, as are proved to be fit for them. The ancient commonwealth of Massachusetts has taken the lead in establishing such a method of proof; she encourages every citizen to pass an ordeal, strict but honorable and useful, before he shall be appointed to her offices. In the administration of this system she has been most generous and thoughtful to the soldiers of the civil war; and now her Legislature, which has ruled her continuously for over 250 years, allows any one of a would-be military aristocracy, exactly like the moss-troopers of Branksome and Lochmaben, to swear themselves into any employment they fancy—"cleanse them by oath of march-treason stain." If told that that is no true evidence of competency, even when backed by admiring and complacent friends, if told that the old system of appointment by self-assertion and endorsement has been abolished, they will resort to the ordeal by battle, "the combat for their honor's sake"—only it must be a combat of thirty years ago. Truly, American institutions are getting strangely modified, and the stars and stripes assuming the character of a border baron's bearings.

THE GAINS OF THE NEW YORK ELECTION.

The names of the new city magistrates have been announced, and the selections are eminently satisfactory, so that we shall by July 1 have a police bench worthy of our civilization. This puts us in a position, for the first time, to make a deliberate examination of the gains of the reform movement, and it must be confessed that, in spite of the efforts of the Legislature to minimize them, in spite of the failure of several important bills, the position of the city has been greatly improved. It will be remembered that the three grossest abuses of the Tammany régime were the police bench, the police, and the street-cleaning. Through the police justices, and the police acting in concert with them, "the organization" was able to exercise almost despotic rule over the poorer classes. These classes really held their liberty and property at the mercy of the police justice and the captain of the precinct, and paid taxes to them above and beyond those legally due to the city and the State. The criminals and law-breakers, particularly, paid heavily for liberty to pursue their several vocations, and at Presidential elections the Democratic party was compelled to purchase the aid of large hordes of jail-birds with honors and rewards originally meant for respectable citizens. In fact, government by "pull" almost completely supplanted the government of the laws in one of the leading cities of Christendom. There was little more trace of Western jurisprudence in the lower walks of New York life than in Damascus or Jiddah.

Now this has been changed—we will not say permanently changed, because, with regard to the police, we have not yet secured the legislation necessary for permanence; but the police bench has been cleared of the unspeakables who have, we will not say sat upon it, but infested it. The poor will hereafter get justice and law from respectable men. The poor foreigners in particular will get new ideas of American morality and law. The "pantata" will vanish from the list of American functionaries. We do not believe any church has returned thanks during the last ten years for a greater blessing, or one more important to the moral and social life of the city.

The failure to secure the reforms in the police organization which the Lexow committee's investigation pointed out as necessary, was a bitter disappointment. The Mayor's acceptance of the bipartisan bill was a heavy blow and great discouragement, but mainly, let us say, because it excited apprehension of future indifference on his part to the opinions of those who elected him, and because it was likely to encourage Tammany and the Plattites in their resistance to all reform. But it is often, and not unnaturally, forgotten that nearly all the changes in the police organization which we fought for and hoped to secure, were suggested by the public belief that the Police Commissioners would generally be rascals. It is only on this theory that the reformers proposed to take away from them the selection of their own men. In no police force in the world is this privilege denied them. Many other provisions of our reformatory police legislation are intended in like manner to guard against the possibility of a succession of corrupt Commissioners. But we have got from Mayor Strong a Police Commission which commands public confidence, which is apparently bent on purifying the force, and which may be relied on to administer it with a single eye to the public interest. The defeat of the reformatory legislation is, accordingly, for the moment not a serious calamity. We have got everything, or nearly everything, it would have given us except security as to the remoter future.

The street-cleaning reform has been so much discussed of late that we need say but little about its political aspects. But of its social and sanitary and moral aspects too much cannot be said. It is, in fact, as regards the moral elevation of the poor of the city, the complement of the reform of the police bench. Such justices as Paddy Divver and Tom Grady were the natural rulers of a population which dwelt in Tom Brennan's filth, and whose streets were nightly filled with the wagons of lewdness and theft. Churches and schools would labor in vain among people whose physical surroundings were so odious. In securing the services of a man like Waring, who cared nothing for "pulls," and was capable of cleaning the streets in the manner prescribed by law, Mayor Strong has, therefore, conferred on us an inestimable boon. We do not believe the educating influence on the masses of a pure bench and clean streets during the next three years can be overrated. Having seen good city government even for three years, people will not accept any other. So that, for the first time in our recollection, we think it may be safely said that those who go off to the seaside or the mountains may do so in confidence that no ground will be lost during the season in which so much enthusiasm has hitherto died out, and so many high hopes have come to naught.

THE NOVELIST ON HIS TRAVELS.

The English press has shown a great deal of eagerness to get Daudet's opinions of London, since his recent visit to that city. All his interviews in the French papers relating to his experiences and impressions across the Channel have been promptly telegraphed to England, reproduced at full length, and made the subject of much wise comment. Daudet was greatly struck by "the silence of London"—which was his rather neat

way of saying that the roar of the city was so great and continuous that nobody tried to talk, and that business was transacted, so far as possible, by dumb show. He was also delighted to meet Dickens's characters in the flesh. On every hand he recognized them—the Cheeryble Brothers doing their famous benevolent act, as the variety programmes say, Uriah Heep writhing with suppressed villany, and so on. This naturally brought great joy to many hearts in England that had grieved over the irreverent charge that Dickens was a caricaturist, and that his personages never were, on sea or land. If a famous and keen-eyed Frenchman saw them on every London street-corner, the scoffers had better hold their peace.

The exaggerated importance attached to these impressions of a hurried traveller, who happened to be a noted writer of fiction, is characteristic of a journalistic and gossip-loving age. We have come insensibly to believe that a man famous for any kind of achievement must have valuable opinions on all classes of subjects. Hence the habit of reporters of gravely knocking up at midnight all sorts of specialists to ask them what they think about something they know nothing of whatever. If he is a specialist, that is enough; his opinion about anything must be of special importance. If he is a great writer, whose works about the things he knows are read by thousands, then thousands must be anxious to read his views on things of which he is profoundly ignorant.

But there seems to be an additional and particular reason why famous novelists have become the especial prey of the interviewer. This is the age of realistic fiction. Its masters excel in minute and accurate observation, and who then so likely as they to seize and state exactly the salient and typical facts of any country or civilization, however alien to them? On no other theory can we account for all the interest taken in Daudet's ideas of London, Bourget's impressions of America, and Zola's account of Rome. At last the mirror was to be held up. At last the trained and analytical eye of the realistic novelist was to see what the foreign philosopher had missed, what the statesman on his travels had overlooked, and what, it must be said to be too often the case, the most intelligent natives had never dreamed of.

If the results have not come up to expectations, it is only what might have been expected, only what a closer eye on the nature and methods of realistic fiction should have prepared one to anticipate. The greatest triumphs of realism have to do with mere externals. You verify those, and then you think that all the other details are equally literal transcripts of the truth. The novelist tells you that his hero stepped moodily upon the Third Avenue cable cars at Twenty-third Street and got off with a relieved air at the Post-Office, and when you come upon such life-like bits, so manifestly capable of verification, you are at once ready to believe all that the author tells you of the secret springs of action and the inevitable development of character. But it does not take a very wide experience of either novels or life to teach one that the internal does not always correspond to the external; that it is much easier to make mistakes about. Yet it is only the most external of external things that the foreign observer can see in his rapid flight, and the most his friends can hope for is that he may not make too many unconscionable blunders even about those.

Some recent tests of realistic fiction are a little discouraging to the devotees of that cult. A French abbé, M. Paul Lallemand, has lately published a little study on "The Priest in the Modern Novel." He examines one figure after another among the priests to be found in the most famous and most realistic novels, only to have to wonder again and again at "such ignorance and misunderstanding of the priestly life." To Feuillet and Bourget he gives qualified praise for their priestly personages, but Coppée and Halévy and Duruy excite his ridicule, while of Zola he says that he may succeed in the not very formidable task of describing a priest's dress and gait, but that "the heart of a priest is a sealed book to him." The realism of Mr. James Whitcomb Riley has in a like manner been brought into grave doubt. His Indiana dialect is vouched for by Mr. Howells as accurate beyond compare, but Mr. Maurice Thompson, who is himself a Hoosier, says that it is all an ideal thing of Riley's own fancy, having no resemblance to anything in the heaven above or on the earth beneath of actual Indiana.

All things considered, we doubt if the travelling novelist will just yet wrest the crown from Arthur Young, De Tocqueville, or Mr. Bryce. Their methods are plodding and uninspired, but somehow they do the business. The first-named "wise and honest traveller," as John Morley calls him, spoke lightly of those books on Europe which had been written by observers "whirled along in post-chaises." What would he have thought of our modern cannon-ball-express travellers, producing books as fast as they ride? For Young, three years on horseback and on foot in every corner of France was not too much time to spend in preparing to write of French agriculture. De Tocqueville explored our penitentiaries and prisons for two years before thinking of putting pen to paper. Mr. Bryce has doubtless been in labors more abundant than either. In rapidity, in inspiration, in *réclame*, the travelling novelist far outstrips any of them; yet Arthur Young's book has been a classic in France for more than a hundred years, while De Tocqueville and Bryce will be read in America as long as anything is read.

PINCKNEY'S DRAFT OF A CONSTITUTION.

BROOKLYN, June 10, 1895.

THE references in the briefs of both sides in the income-tax argument to Charles Pinckney's draft of a Constitution, as well as the evident authority given that document in the decision read by Chief-Justice Fuller, only accentuate the importance of preventing, if possible, its further use as historical or legal evidence. As early as 1836 Madison called attention to the fact that the paper was an evident fabrication, yet constitutional writers have continued to quote it with a persistency and frequency most extraordinary.

The history of this paper begins with May 29, 1787, on which day the *Journal* records Pinckney as submitting it to the Convention in a speech, and its reference to a committee. That is the first and last mention of it in the official proceedings of the Convention, and, for some unexplained reason, neither Madison, Yates, nor King gave the slightest abstract of the plan or speech, nor recorded any subsequent mention of the plan in their notes of the debates. Indeed, so little attention was paid to it that a copy was not even retained among the papers of the Convention, and, in consequence of this, when John Quincy Adams edited the *Journal* of the Convention in 1818, he applied to Pinckney for a copy of the paper, and received from him an outline of a Constitution, which he printed without question, and which has since masqueraded as the one Pinckney submitted to the Convention. Fortunately, the same vanity which induced Pinckney to foist a false plan on the public, in the hope of thereby proving that much of the Federal Constitution was derived from him, had in 1787 led him to print privately the speech he made in introducing his plan of government, and by comparing this speech of 1787 with the pseudo-draft of 1818 we learn how much credibility is to be given to the latter.

The speech indicates that Pinckney proposed a division into legislative, executive, and judicial, as in the draft. In the election of the legislative, however, which was to be proportioned to population, we at once find a striking contradiction. In the draft the lower house was to be chosen "every —— year by the people." In the speech he states that it was to be chosen for four years, and, singularly enough, makes no mention of how it was to be elected, but from a contemporary letter we can draw an inference, for in 1789 Pinckney wrote: "Are you not, to use a full expression, abundantly convinced that the theoretical nonsense of an election of the members of Congress by the people in the first instance is clearly and practically wrong, . . . and that the Legislatures are the only proper judges of who ought to be elected?" The Senate was to be elected by the lower house "upon proportional principles . . . which, though rotative, will give that body a sufficient degree of stability and independence. The districts into which the Union are to be divided will be so apportioned as to give each its due weight, and the Senate calculated in this, as it ought to be in every Government, to represent the wealth of the nation." To these two branches Pinckney added what he terms "a council of revision, consisting of their executive and principal officers of government," and further on in the speech, in defining the duties of the executive, he somewhat elaborates his idea by adding that the President "will have a right to consider the principals of each Department"

("Home, Foreign, War, Treasury, and Admiralty") "as his council, and to require their advice and assistance whenever the duties of his office shall render it necessary. By this means our Government will possess what it has always wanted but never yet had, a cabinet council." The draft contains not a word concerning this council, which, so far as I know, is the first suggestion of the body unrecognized by the Constitution, but since so familiar a feature of our Government.

To follow the sequence of the speech, in preference to the draft, Pinckney elected the President septennially, without limit upon his reëligibility, adding, "I shall have no objection to elect him for a longer term," while the draft sets no term of office. He was to be removable by impeachment, but by what power is not mentioned, thus again departing from the draft, in which impeachment was to be instituted by the lower house and adjudicated by the Supreme Court. As another variation from the draft, no provision is made for a substitute in case of the death of the President. Apparently he was given no power of appointment, and, more curious still, there is nothing to show by whom he was elective, though a reference to his similarity to the President of Congress suggests that he was to be named, as was that officer, by Congress.

The fourth article, as summarized in the speech, gave to the national Government alone the right of granting citizenship, and decreed the delivery of fugitives from justice "exactly upon the principles of the fourth article of the present Confederation," except that the demand of the executive of a State for "any fugitive, criminal offender shall be complied with," thus extending this clause to cover fugitive slaves. The fifth article, Pinckney tells us, was "founded on the same principles as the sixth of the Confederation," and the absolute difference of these two clauses from the clauses in the pseudo-draft indicates how entirely different they are not merely in principle, but in construction.

But the most extraordinary and radical difference occurs in the next or sixth article. In the words of the speech, this was "intended to give the United States in Congress not only a revision of the Legislative acts of each State, but a negative upon all such as shall appear to them improper." In favor of this clause Pinckney said:

"I apprehend the true intention of the States in uniting is to have a firm national Government, capable of effectually executing its acts and dispensing its benefits and protection. In it alone can be vested those powers and prerogatives which more particularly distinguish a sovereign State. The members which compose the superintending Government are to be considered merely as parts of a great whole, and only suffered to retain the powers necessary to the administration of their State Systems. The idea which has been so long and falsely entertained of each being a sovereign State must be given up; for it is absurd to suppose there can be more than one sovereignty within a Government. The States should retain nothing more than that mere local legislation which, as districts of a general Government, they can exercise more to the benefit of their particular inhabitants than if it was vested in the Supreme Council; but in every foreign concern, as well as in those internal regulations which, respecting the whole, ought to be uniform and national, the States must not be suffered to interfere. No act of the Federal Government in pursuance of its constitutional powers ought by any means to be within the control of the State legislatures; if it is, experience warrants me in asserting, they will assuredly interfere and defeat its operation. . . . Whatever views we may have of the importance or retained sovereignty of the States, be assured they are visionary and unfounded, and that their true interests consist in concentering, as much as possible, the force and resources of the union in one superintending Government, where alone they can be exercised with effect. . . . If it was possible completely to draw the distinguishing line, so as to reserve to the States the legislative rights they ought to retain, and prevent their exceeding them, I should not object, but it will be found exceedingly difficult; for, as I have already observed, leave them only a right to pass an act, without revision or control, and they will certainly abuse it. The only mode I can think of, for qualifying it, is to vest a power somewhere, in each State, capable of giving their acts a limited operation, until the sense of Congress can be known."

The seventh article proposed "to invest a number of exclusive privileges delegated by the present Confederation," to which was added, "an unqualified power of raising troops," . . . "of regulating the trade of the union, and of levying imposts and duties," but with a limit on the "percentage of the impost." This section also contained "a provision for empowering Congress to levy taxes upon the States, agreeable to the rule now in use, an enumeration of the white inhabitants and three-fifths of other descriptions," the context making still more plain that Pinckney intended no "direct" tax on the people or property, but the old system of assessing quotas on each State. This shows the absolute falsity of the much quoted section of the draft dealing with direct taxes.

The eighth article, Pinckney tells us, "only varies so far from the present [*i. e.*, of the Confederation] as to permit Congress drawing a revenue from the post-office."

The ninth article, "respecting the appointment of federal courts for deciding territorial controversy between different States, is the same with that in the Confederation."

The tenth article "gives Congress a right to institute all such offices as are necessary for managing the concerns of the union," and for erecting federal courts.

Then follows a hiatus in the enumeration of the clauses. The sixteenth article provides for a revision of the Constitution by consent of a given number of legislatures, and the wording suggests that Pinckney intended that the new Government should be referred to Congress and to the State legislatures, thus contradicting the draft, which referred it to conventions of the people, though, in summing up the defects of the Articles of Confederation, Pinckney distinctly referred to the fact that the faults of that Government were largely due to the fact that it had "nothing more, strictly speaking, than a legislative authority, and might be said in some measure to be under the control of the State legislatures." The number required to amend was such as would comprise a majority of the people as well as a majority of the States. Furthermore, on all important questions in Congress, Pinckney required the assent of two-thirds of both houses.

The seventeenth article is specially interesting because of the omission of its clauses from the Constitution as adopted, and their almost immediate enactment in the first eleven amendments. It provided for "the privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus, the trial by Jury in all cases, criminal as well as civil, the Freedom of the Press, and the prevention of Religious Tests as qualification to Offices of trust or emolument."

Such were the main outlines of Pinckney's propositions, but a number of minor points which he comments upon, without referring to their position in his plan, are worth noting. He gives to Congress the exclusive right of "coining money," and clearly meant to prevent issues of paper money, for he declares that all payments to the national treasury should be in "actual money"—a radical distinction from the draft, which gives Congress the power "to emit bills of credit." He also gives to the Federal power "the exclusive right of establishing regulations for the Government of the Militia." Another clause permits the admission of new States, and what is perhaps more striking is the addition of an article "authorizing the United States, upon petition from the majority of the citizens of any State, or convention authorized for that purpose, and of the Legislature of the State to which they wish to be annexed, or of the States among which they are willing to be divided, to consent to such junction or division." Other clauses gave Congress power to select a capital, to establish a national university, and to grant patents and copyrights.

Not the least curious difference in the two papers, as the slightest examination shows, was that the true plan submitted by Pinckney, though designed to be a sovereign Government, was really nothing more than a redrafting of the Articles of Confederation, and thus differed radically in form as well as in matter from the pseudo-draft and from the Constitution as adopted. Yet it is an interesting document, as revealing the probable source from which many details of our national compact were drawn; and since no authentic copy is extant, this rare pamphlet, which outlines so much of it, should be far better known, while the fabricated draft, instead of being quoted by our Supreme Court, should be relegated to the repository of historical lies.

Paul Leicester Ford.

THE SALONS.

Paris, May, 1895.

The visit to the Salons explains why, lately, French writers on art in search of a sensation have been compelled to cross the Channel and discover Pre-Raphaelitism. In Paris there is no new fad, no new movement; there is not even the once inevitable picture of the year to serve as text upon which to hang an article. Judged from the exhibition standard, which makes novelty, extravagance, or eccentricity the measure of success, both collections this year are unusually dull and insignificant. Nor from the standpoint of art are they to be much more favorably commended. Without question, genuinely good work is in the minority, and what little there is has found its way chiefly to the Champ-de-Mars.

To go direct from the Royal Academy and the New Gallery to the Salons is to be struck with the immense amount of ability and energy everywhere displayed in the French shows. In England, only too often, the man who is most prolific has never mastered the elementary principles of his trade; while he who does know how to paint is so lacking in vitality that two or three sketches represent his year's labors. Among Salon exhibitors, however, genius for industry and technical ability go hand in hand. It is all the more irritating, therefore, to find the results obtained so tinctured with commonplace, so wholly without distinction. This is the immediate impression received upon entering the first large gallery at the Champs-Élysées. Opposite the main doorway, in presumably the place of honor, hangs a gigantic painting of the siege of Toulouse in 1218, by M. J. P. Laurens. There is no doubt of the research, the knowledge, the industry revealed; but to

what purpose, since there is not a suggestion of beautiful color, of beautiful form, of beautiful composition? The arrangement of the wall, and scaffolding, and workmen is so prosaic as to suggest the camera, and yet, necessarily, it has not even the value of photographic accuracy. And so it is with M. Gervais's canvas, which claims generous wall-space in the same gallery—it is learned, it is scholarly, it is well painted; but it is nothing more than a good, straightforward, life-size study of a model, christened "Maria de Padilla," as an excuse for the nude figure and the southern background—the Alhambra this time—in which it is set. And so one might go on through the list, now wondering why M. Detaille, in painting the Prince of Wales, should have been so engrossed in getting a good likeness as to forget his picture; now amazed at the effrontery of M. Béroud in calling a shameless and vulgar display of upholstery and naked women a "Symphonie en rouge et or"; and constantly deploring the opportunities wasted, for many of these big canvases are designed for definite ends, and will eventually disfigure the public buildings they should have decorated.

Matters, in this respect, are somewhat mended at the Champ-de-Mars. Here, though not one of the large paintings shown may be an unqualified success, several are not without interest. Max Klinger, the German mystic, attracts by the power and individuality in his conception of such well-worn themes as the Crucifixion and the Judgment of Paris, even while he repels by a curious hardness in the treatment, an indifference to beauty, an absence of all atmosphere, so that his figures seem to jump violently from out their pictorial environment, and, in the case of the Judgment of Paris, by the frankly hideous architectural device which he has seen fit to give it as frame. M. Lhermitte astonishes by the realism of his rendering of "Les Halles," a realism vying with that of M. Zola's written description; but a sacrifice of actual truths to decorative needs would have better adapted it to the walls of the Hôtel de Ville for which it is intended. M. Roll charms by the gay sunlight and graceful nude women in his "Joies de Vivre," but his design, with its mul titude of motives, is unpleasantly wanting in unity and repose.

When all is said, however, it was really M. Puvis de Chavannes's decoration for the Boston Public Library which interested me the most, in the first place because it is M. de Chavannes who painted it, in the second, because of the building which it is ultimately destined to adorn. No one in America has as yet done so much in the cause of mural decoration as the directors of the Library in question. The work already completed by Mr. Sargent and Mr. Abbey is necessarily, to a certain extent, experimental. But the Frenchman is a past master in the art of decoration, and remembering Amiens and Rouen one has waited eagerly to see his design. I must confess that, where it now hangs, it is not altogether satisfactory. The light streams pitilessly upon it, when, no doubt, its illumination in the Library will be much more sober and severe. For subject it represents the Muses hailing the Genius of Light. The figures, white-robed, bearing lyres and roses, ascend from pale slopes overlooking a brilliant blue sea; and the blue of the water breaks somewhat violently the quiet harmony of pale grays and greens, while the draperies seem so many detached white surfaces. But in a more subdued light, in its appropriate architectural setting, no doubt present abruptness will disappear, and the now violent blue and whites will be found to tell most effectively. There will be no wasted detail, as one feels may be the case in Mr. Abbey's Holy Grail series; there will be no unexpected mingling of decorative and realistic methods as in Mr. Sargent's ceiling. It remains but for Mr. Whistler to complete his design to make the Boston Library as important in modern America as the Vatican was in the Rome of the Renaissance.

These large canvases assert themselves by mere force of size. But good work will not let itself be quite overpowered by brutal vulgarity or meretricious banality, and often the pictures which are least ambitious in dimensions are most conspicuous in effect. In the old Salon the simple landscapes of Pointelin, now a broad sweep of gray moorland, now a quiet mountain pool, or the dignified conventions of Harpignies and Français, attract the eye to them at once. Row upon row of the student *machines*, bidding for notice, are forgotten for the reticent "Bathers" of Fantin-Latour; for the well known "Salon de Madame Récamier," by Orchardson, fine, though the Parisian protests against the English character of the faces; for the portrait of an old woman by Henner; for the portrait of a Dutch family by Mr. MacEwen, who has never done anything better than this simple group of father, mother, and child sitting peacefully in a room whose beauty depends, not upon studio properties, but upon the sympathetic study of light and atmosphere.

It is the same in the new Salon, where aggressive experiments and problems in paint lose by the comparison with the suave restraint of Cazin in his landscapes; with the genuinely beautiful color of Alfred Stevens in his marines, and in those wonderful little figures, as lovely in detail as the women of Terburg; with the rhythmical lines and suggestion of mystery in Carrière's "Théâtre Populaire," as individual and poetic an impression of the interior of a theatre as any painter has yet given. It is the ballet-dancer on the stage who has charmed M. Degas with the poetry of movement and color; but in the audience M. Carrière has sought his motive in the unconscious posing of men and women at a moment of emotional excitement, in the subtle effects of light and shadow seen through the thick atmosphere of the play-house. M. Carrière's return, after his absence of last year, is all the more welcome since this spring Mr. Whistler sends nothing, and M. Raffaëlli and M. Boldini are also unrepresented. Nor does M. Jean Béraud contribute the usual sensations, M. Carolus-Duran the usual portraits, while M. Besnard, in his studies of southern light, seems all too determined to startle; on the other hand, M. Aman-Jean seems to be devoting himself less to mysticism and more entirely to portraiture (though as a beautiful arrangement of a peacock and a girl in golden-flowered gown explains, at no sacrifice of the decorative conventions and the refinement of color always felt to be such a charm in his pictures).

The Glasgow school makes a strikingly strong showing; Mr. Lavery, Mr. Guthrie, and Mr. Walton sending portraits which appear no less distinguished in Paris than they did at home. M. Gandara's presentment of Madame Sara Bernhardt has, naturally, attracted much attention, though in her long white satin gown she might pass for but a re-echo of the tall, white-robed Princess of a year ago—a fact of which M. Gandara may be conscious, for, in proof that his undoubted ability is not restricted to the painting of satin, he hangs on either side curious little still-life studies; a skinned rabbit yielding a pleasant note of color. Mr. Alexander is also once more to the fore, but his new portraits tend somewhat too much to the eccentric. There is one in particular, of a woman in voluminous blue skirts, out-spreading as if over-exaggerated crinoline or blown about by a small hurricane, in which he seems to be challenging astonishment. It is clever, no doubt, but it lacks the repose and dignity which hitherto have characterized his canvases. His small sketches are more successful, because less extravagant in pose and arrangement.

Frenchmen are just now threatening to rebel against the continued prominence of foreigners in their exhibitions. This would be foolish, indeed, for it is chiefly the international scope of the Salons which has been the secret of their accepted importance. True, the strangers are many, but so they have been almost since there were Salons in which to exhibit. The American contingent has ever been large, and I do not think its members are now more excessive than in past years. Again, at the old Salon, besides the pictures of Mr. MacEwen, you may see the careful studies of cattle by Mr. Bisbing, the Eastern subjects of Mr. Bridgman, and the accustomed contributions of Mr. Picknell, Mr. Boggs, Mr. Ridgway Knight, Mr. Pearce, Mr. Walter Gay. Again, at the new Salon, Mr. Alexander Harrison has his marines, one or two bordering upon the grotesque in the figures introduced; Mr. Dannat offers new variation of his old theme of Spanish women and blue shadows, though he seems about to desert it for the painting of portraits, where his aggressive mannerisms could not so well be countenanced; and Mr. Rolshoven shows portraits that are not without vigor, though they might, to their advantage, gain in refinement. Mr. Humphreys Johnston is unusually strong, and if the "Domino Rose," the most striking of his six canvases, savors still of the experimental, it is a triumph of skill in the treatment of an extremely difficult color. Mr. Melchers remains faithful to the record of costume to which he so frequently is willing to sacrifice his picture, but he has improved vastly in his painting of flesh. Instead of distributing impartially the same rather leathery skin to each and all of the people in his pictures, he now respects the differences presented by sex and age and individuals, and there is an excellent family group of peasants to mark his progress. For the rest, Mrs. MacMonnies contributes two examples of her sound knowledge of the requirements and limitations of purely decorative painting, and Mr. Tiffany shows himself supreme among the designers of stained glass. It is to be regretted that Mr. La Farge did not prefer to exhibit more of his beautiful glass and fewer of the Japanese sketches and pictures for which a special gallery has been set apart. These do not show him at his best when, as Parisians unfortunately do not know quite so well as New Yorkers, he is a decorative artist of rare distinction.

Among the sculptors, Americans have also distinguished themselves—not at the Champ-de-Mars, where there is little to note save the collection, in a separate gallery, of Carriès's life-work, the tomb by M. Bartholomé, portions of which have been exhibited in previous Salons, and a couple of busts by M. Rodin. But at the Champ Élysées, Mr. Frank Duveneck makes his first appearance as a sculptor, and has achieved an immediate and very striking success. His design cannot rival M. Bartholomé's

in elaboration, for it is simplicity itself, but it expresses even more perfectly the serenity and majesty of death. There is both genuine feeling and masterly modelling in the figure of the woman who lies outstretched upon the simple low tomb, her hands folded, a palm branch to one side, resting gently on the flowing draperies. Mr. Duveneck has never revealed so fine a sense of beauty in his painting. Mr. MacMonnies's model for the statue of Shakspere, later to grace the National Library in Washington, promises impressiveness, though the figure is not so accomplished as the delightfully modelled head. Of the many Joans of Arc which the year has brought forth, M. Dubois's is by far the most satisfactory, though, as an equestrian statue, it cannot but invite comparison with Frémiet's masterpiece in the Place des Pyramides, and suffer in consequence. Nothing else in the large court is so noteworthy, save the bas-reliefs by M. Falguière.

In both Salons, especially in the Champ-de-Mars, more than the accustomed space is reserved for decorative work—the *objets d'art* of the Catalogue. In both, in the black-and-white sections, the prints are much more remarkable than the original drawings. At the Champs-Élysées M. Baude and M. Leveillé, Mr. Cole and Mr. Wolf carry off the honors among the wood-engravers; M. Dillon and M. Fantin-Latour, M. Roedel and M. Willette among the lithographers. At the Champ-de-Mars there is less rubbish, and the proportion of good work is larger. M. Florian shows marvellous wood-engravings after M. Renouard's pencil sketches. M. Valloton, M. Jeanniot, and M. Lepère amuse by their original and vigorous wood-cuts. M. Lunois and M. Auriol have made vast strides in advance in the printing of lithographs in color. And Max Klinger is now included among the etchers. N. N.

Correspondence.

RECTIFICATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the review of Lord De Tabley's poems in your number of yesterday, his picture of Cleopatra is justly described in no complimentary terms. But your reviewer seems not to be aware that the noble writer was not thinking of Shakspere at all, but "transmuting" directly from Horace, whose wild and joyous rush of denunciation in the thirty-seventh ode of his first book assumes the curiously stiff and labored step of Lord De Tabley's quatrains.

The review of Bishop Clark's 'Reminiscences' leads me to point out the recurrence in his pages of one never-ending blunder of American writers. The Bishop speaks of Mr. Charles Astor Bristed as distinguished at *Oxford*. One would think that a Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church might be aware of the existence of the University of Cambridge—the Alma Mater of the present Archbishop of Canterbury. W. E.

Quincy, Mass., June 7, 1895.

Notes.

A circular recently issued by the Historical Society of Pennsylvania to its members asks contributions or a guarantee to the amount of $2,000 per annum for five years, for the purpose of obtaining a full copy of the Journal of the Board of Trade from the original in the English Public Record Office. "Having worked much in this very series," says the writer of a private letter, "I do not hesitate to assert that they constitute the most important existing collection of manuscripts relating to America during the colonial period. Especially important is the Journal, for it contains the day-to-day proceedings of what was practically the supreme executive of the American colonies, and alone makes possible a clear understanding of many important historical manuscripts that, taken by themselves, are apparently meaningless. Before this body came nearly every person prominent in American history, to argue or give evidence on some subject; the commercial policy of Great Britain, which so largely caused the Revolution, was shaped in it, as was also the action on the western colonies and the sequestration of the western lands, which, carried to its extreme in the Quebec act, was another of the potent causes of our Revolution; and, indeed, its action on American laws, paper money, bounties, and many other subjects is as vital for an understanding of the colonial period, so far as the government of the colonies and their relations with the mother country are concerned, as the federal reports are for an understanding of the United States statutes at large."

Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston, will have an American edition of Ferd. Ongania's 'Art of Printing in the Renaissance.'

The Century Co. are about to issue the Life of Sonya Kovalevsky, by the Duchess of Cajanello, together with the great mathematician's recollections of her childhood, translated by Miss Hapgood; also Mrs. Burton Harrison's 'An Errant Wooing.'

'The Ameer Abdur Rahman [of Afghanistan],' by Stephen Wheeler, is the first of Frederick Warne & Co.'s "Public Men of To-Day; An International Series." 'Li Hung Chang,' by Prof. Robert K. Douglas, will come next.

Further announcements by Macmillan & Co. are 'The Climates and Baths of Great Britain'; 'Catholic Socialism,' by Prof. Francesco S. Nitti; a clerical autobiography, 'Fifty Years, or Dead Years and Living Deeds,' by the Rev. Harry Jones; and 'Off the Mill,' a holiday tour of Switzerland, by Canon Browne, of St. Paul's. Publication of Jules Marcou's Life of Agassiz has been postponed till September; and to the autumn will also be relegated John La Farge's lectures on art, and Prof. Edward Channing's 'The United States of America, 1765-1861.'

An interesting title is 'Southern Statesmen of the Old Régime,' by an instructor in the new, Prof. William P. Trent of the University of the South, Sewanee, Tenn. The work will be published by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready 'A Short Constitutional History of England,' by Henry St. Clair Feilden, and a 'History of Greece,' by Philip Van Ness Myers.

The second volume of 'Moods: A Journal Intime,' is on the eve of issuing from the Jenson Press, 810 Sansom Street, Philadelphia. Later in the summer, 'Bookplates: An Historical Sketch,' by Charles Dexter Allen, will proceed from the same source. Both works will be printed in the type of Nicolas Jenson, and will be illustrated.

Sir Walter and no end. Two editions of the Waverley Novels have been vying with each other during the past year, and now a more modest but most welcome reprint is begun by Archibald Constable & Co., London. Here the handy size is what first strikes us as admirable, then the scarlet cloth binding with white paper labels; within, the typography is correspondingly captivating, a clear, full-bodied letter filling a page of pleasing proportions. The contents are Scott pure and simple, for it is his favorite (Cadell) edition of 1829-33 that is followed even to the regulation steel frontispiece and title-page vignette by some of the best artists of that period, but without breaking a story in the middle of a volume. The series of course begins with 'Waverley,' and in due time (September 28, 1896) the forty-eight redcoats will all be mustered in.

Prof. Dowden's cautious recommendation of Sir Edward Sullivan's 'Tales from Scott' (Roberts Bros.) is prophetic; they are but bald outlines or syllabi of the great romances, from which the romance is well evaporated.

Another *Blackwood* débutant, John Galt, succeeds Michael Scott, author of 'Tom Cringle's Log,' in the well-chosen series of resuscitated novels which Macmillan is publishing. Of Galt's superabundant productions, 'Annals of the Parish' and 'The Ayrshire Legatees' have been coupled to make a single sample volume, possessing a real historical value for the reign of George the Third. Mr. Alfred Ainger furnishes the introduction.

From D. Appleton & Co. we have, in the "Great Commanders Series," 'General Sheridan,' by Gen. Henry E. Davies. Gen. Davies completed this volume only a little while before his death. It was evidently a labor of love, in which his regard for his commander everywhere shines out. He frankly says that it is a compilation more than a composition, for the basis is necessarily the autobiography of Sheridan, aided by other memoirs of campaigns written by comrades and friends of Davies. The result is a warm eulogy, faithful to the leading historical facts, and earnestly espousing the hero's side whenever a question arises between him and any other. The book thus becomes all the more stimulating for the casual reader, and no harm is done, for students will know where to look for the other side in disputed matters in the campaigns either of the West or of the East. The brilliant and energetic Sheridan had a personality which must always be attractive to a reading public, and Gen. Davies's presentation of it is clear, compact, and eminently readable.

'The Evolution of Industry,' by Henry Dyer (Macmillan), is a labored and tedious essay on the art of extracting the sunbeams of prosperity from the cucumber of paternal legislation. We have discovered nothing original in the book, but it presents the speculations of many writers upon social topics in a clear and systematic manner.

The French are fortunate in having two carefully made year-books of music and the drama; the British have only the insufficient *Era Almanack*. For the second time now Mr. William Archer has gathered together his year's work in dramatic criticism, and the 'Theatrical World of 1894' (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners) is even more elaborately prepared than its predecessor. Mr. Archer is easily the best of English dramatic critics, well equipped, possessing broad sympathies, keen insight, and an understanding of the technic of the theatre.

Mr. Archer and Mr. R. W. Lowe have made a selection of Hazlitt's 'Dramatic Essays' (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners), which show him at his best. Like Lamb and like Leigh Hunt, Hazlitt is a limner of

histrionic portraits, and the three together restore for us the actors of the beginning of this century, just as Cibber's incomparable 'Apology' restores for us the actors two generations earlier. Mr. Archer contributes an acute and searching analysis of Hazlitt's work.

The fact that the address given before the German Scientific Association at its meeting in Vienna last September, by Prof. Forel of Zurich, already appears in a second edition (Bonn: Emil Strauss) is an indication that it is a paper of more than usual interest. Prof. Forel is well known on account of his researches upon ants and upon hypnotism, among other subjects, and it may be mentioned in passing that he is one of the few Germans who share the Anglo-Saxon belief in the general harmfulness of alcoholic beverages. The title of his paper is 'Gehirn und Seele,' and his view may be characterized as a pantheistic monism. He believes in a universal force of which matter, energy, and consciousness are different manifestations. More interesting than his philosophical views is the general sketch which he gives of the various questions now chiefly occupying the attention of scientific men.

Two Leipzig booksellers, Paul Schulze and Otto Koller, prepared as a "Festschrift" for the celebration of Bismarck's eightieth birthday a neat volume of seventy pages entitled 'Bismarck-Literatur' (Leipzig: Grachlauer), containing a classified list of all German and the most important foreign Bismarckiana that had appeared up to the end of March, 1895, consisting of letters and speeches, occasional discourses, table-talk, "winged words," biographies, characterizations, and criticisms *pro et contra*, works on the Arnim affair and on Bismarck's retirement and its consequences, poems, plays, and humorous and satirical productions. Histories, like Sybel's 'Die Begründung des Deutschen Reiches,' are also included in the list. The voluminous octogenary Bismarck literature that has been published since April 1, will doubtless be considered in a later edition of this interesting bibliography, the practical value of which is greatly enhanced by an excellent index. The retail price of each work is also given.

'Le Homestead aux États-Unis' (Paris: Guillaumin & Cie.) is the title of an elaborate treatise by the French statistician and economist L. Vacher, on the American homestead in its legal, moral, political, economical, and social relations to the community at large, to sailors, soldiers, Indians, and the general development of the industry of the country. The author makes comparison of this institution with the English manor, the German Hofrecht, and the Russian Mir. The lack of an index in such a work is painfully felt.

According to an estimate made by the Swedish Bureau of Statistics, the Swedish language was used at the beginning of this year by about 6,300,000 persons. This is based on the last general census, which showed the following geographical distribution of Swedish-speaking people: in Sweden 4,750,000, Finland 325,000, Norway 38,000, Denmark 34,000, Germany 12,000, the rest of Europe 10,000, America (by which is meant both continents) 770,000, and a scattering of a few thousands in other parts of the world. Of special interest in this report are the figures connected with Finland, which show that, in spite of the Russian encouragement of the native language, Swedish is still spoken by over an eighth of the entire population.

The jubilee of the sailing of Sir John Franklin's Arctic expedition has just been celebrated in London. Mr. Clements Markham gave an interesting sketch of Franklin's life and services, among which was the boarding and capture of a United States gunboat at New Orleans while commanding the boats of H. M. S. *Bedford*. Sir Leopold M'Clintock, who accompanied at least four of the search expeditions, testified to the admirable order and discipline which manifestly had prevailed with Sir John Franklin's crews. He closed by saying that "the generous and sympathetic help of our American kinsmen throughout the whole of the Franklin search marked the beginning of that drawing together of the two great nations which was so striking a feature of the present day, and of which our children might hope to reap the whole fruition."

The English Government has at length been goaded into taking some decided action in regard to slavery in Zanzibar. For years attention has been persistently called to the fact that large numbers of slaves are annually imported from the mainland to the island of Pemba to work in the clove plantations. The jealousy of supervision on the part of the Arab planters has hitherto prevented any official examination of the manner in which they treat their slaves, although the mortality among them is notoriously great. It is apparently almost impossible for a white man to set foot on the island. In a report by Mr. A. Hardinge, the British Consul-General, upon the whole question of slavery in the Protectorate, he suggests a registration of the slave population at present in the islands, the establishment of a coast-guard patrol officered by Englishmen, and a penalty for "raw slave trading" of imprisonment for life. A policy of immediate abolition is deprecated mainly for fear of its disastrous effect on the financial position of the Sultanate.

The Atlas of the State of New York just completed and issued by Julius Bien & Co. will supersede all others till the State itself undertakes one in emulation of New Jersey's example. The great folio opens with an index to places, and the first map is that of the United States, followed by New York on a scale of one inch to twelve miles, and by the several counties on a scale of one inch to two and a half miles. There is, besides, a map of land-grant patents and purchases, labelled in red, on a scale of one inch to fifteen miles. These are not contour maps, but the roads are laid down, and in every way the Atlas is a desirable possession. New York, Brooklyn, Albany, Syracuse, Rochester, and Buffalo are mapped on separate sheets. There are also shaded maps of the State for rainfall, temperature, elevation, and population, besides some graphic statistics. The engraving possesses the excellence of the best work of the house to whose enterprise we owe the Atlas, as well as the more detailed Atlas of the Metropolitan District.

A widespread interest attaches to the third volume of the final report of the State Geologist of New Jersey on 'Water-supply, Water-power, the Flow of Streams, and Attendant Phenomena.' This laborious work has been prepared by Mr. C. C. Vermeule, consulting engineer of the survey, and, as an exhaustive study of the subject for New Jersey, leaves nothing to be desired. The watershed of every significant stream is examined in detail for its flow, ground-flow, evaporation, liability to drought, purity and potability of its water, water-power actually employed and potential. Local flow and low-water gaugings have been compared with those of other streams more or less analogous in other States, and a large array of tables and formulas originally computed by Mr. Vermeule furnish the most valuable basis extant for the calculations of water engineers in any section of the Atlantic coast at least. No other State certainly has been so thoroughly explored in a scientific manner as New Jersey can now boast of being, in the vital matter of water-supply for a rapidly increasing and dense population. Mr. Vermeule's report is accompanied by maps, diagrams, and pictorial illustrations. A list of mills and net horse-power by watersheds and by industries, another of drainage areas, forested areas, and population (in 1880) of stream basins, and one of surface and drainage area of lakes and ponds, complete this indispensable work of reference.

The seventeenth annual report of Mr. W. E. Foster of the Providence Public Library shows a gratifying gain in both the number of volumes in the Library and their use. The slight falling off in the percentage of fiction read and the increase of the works of history issued indicates the development of interest in the more solid departments of literature. This fact is the more noteworthy as there is apparently no age restriction on the use of the Library by the school-children. Some progress has been made towards the obtaining a new building for want of which the work of the Library is seriously crippled. It is with some hesitation that we express a doubt as to the expediency of printing a long list of donors, many of whom give only pamphlets, in some cases apparently mere advertisements.

—Previously begun articles excepted, there is nothing in the June magazines so striking as Thomas A. Janvier's eye-witness account in the *Century* of the festival performances last August of the Comédie-Française in the old Roman theatre at Orange. Government patronage and M. Jules Claretie have together put the final stamp of success on the work of the two societies of the Félibres—the Félibrige and the Cigaliers—in reviving in their own *Midi* a classic form of the drama in the noble building which they have partly restored and partly left in the majesty of its ancient ruin. The fact that the Provençal poets are encouraged by the enthusiasm roused by this presentation of the "Œdipus" and the "Antigone," under the conditions of positive sublimity described by Mr. Janvier, to hope that the Roman theatre of Orange, "again perfect, shall become the home of the highest dramatic art, and a place of periodic pilgrimage, biennial or even annual, for the whole of the art-loving world," has for readers at large an interest which cannot fail to be stimulated by the delightful illustrations and ample data of this article. Aesthetic interest, in this case pleasantly tinctured with a patriotic feeling of possessorship, must likewise be stimulated by the excellently pictured and written description of the new Boston Public Library. Mrs. Van Rensselaer presents the architectural claims of this building, whose series of mural decorations have for months past been the theme of universal comment, and Mr. Lindsay Swift, of the librarian's department, makes the reader acquainted with principles in accordance with which vast collections of books must, to be accessible, move and have their being. An instructive antithesis in points of view is offered by the juxtaposition of Mr. Howells's "Tribulations of a Cheerful Giver" with Josiah Flynt's "Two Tramps in England." The latter writer as usual, after having temporarily identified himself with the class he is studying, makes a literal transcript of its qualities, and confines his conclusions re-

garding it within the briefest limits—in this instance to the single sentence, "The professional beggar should be shut up indefinitely." If this consummation should ever be accomplished, there would be no further opportunity for Mr. Howells's graceful whimsies of emotion and logic on the subject of almsgiving. In Mr. Howells's view, the giver is, as a matter of course, he who easily drops the dole of a coin into an outstretched palm; in the more strenuous view of the new charity the only giving humanely permissible is of time, pains, and personal service. Both fiction and verse in this number of the magazine are more than ordinarily good, while in the account of the discovery of Glacier Bay, by John Muir, may be found the several attractions that belong to a narrative of adventure and peril, personally recorded, and imbued with the spirit of national extension in the best sense of the word.

—The same and other kindred merits are also to be found in the one article which this month scores a marked success in *Harper's*. In his description of the hand-to-hand encounter with the Indians from which he and a remainder of his scouts narrowly escaped with their lives, Gen. Forsyth gives his readers a sensation as nearly that of listening to a *viva-voce* narrative as the printed page ever vouchsafes to the fascinated attention; the frontier fight of a quarter of a century ago becomes vividly present, as its survivor rehearses its mingled picturesqueness and horrors, while doing a soldier's justice to his comrades by name, no less than to the warrior, Roman Nose, whose requiem he writes. Otherwise, although Mr. Lang dallies a while with the subject of his national game of golf, and President Low touches upon the pregnant question of combinations among workingmen and combinations among capitalists, the composition of the number is such as inevitably to call up the suggestion that readers must read, even when writers have little or nothing to write.

—The sum total of the current *Scribner's* amounts, as far as finished papers go, to not much more than another version of the same sad though indisputable fact. If the burning subject of bicycling has not been exhausted at the hands of the three illustrators and the four writers who treat it symposium-fashion, it has at least been brought to a point where a temporary lull in discussion will not be ungrateful to readers whose thoughts still incline to more than one line of locomotion. Medical endorsement of the exercise for men and women alike, under restrictions of common sense for both, is supplied by Dr. J. West Roosevelt. In the short story, "A Coöperative Courtship," by Annie S. Winston, interest is kept alive by the fortunate mixture of naturalness and ingenuity that serves, now and again, to give a saving measure of freshness to the purely commonplace. The next number of the magazine will bring to a close Mrs. Humphry Ward's artistic docket of a new female offender.

—In the *Atlantic*, William Sharp's reminiscences of Christina Rossetti will be turned to with eagerness, and will perhaps be laid down with a shade of disappointment in the individuality portrayed. The writer's acquaintance with Miss Rossetti did not begin until she had entered at once upon middle age and upon the sadder, lonelier, and more self-repressed stage of her life. Others who knew her earlier have given a brighter, if less saintly, view of her personality. Mr. Sharp's description, however, of a chance meeting with her, at a house in Bloomsbury, and of the voice and accent of his unknown fellow-visitor, whose "words came away from the mouth and lips as clearly as a trill from a bird," gives as charming an impression of the poetess as her most ardent admirer could wish. Disappointment, again, almost certainly awaits the reader who is accustomed to turn with high expectations to this magazine's educational articles, in the paper by Prof. Corson on "Vocal Culture in its relation to Literary Culture." Of all forms of culture, none is in more pressing need of incentive in our own country than the culture of the voice in any and all of its relations, but this is, unfortunately, a paper not likely to do more than excite an amiable assent to its generalities. For the best of the *Atlantic*, readers must, this month, look among its uncompleted articles.

—Affixed to the fourth volume of the new edition of Poe is a welcome bibliography of the Tales, with notes. The editors quote statements of the author as to the number of tales he had written, and, as they have not been able to find so many, express the opinion that his figures are incorrect. We are not so sure of this. One of his stories, "The Visionary," appeared anonymously in the *Lady's Book* (not then known as *Godey's*) in January, 1834, and was thus, so far as is known, the second in order of publication. The editors make it the sixth, being unaware of its appearance before July, 1835, in the *Southern Literary Messenger*. And although Poe is not known to have acknowledged them, by reprinting or otherwise, we fancy that other tales from his pen are to be found in the *Lady's Book* of this period. They may be unworthy to associate with his later stories, but we think no other person in America could have written "The Maniac's Story" (September, 1833), "The History of a Hat" (August, 1834), "The Duel" (October, 1834), or "The Prima Donna" (December, 1834). Poe is also known to have published articles, never reprinted, in two periodicals of which no copies can be found, while the editors have failed to find the first place of publication of some which have always been included in his works. Thus, they suppose what they call "Mystification (Von Jung)" to have appeared first in 1840, place unknown. They will find it in the *American Monthly* (June, 1837), where it is called "Von Jung, the Mystific." This date makes its place in order of date fifteen instead of twenty-four. "The Angel of the Odd" they guess to have been published after February, 1845, but it was issued in the *Columbian Magazine*, October, 1844. As the editors traced another tale to this magazine for August of that year, it is strange that they overlooked this. "The Sphinx," which they suppose to have appeared in 1849, will be found in *Arthur's Magazine* for January, 1846.

—The series of articles by Téodor de Wyzewa on life and manners in Germany, which appeared some years ago in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, have now been issued in a volume entitled 'Chez les Allemands, l'Art et les Mœurs' (Paris). It is evidently the author's intention to treat the subject in an unprejudiced manner, but the tendency to draw general conclusions from limited observations often leads him into queer errors. In the eyes of a Frenchman everything that is not Parisian is provincial. Wyzewa looks at Germany from this point of view, and his division of the whole empire into two parts, Berlin and *la province*, is fatal to any proper appreciation of the numerous independent centres of culture outside of the capital. It is impossible that Berlin should ever exercise over Dresden, Leipzig, and Munich the preponderating influence that Paris does over Tours, Mâcon, Lyons, and other French cities. He relates that on one occasion a young lawyer invited a few gentlemen to dinner; his wife, however, did not appear at the table, but ate with the servant in the kitchen. From this instance he infers that German husbands regard their wives as playing the same part socially as beer and tobacco. He seems to imagine that the grisette is as much of an institution in German university towns as in the Latin Quarter, and wonders that the students never speak of her, interpreting this silence as another proof of slight esteem for the fair sex. He expresses his great admiration for the quickness and skill with which all the newest inventions are practically utilized in Berlin, whither, he says, men of other nations must go if they wish to see the actual workings of the most recent achievements of science, industry, and education. He doubts whether any American city is in these respects ahead of the imperial metropolis on the Spree. And yet, with all these advantages, it is a cold, unsympathetic, and unlovable place, made, as it were, in the very image of the Prussian himself, who is thoroughly uncongenial not only to foreigners, but also to natives of other parts of Germany, however much they may appreciate his intelligence and energy of character. Doubtless this view will be endorsed by many persons competent to form an opinion on the subject. On numerous other points Wyzewa's statements, even when they contain a kernel of truth, are altogether too sweeping, and in some cases utterly false.

—Hedwig Bender, whose philosophical writings are well known in Germany, gives, in a late issue of Virchow's "Collection of Popular Scientific Lectures," an interesting account of Luise von François, a writer of novels and short stories who is unfortunately little known in this country, but who well deserved the high reputation which she attained in Germany. Karl Hillebrand pronounced her principal novel, 'Die letzte Reckenburgerin,' to be a "work which stands alone in our literature," and Fritz Reuter loved it so much that he kept it constantly lying on his writing-table. The author herself had rather a melancholy life. For twenty years she was the sole dependence of a blind father and a bed-ridden mother, and her first writings were undertaken for the purpose of adding to the frugal means of support of this afflicted family. Her long confinement in a sick-room ended by making her averse to ordinary social intercourse, but she found much consolation throughout her life in a number of remarkable literary friendships—notably with Konrad Ferdinand Meyer and Marie von Ebner-Eschenbach. It is, by the way, rather remarkable, considering how depressing an effect upon genius the general attitude towards women must have in Germany, that so large a proportion of the best part of current literature is produced by them. Ossip Schubin surpasses most of the novelists who write in German in that *verve* and lightness of touch which the Germans do not always know how to appreciate when it is given to them, and her 'Gloria Victis' is a novel of very great dramatic power. It now appears that Fanny Groeger, whose four short stories, just issued, have created such a rage in Berlin, is, like her, an Austrian of high social position.

PATER'S GREEK STUDIES.

Greek Studies: A Series of Essays by Walter Pater, late Fellow of Brasenose College. Prepared for the Press by Charles L. Shadwell, Fellow of Oriel College. Macmillan. 1895. Pp. ix, 319.

A POSTHUMOUS collection of essays is too often a bundle of chaff to be floated on the flood-tide of a reputation. Mr. Pater left no chaff to be misused by partial friends or designing publishers. Whatever may have been his faults, carelessness (*otiosity*, as he might himself have called it) was not among them. He took nothing in hand, however slight, which he did not make his own by careful thought and conscientious workmanship. He was not content simply with accurate learning and scholarship; he aimed always at presenting his results in a finished and suitable form, as a work of art.

The papers here collected by Mr. Shadwell, though published at long intervals beginning with 1876, have a general unity of purpose and conception. They deal with Greek art and with some special topics in mythology; but they acquire a special charm and value from the author's individual mode of treatment. Amid the shoals of treatises on the myth of Dionysus, for example, Mr. Pater's study has its own distinct and permanent usefulness because, starting with facts and theories that are now the common property of scholars, it arranges them in order and evolves from them an organic whole; it traces out the development of the myth by the aid of an imagination at once poetic and scientific. His method, so subtle and delicate, moving within careful limits, illuminates a subject that is difficult to our modern minds because so far removed from our modern thoughts and ideas. Myth-making is a process not easily comprehended by matter-of-fact people; it is a poetic process, and is best interpreted by one who has some of the poet's gifts. Mr. Pater helps us to follow it in the myth of Dionysus by a wide range of illustrations—a range so wide as to include the cup of Galahad, or Shelley's "Sensitive Plant," or Benozzo Gozzoli's fresco of the Invention of Wine in the Pisan Campo Santo. He suggests in exquisite language the primitive connection between sculpture and mythology.

"Conceive," he says, speaking of the growth of the idea of Dionysus, "the image of an actual person in whom, somehow, all those impressions of the vine and the fruit, as the highest type of the life of the green sap, had become incorporate; all the scents and colors of its flowers and fruit, and something of its curling foliage; the chances of its growth; the enthusiasm, the easy flow of more choice expression, as its juices mount within one; as Wordsworth says,

> "'Beauty born of murmuring sound
> Shall pass into her face'—

so conceive an image into which the beauty, born of the vine, has passed; and you have the idea of Dionysus, as he appears entirely fashioned at last by central Greek poetry and art, and consecrated in the great festivals of the Wine-press and the Flowers."

It was thus that there "grew a series of wondrous personalities, of which the Greek imagination became the dwelling-place; beautiful, perfectly understood human outlines embodying a strange, delightful, lingering sense of clouds and water and sun." These personalities, these "spiritual forms," as Blake calls them, received their supreme embodiment in the drama of Æschylus, and in the Phidian marbles of the Parthenon.

The essay on the "Bacchanals" of Euripides pursues the same theme with the same poetic insight. It gives the best analysis we have yet seen of the probable temper and mixed motives of Euripides in writing his latest drama, as well as of the fantastic combination the play presents of quasi-ethical and moral purpose with picturesque and cruel religious ecstasies and orgies. The orgies of the Voudoo and the ecstasies of a Methodist camp-meeting in the South would serve as a useful modern commentary on the wild and savage rites of the troop of bacchanalian worshippers; but the vulgarity of both would give no hint of those mænad dances and encampments on the high mountain lawns which confer on the "Bacchanals" its choicest inspirations. The spirit of such scenes in a world that has almost vanished from our conceptions is perfectly conveyed in the following description (pp. 53, 54):

"Himself a woman-like god, it was on women and feminine souls that the power of Dionysus mainly fell; and so the Thiasus, also, is almost exclusively formed of women, of those who experience most directly the influence of things which touch thought through the senses—the presence of night, the expectation of morning, the nearness of wild, unsophisticated, natural things—the echoes, the coolness, the noise of frightened creatures as they climbed through the darkness, the sunrise seen from the hill-tops, the disillusion, the bitterness of satiety, the deep slumber which comes with the morning."

From such scenes and customs the imitative arts drew new motives of freedom and energy and freshness; they suggested the graceful languor of the fallen Mænad of Praxiteles, the wind-touched draperies, the rhythm and the postures on many a sarcophagus frieze and Pompeiian wall-painting. The possible connection of such ritual and such mad doings with ethics and morality is maintained by Euripides, apparently with a grave face, and is one of those puzzles which seem rooted in the perennial illogicality of the human intellect, bound fast in the chains of human emotion and associations. Religion, in its earliest forms, and ethics, have at least this in common, that both are rooted in custom and immemorial usage, and hence their sanctions become entangled and confused. The murderous issue of the "Bacchanals" is not, after all, so far removed in spirit from the butchery of an Hypatia; and each might well give rise to the indignant line of Lucretius:

> "Tantum religio potuit suadere malorum."

It is a far easier task to trace the ethical purport and associations in the myth of Demeter and Persephone, for we have the less doubtful warrant of the poets from Pindar down and the testimony of grave prose-writers as to the lessons of the Eleusinian mysteries. The history of this development Mr. Pater pursues through those phases which he has usefully defined in the growth of myth—the instinctive, namely, or half-conscious period; the conscious or literary, when the idea passes into the mind and becomes the property of the poets; and the third or ethical phase, when the story of ideal personages lends itself, under the shaping of choicer spirits, to elevated sentiments of sorrow or of awe—when Demeter, for example, becomes "the type of divine grief, and Persephone the goddess of death, yet with a promise of life to come." Such ideals and such sentiments Mr. Pater finds translated and expressed, for these deities especially, in the art of the best period. He sees in Demeter mourning for her lost daughter "our Lady of Sorrows, the Mater Dolorosa of the ancient world"; and in the Eleusinian processions and ritual an anticipation of the mysteries of the Middle Ages and of our modern pilgrimages. If it occurs to any one that such analogies cast a borrowed mediæval color on ancient life and customs, we must remember that the latest matter-of-fact methods of science point to this very mode of investigation and comparison. The mythologists are now beginning to agree that resemblances of myths and fairy-tales over the face of the globe depend quite as much on the kinship of the human mind as on imitation or diffusion. It is an old story that the early Christian Church was hospitable to pagan myths and customs; we know that the Christians of the catacombs fused the legend of Orpheus with their own symbolism, and probably borrowed some pictures of a future world from the same order of ideas. The flowers of Easter Sunday are gathered with the same thrill and the same hope that was more vaguely felt ages ago by the Greek rustic when he welcomed in the awakening spring the new birth of Persephone.

The later essays in this volume were the beginning of a series on the history of Greek art, which Mr. Pater should have lived to complete. No English scholar was better qualified by native gifts, by his special studies, and by the graces of his style to sketch an outline of the course of Greek art for laymen, which should be at once learned, sympathetic, and free from technicalities, than the author of the essay on Winckelmann and of the masterly little volume on Plato. It is true that some critics smiled at Mr. Pater's Greek accents (or his printer's), and affected to believe that no good thing could come out of the mouth of one who was guilty of a misquotation. Such critics might indeed enlighten the world on the subject of accentuation and of Platonic syntax. The fact remained that Mr. Pater had lived with his author most of his life; he knew his Plato intimately, was penetrated by his spirit, and had a mission to introduce his thoughts and personality to mankind in general, which did not fall within the province of the philologians. In the matter of Greek art his mission was clearer still. He brought to his task a trained and delicate taste, a breadth and sureness of information, the tokens of which are manifest in these lectures. If they had been finished, we should have gained in them the introduction and the sympathetic guidance of an artist, whereas now we have to depend rather on the manuals of archæologists.

In his introductory sketch of Greek sculpture, Mr. Pater warns us against that cold isolation in which we now view all remains of Greek sculpture—isolation from the concomitant arts, from the architectural group to which, with careful estimate of distance and point of observation, the frieze belonged; isolation, also, from the clear Greek skies and the poetical Greek life. He reminds us that Greek sculpture was far from being exclusively intellectualized or idealistic. "The black and gray world of extant antique that remains to us ranged within the cold walls of our galleries, needs to be translated back into ivory and gold," and to be replaced in its rich and tasteful *milieu* of minor precious works, intaglios, coins, and vases. The Greeks were not in the least aware of Hegel's canon that "sculpture aims at the pure abstract form, and therefore abandons color and painting." On the contrary, they were prone to a sort of "realism," as we call it; they were frankly fond of warmth and color. And so, in spite of Hegel, they were actually capable of tinting the hair and faces of their statues, of coloring their eyes to imitate life, and of adding metal bridles to the horses of the Parthenon frieze. All this we are liable to forget in the galleries; indeed,

we have so few hints of it in the museums that the very statement of the practice still shocks our modern sensibilities.

Mr. Pater had always a horror of pedantry, but his graceful style covers a body of ample and solid learning which dissembles itself as much as possible. A single sentence or a single line sums up *en passant* the gist of some recent elaborate and technical discussion. In writing about the "Harpy Tomb," for example, he corrects in a single line the common notion that the winged birds with human faces are harpies, and prefers to call them sirens. An archæologist might tell us as much; but few archæologists could go on, as Mr. Pater does, to illustrate the symbolism of the little figures, or souls, carried in the sirens' arms, by referring to mediæval reliefs and colored windows in which the soul of Lazarus or of the Virgin Mary is similarly represented. In such matters he shows the precision of the scholar without pedantry, the taste of the artist without technicality.

Another special quality of his criticism is that he sees his subject whole, not from this or that side of the specialist. When he discourses of the Discobolus and the Diadumenus, he cannot forget the public and family life which they proceeded from and illustrated; he cannot forget Pindar's verses, which, in his own century, conferred on the young victors the splendor and immortality which in the next century were sought from the sculptor rather than the poet. The votive statues which were so multiplied in that age of devotion to athleticism, he calls most happily "a countless series of popular illustrations of Pindar's odes." And certainly the gymnastic that was crowned by nothing more vulgar than an Olympian ode or a statue of the Discobolus, must have been a step towards Plato's μουσική—towards the cultivation of a "fair proportion between body and soul." How far this "beau ideal of athletic motion or athletic repose" falls short of the whole conception of Plato's music, Mr. Pater defines with subtle discrimination in a passage that is not without its lesson just now:

> "When he came to his main business with the quoit-player, the wrestler, the runner, Myron did not for a moment forget that they too were animals, young animals, delighting in natural motion, in free course through the yielding air, over uninterrupted space. . . . It is of the essence of the athletic prizeman, involved in the very ideal of the quoit-player, the cricketer, not to give expression to mind in antagonism to, or invasion of, the body, whose healthful balance of functions it may so easily perturb—to disavow that insidious enemy of the fairness of the bodily soul as such."

In reading these last words of an unfinished message we cannot help regretting that the delicate vibrations of such sentences are to be heard no more, that they are to die away with the pathos and beauty of a passing-bell. There are people who detest Mr. Pater's style and who "canna thole him," because his art at times passes over into artifice and preciosity. Yet in an age when all the world is making haste to manufacture "copy," and to sell it at fetching prices, one may pardon the foibles that spring from painstaking. It is true that Mr. Pater liked to play upon his instrument and to draw from it melodies more varied and harmonious than those popular barrel-organ tunes which instructors in rhetoric now grind out so assiduously in company with their pupils. His paragraphs recall the warm, low colors of tapestry, its elaborate patterns wrought with many careful stitches. If at times they give the effect of something overwrought and superfine, we cannot at any rate complain that the stuff is not worth the embroidery. Not to mention his Plato and those essays on the Renaissance which years ago left their mark on æsthetic criticism, and captivated such stylists as Robert Louis Stevenson, the 'Marius' was in some respects a unique conception and achievement. We may call it a pagan 'Pilgrim's Progress'—a true history of the wandering of a human soul, none the less veracious because it was in part an autobiography, the story of a modern spirit moving in an ancient world. The experience it recorded with such delicacy of introspection and observation appealed, from its character and its setting, only to the few; but it was none the less genuine and important as a human document. The setting itself was equally unique in its combination of vivid creative imagination with entirely adequate and scientific learning. Such pictures as the visit of Marius to the temple of Æsculapius, or the sketch of the Dorian training at Laconia, show all the truer and more brilliant when contrasted with the vagueness or pedantry of the ordinary classical novel. Compared with these magic images from Faust's mirror, the Uardas, Ione, and Glaucuses move like the marionettes of a puppet-show. In all this careful work, in the cultivation of these rare gifts of thought and expression, Mr. Pater's weakness as well as his strength lay in a lifelong search for perfection. The search for perfection, in spite of the certainty that it is not to be attained in this world, was the aim of his labors—or, as he himself has said in his own manner, "the maintenance of a kind of candid discontent in the face of the highest achievement."

WALKER'S MAKING OF THE NATION.

The Making of the Nation, 1783-1817. By Francis A. Walker. Scribners. 1895.

THIS book follows works by Prof. Fisher and Prof. Sloane, in a series of four, which is to be completed in one by Prof. Burgess on the sixty years following 1817. From President Walker's position and known ability something valuable was to be expected; yet his pronounced views on the currency question excited a tremor on first opening his pages. It is eminently satisfactory to be able to say that no such visions intervene to injure the tone of this book, in every way worthy of a scholar, a teacher, and a publicist.

Of late more space has been given by historians to the first generation after the adoption of the Constitution, which their precursors had neglected. This manual, which by its size deprecates comparison with the histories of Adams and McMaster, yields to no book yet published for suggestiveness and penetration. The first chapter handles with fresh touches the old themes of the weakness of the Confederation; the load of National and State debt; the striking inferiority of the Congressional delegates at the close of the war to those at its commencement, and the distrust everywhere existing in the minds of the less prosperous part of the population towards the wealthier citizens. President Walker handles Shays's rebellion with a tenderness not surprising in a child of the Connecticut Valley, brought up in the traditions of the old rural Democracy of Massachusetts, that never loved the Boston Federalists and Whigs. His account of the Constitutional Convention is good; but in remarking on Washington's services as chairman, he might have mentioned Nathaniel Gorham, regularly called to the chair when the convention was in committee, the father of western New York, and altogether a more important figure in the country then than our histories generally indicate. Touching the proposition that representation in the Senate should be based on wealth, he asks his reader to "try to imagine any one daring to make such a proposition now." There is no need of the proposition; wealth now sits in the Senate directly, and not by representation.

In discussing the true theory of the States and the Union, Gen. Walker speaks of the extreme views of Jay and Patrick Henry as each worthy of lawyers, while an intermediate view, expressed in the words of Gerry, that "we were neither one nation nor different nations," appears to him more statesmanlike. This idea, that Chief Justice Jay, in Chisholm vs. Georgia, took the national view with too much of the lawyer's temper, is curiously inconsistent with an opinion expressed later on, that Jay was hardly enough of a lawyer for the great place of Chief Justice. It is, however, much easier to call that very great man either too much or not enough of a lawyer, than to refute the argument which President Walker quotes, that the colonies did not form State governments till they had asked and received the advice of the Continental Congress, and that the Independence of the United States was declared when only three had State governments at all. But President Walker decides that there was no real nation made in either 1776, 1783, or 1789; that the making went on for a generation longer, the new Western States being integral factors, and that the nation woke up to find itself really made at Monroe's inauguration in 1817. The formation of the new Constitution, and the tacit abolition of the Confederation, he thinks quite revolutionary, not legitimately growing out of any previous organism; and he is greatly troubled, as many others have been, at what might, could, would, or should have happened if North Carolina and Rhode Island had not ratified. Of course, it is for divine Providence alone to say why Rhode Island has been permitted, ever since 1640, to do things no other community ever did before or ever will want to do again; it is merely her destined way of falling into line, and the only thing is to be patient with her and not worry. Then follows a recapitulation, in a sort of *oratio obliqua*, of the Constitution itself; this seems unnecessary. It is useful in any history to print the Constitution word for word in an appendix, but the present plan too vividly recalls Justice Story's explanations—*i. e.*, literal restatements of the articles, much like the explanations of mathematical tutors in Harvard's elder day.

The ever-thrilling story of the adoption of the Constitution is well retold; and a very interesting fact, generally overlooked, is mentioned, that the old Tories, as a whole, favored the new scheme. It is not brought out clearly that Virginia ratified supposing herself to be the ninth and not the tenth State, and that Hamilton, to whom President Walker is hardly as just as he tries to be, shut his eyes to very tempting prospects, if he had been willing to be a pure New Yorker, and take his State, as he might, out of the Union. Those who declare that the vote of New York is necessary to elect a President should be reminded that at the first Presidential election she cast no electoral votes at all.

The author's tribute to Washington is dignified and just. He brings out the universal admiration he excited among his European contemporaries, and profoundly adds, "It is not American partiality which exalts the name of

Washington." In a brief review of the population and resources of the country in 1789, he indicates in a striking manner that nothing has contributed so much to the development of America as the inborn inventive genius, quoting from an English writer, "The American invents as the Greek carved, as the Venetian painted, as the modern Italian sings." If this is not a wholly new observation, it is here drawn out and illustrated by the President of a great school of mechanics as he has the duty and right to do. In his spirited account of Washington's administration, we are told that the wrath of the ultra-republicans blazed forth at the idea of the President's likeness on the coin, and insisted on an emblematic head of Liberty. Washington's difficulty in securing an efficient Cabinet is well told. That the Cabinet officers obviously considered themselves as occupying an independent position before Congress and the country is clearly made out; and indeed it was not till the removal of the deposits under Jackson that the theory of their absolute subordination to the President was established. President Walker expresses grave doubts if their admission to the floor of Congress would prove as effective a measure as its friends believe. Endeavoring to do justice to the genius of Hamilton, he still indicates a deep distrust of his political probity; but he takes more than one opportunity to speak in strong and deserved eulogy of the high character and priceless service of John Adams, a man who will stand higher in the estimation of his countrymen in exact proportion to the study that is given to his life.

The admission of new States, beginning with Vermont, leads the author into some excellent remarks on our Western sisters; the great help they have lent in the consolidation, or, as he will have it, the making of the nation, accompanied at the same time by many difficult and trying qualities, especially their financial unsoundness, which he regards as merely incident to a crude state of society, and sure to be outgrown. His account of the break-up of the Federalists and establishment of Jeffersonian Democracy is good and temperate; and his review of Jefferson's administration shows only too clearly what Mr Henry Adams's history had made plain before—that President Jefferson's patriotism and probity can undoubtedly be vindicated, but only at the expense of his good sense and judgment. It is truly painful to see many of our Southern members of Congress at this day thinking they offer conclusive proof of the soundness of any views when they find some warrant for them in the writings of Jefferson.

The narrative of the Louisiana Purchase and the constitutional questions it raised, and of the commercial and diplomatic quarrels with England and France, is extremely well done. When the war of 1812 is reached, though we have a correct summary, there is no attempt at any picturesqueness of campaign narratives. This is well. The country has been deluged, and in very late years especially, with pictures of martial strife on land and sea, and these have aided in fanning the rising flame of Jingoism and the Old World notion, worthy of Prussian octogenarians, utterly unworthy of Americans in middle life, that war is a good thing. It is obvious that President Walker has the honorable ambition to be the historian of peace, and he deserves that unstained crown. He is not afraid to vindicate the unselfish patriotism of the Hartford Conveners, while severely criticising some of their proposals and even the existence of the Convention; and he discusses with impartial but lively analysis the treaty of 1814 and the tariff act of 1816.

As is natural in one of President Walker's former occupation, he has much to say of the early censuses of the country, and the significance of the statistics then ascertained; and his book is provided with useful tables, maps, bibliography, and index. Without agreeing with all of his views, and perhaps with those he most cherishes, we cannot hesitate to commend this book as marked by a pure and lively style, a sound but chastened patriotism, and a recognition at once scholarly and practical of that transcendent idea, the "commonwealth of nations."

PREHISTORIC MAN IN NORTH AMERICA.

Vorgeschichte Nordamerikas im Gebiet der Vereinigten Staaten. Von Dr. Emil Schmidt in Leipzig. Braunschweig: Fr. Vieweg & Sohn. 1894. 8vo, pp. 216. Map and illustrations.

THE earliest attempts to estimate the period of the advent of man in America were made by Louis Agassiz from Lake Monroe in Florida, and by the physician Bennett Dowler from the delta of the Mississippi. The course of the Mississippi, however, is too irregular to permit observations made at one point of its delta to prove much for any other portion. As for the fragment of a human pelvis discovered in the clay-beds near Natchez, Miss., these strata of loess were caused by rain-floods, winds, and other atmospheric agencies, and hence can no longer be considered as sedimentary deposits. Dr. C. C. Abbott's investigations of the Trenton gravels are conceded by Dr. Schmidt (p. 27) to put beyond reasonable doubt the existence of diluvial man on the middle Delaware River; but his description of the deposits in which man's handiwork was found is too vague to identify with accuracy the special quaternary formation to which they belong. Gass's elephant pipes and other discoveries Dr. Schmidt refuses to take seriously. The Carson footprints were for a while the subject of fanciful speculation, but are now, in consequence of Prof. Marsh's argumentation, believed to be the tracks of a gigantic sloth. The distance of the two rows of foot prints from each other, or width of track, amounts to eighteen or nineteen inches, precluding the idea that man was in any way concerned in making them, though it would fit the elephant's gait as well as the sloth's. The discovery of the celebrated Calaveras skull in 1866, near Altarville, California, was attended with great doubts as to the remote age claimed for it. This relic was found in volcanic tufa 130 feet below the surface, and hence was certainly not of recent origin. The voluminous report which Prof. Whitney, then director of the State Geological Survey, made on this subject contains all the necessary data as to provenance, nature, and age. The skull bore a hard and solid incrustation of the rock material composing the stratum in which it was found—viz., calcareous tufa, rolling lava-stones, and ferruginous earth, together with fragments of human bones Schmidt is emphatic in asserting the excessive old age of this remarkable find, though he makes no special mention of Whitney's report.

Copper mining in its prehistoric bearing is treated with care and described with minute details by our author, who has visited in person the greatest copper-bearing region in the world, the shores and environs of Lake Superior. It may be said that copper occupies in America the place of bronze in Europe, for it is found in almost every part of the western continent, with more frequency as Lake Superior is approached. Bronze articles are found only in Mexico, Central America, and northern South America. The process of making copper tools properly belongs to the American stone period, for in their manufacture they differ in no wise from stone implements, both having been obtained by hammering, since copper tools are made almost entirely of pure and unmixed metal. Hence a copper period does not properly exist in America; smelting and casting of metals was unknown, nor can certain kinds of relief lines observed on copper implements be explained as junctures of the casting-mould. No American tribe was familiar with the process of soldering, although silver, the ubiquitous metal, would have furnished an excellent means for this process. The opinion of Farquharson, that all American copper implements were intended for ornament only, is controverted by Dr. Schmidt. Collectors and museum curators find it difficult to classify all American copper objects, and they can be named only analogically as chisels, buttons, stars, etc.

Of all the archæological remains on this continent none has excited more profoundly the curiosity of the educated classes than the mounds which exist in all possible forms, but which in no instance include stone walls. A large number of them served as defences against enemies and bear a strong resemblance to the settlements of the historic and modern Indians, which were either palisaded or surrounded with earthworks. In the Iroquois country there are as many annular forts as squares. Ohio is most thickly dotted with mounds and forts, as may be seen on Prof. Cyrus Thomas's map. Thomas makes out eight or nine districts east of the Rocky Mountains which are clearly distinct from each other in their mounds and graves, as the district of the Cherokees, the Shawnees, etc., but this division has been questioned. Flat-topped conical mounds are certainly characteristic of the southern belt of mounds. Buildings and fortifications stood upon their top, and west of the Mississippi they are found north as far as Wisconsin. Effigy mounds are found only in southern Wisconsin, in northern Illinois, in a corner of Iowa, amid plenty of other mounds. Their limit coincides almost exactly with that of the territory formerly held by the Winnebago Indians.

As a general result of mound researches, Dr. Schmidt holds that there never was a *special* race or people of mound-builders; that the mounds were thrown up by different sedentary Indian tribes of the same lineage as the Indians now living; that the plains along the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers were thickly settled by a population living by agriculture, and acquainted with the arts of pottery, weaving, and rough sculpturing of stones. The garden-beds of Wisconsin and Michigan prove an industrious culture of maize and other vegetables, but no monuments of stone architecture can be traced. The extent of the mound-covered region is large, though the Atlantic coast and the higher slopes of the Rocky Mountains contain almost none of these primitive memorials, many of which were simply burial-mounds. The growth of trees may serve in estimating the age of mounds, accumulations near mining-pits, sepulchral tumuli, etc., but is by no means a safe guide. Trees may have been enclosed within mound walls and be much older than these; and again we cannot absolutely depend on the number of rings.

In sketching the migrations and warfare of the Eastern nations, Dr. Schmidt largely upholds the views of Albert Gallatin and Horatio Hale, who tried to discover how much of real history there is in their legends. The Cherokees are evidently a branch of the Huron-Iroquois stock in race and language; they are said to have come from the lower St. Lawrence River, and, after having crossed at Sault Sainte Marie, to have gradually passed into their later seats in the Alleghany Mountains, while constantly fighting the enemies who were attacking them. It is almost certain that their ancestors were the builders of the numerous groups of mounds in Ohio. A deep-seated enmity existed between them and the cognate Iroquois of New York State, which lasted down to the end of the eighteenth century. They are believed to be identical with the legendary Talega or Talligewi, whose contests form a part of the curious, half-rhythmical Delaware record called 'Walam Olum.' Schmidt thinks their name is another form of Tsa'lagi ("Cherokee"), but it is more probably an adjectival form of the Delaware adverb talli, *over yonder*, which would permit us to interpret Talligewi as *those on the other side* of some large river or of the Alleghany range. In regard to the filiation of languages in these tribes, Schmidt adopts in every particular what Hale says, that Huron is the most archaic of the group, and, when the Iroquois was differentiated, the Mohawk and the Tuscarora retained the oldest forms. It is probably more accurate to say that, of the eastern group, Mohawk, Oneida, Cayuga, and Tuscarora are archaic in their phonetics, and that the "most changed" sounds are found in Onondaga and Seneca. From the Mohawks, as the "oldest confederates around the Iroquois council-fire," the other tribes emanated or were derived in the order of their settlement, from east to west, south of Lake Ontario. But their earlier seats must have been north of Lakes Erie and Ontario, and the Tuscaroras of North Carolina are reported to have separated from them when staying on the Oswego River.

"The Algonkin tribes originated south of Hudson's Bay, and from there spread out in various directions. The tribes speaking the more primitive languages phonetically live north of the Lakes and the St. Lawrence River, the Crees standing at the head of them. Of those that have gone south of that line, the Shawnees have retained more archaisms than the Illinois and Delaware Indians."

Suppositions of this kind are not improbable, but they do not account for the position of the New England dialects, nor do they explain the wanderings of the Blackfeet, Cheyennes, and Arapahoes to the Far West, for these tribes speak Algonkin languages also.

The Tutelo people were rediscovered by Hale in 1870 in the Canadian Iroquois reservation of Brantford. He was surprised to find that their sparse remnants were speaking a Siouan and not an Iroquois language. This ethnographic discovery bore abundant fruits, for, though Dr. Schmidt does not mention the fact, the investigators of the Bureau of Ethnology have since followed the hint and discovered that the Saponi of North Carolina, the Catawbas of South Carolina, and the Biloxis of Louisiana are also offshoots of the same distant Siouan stock. This entirely reverses our former ideas as to the migrations of the Siouan nations, and proves that they originally dwelt, like the Iroquois, to the east, and not, as they do now, to the west of the Mississippi River. The Ohio valley may have been their ancient domain.

Many of the Chactaw-Maskoki tribes continue to believe in the legendary story that they migrated into their later domain from Mexico and the countries west of the Mississippi River. But other legends of theirs tell them that their ancestors emerged from mounds, caves, and earth-holes in Mississippi and Alabama, which quite contradicts the first-mentioned belief. We know that populations speaking Chactaw, Creek, and Hitchiti lived in these Gulf States in Hernando de Soto's time (1540), and certainly much earlier. No country west of the Mississippi River can be proved to have been their ancient home, through its geographic names, through history, or anything else. Schmidt is doubtful about any such migration (p. 174).

Dr. Schmidt's work closes with some judicious remarks on the architectural and other remains in the dry regions of the Southwest. The more curious of these are the houses, walls, "palaces," and other structures erected in almost inaccessible places in the cañons or on steep slopes. We congratulate our well-equipped author on escaping the natural pitfalls of one writing of a strange country which he has not extensively traversed.

Life of Adam Smith. By John Rae. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

It is now more than a hundred years since Adam Smith died, and more than a hundred years, too, since Dugald Stewart read his memoir of Smith's life before the Royal Society of Edinburgh, although it was not until 1810 that this memoir was published as a separate work. As Mr. Rae says, it has hitherto remained the fullest account extant of the life of the great economist, but during the interval since its publication there has been a gradual accumulation of letters and reminiscences by and concerning Smith, which, in view of the continued vitality of his influence, deserve preservation. Some unpublished letters and some additional particulars have also been disclosed by Mr. Rae, chiefly through inquiries at Glasgow and Edinburgh; but the total additions to our knowledge are, after all, not very extensive nor very important.

In point of fact, the personality of Smith is unavoidably overshadowed by his achievements. These achievements are the product of scholarship, of reason, and of common sense. Undoubtedly no one—except believers in protection, whom Smith hated with perfect hatred and denounced with positive violence—can read the 'Wealth of Nations' without receiving the impression that the author was a virtuous and amiable man. It is evident, also, that the author was a remarkably sensible and well-informed man. But, like his good friends Hume and Gibbon, Smith was too thoroughgoing a rationalist to be especially interesting. Economists have long cherished the story of his strong language toward Dr. Johnson when that worthy called him a liar; but Mr. Rae throws doubt upon the whole episode, and thus deprives his hero of his only redeeming weakness. So far as we know, Smith never lost his temper upon any other occasion, and never deviated in the slightest degree from the path of rectitude. His character was of the kind to make the task of the eulogist easy, and to enable the epitaph-writer to indulge in the rare luxury of combining truth and praise in the same inscription. Mr. Rae has discovered some faint intimation of a love affair in Smith's earlier years, but his mother seems to have absorbed whatever affection he had to give to the female sex. He devoted himself to her, and as she lived to be ninety, he was not absent from her side many years of his life. His benevolence was extreme, manifested openly when necessary, exercised secretly whenever practicable. His abilities were restrained by his modesty; and after writing one of the most influential books that have ever appeared, he died regretting that he had done so little.

The great achievement of Adam Smith we conceive to have been the preparation of a manual of the art of government. His services to the science of political economy are very great, but it is not upon their account that he is so famous. It is because he was the first to offer to the ministers of parliamentary government a practical system of action. Up to his time, it might almost be said, legislators were without guidance in their task. Statutes were passed in the most haphazard way, and their results were frequently very different from what was expected. But Smith put in the hands of those who were responsible for the course of government a talisman which was sufficient to keep them from serious blundering, if not to lead them to success. Thus his book became the corner-stone of parliamentary statesmanship, and we do not hesitate to say that if it had been accorded in the schools of our country the place which it deserved, we should have avoided many disastrous blunders in the past, and might escape some to which we are doomed in the future. In spite of all the attacks made upon the theory of government which Smith professed, it remains true that no other theory has been reduced to a practical system, and that deviations from his theory continue to result in the very mischiefs that he described.

Mr. Rae does not attempt to give any estimate of Smith's work. He confines himself to tracing his life from year to year with the aid of the rather scanty materials which are available, and he succeeds in making a readable but not a very interesting book. Smith himself, according to Boswell, used to say to his class at Glasgow that there was nothing too frivolous to be learned about a great man, and that, for his own part, he was always glad to know that Milton wore latchets to his shoes and not buckles. Following this maxim, Mr. Rae has very cleverly interspersed narrative with anecdote, and though he is obliged to confess that many of the stories about Smith are apocryphal, he is able to demonstrate the inherent probability of others. Upon the whole, we think that Mr. Rae has performed a difficult task with a good degree of success. He cannot be said to have reanimated his subject, and brought him before us as a living and speaking man. The outlines of the portrait are faint and the colors are dim. But students of economics and of the art of government will be glad to have all the relics of their great teacher collected and arranged with the respectful care shown by Mr. Rae. We must say, however, that we cannot but regard it as an unpardonable omission in a book of this kind that it should contain no portrait of its subject, especially as several are available.

Collected Papers on Some Controverted Questions of Geology. By Joseph Prestwich, D.C.L. (Oxon.), F.R.S., etc. Macmillan & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. x, 279.

In the first stage of its development the science of geology passed through a period of controversy, during which the causes of the phenomena it is concerned with were debated with an acrimony and an ignorance of the

facts that may be compared to the disputations of the mediæval philosophers. Towards the latter part of the last century the futility of these debates became so evident that the students of the Earth abandoned that method of inquiry, and betook themselves to deciphering the records of the rocks. A hundred years of such labor has resulted in the accumulation of a very great store of well-recorded observations. Incidentally this body of knowledge has, from mere grouping of the details, thrown much light on the series of actions in and on this sphere; but all the while there has been springing up a series of problems which must be discussed in a broad way, and with the expectation that the best solution that can be attained will be supported not by distinct proof, but by the balance of probabilities. Prof. Prestwich has in this volume of collected and extended papers made a very interesting contribution to the debates which are for a while to occupy the attention of geologists. In the six essays thus brought together we find a very fair opening for the controversy over some of the questions which most immediately demand a general theoretical discussion. These are as follows: the uniformity of geological action; the date, duration, and conditions of the glacial period; the age and succession of human races; the cause of volcanic action; the constitution of the earth's crust, and the internal heat of the sphere.

In his first essay, concerning the Position of Geology, the author states his objection to the hypothesis that the rate of geological change has been anything like uniform in the successive ages of the earth. In this he is in accord with the greater number of his scientific associates. Some of them, however, would object to his statement of the matter, for the reason that he does not explicitly recognize the danger, so well shown in the ancient history of geology, which is incurred whenever we begin to imagine another order or rate of action than that which we now behold in the various realms of the earth. Although the world of to-day is perhaps not a perfectly fair sample of the ancient world, it is a better ground for our inquiries than any hypothetical sphere could possibly be. The safe middle way is to start with and hold fast to the presumption that what we see to be now going on in and upon the earth, is a fair sample of the work done in earlier times. When the proof is clear that in any ancient period the processes were other than those we behold, or the rate of action different, then, and not till then, and only to the strict limitations of the need, should we abandon the principle of uniformity which has led geology from a maze of speculation to the firm ground of science.

In his second chapter, on the Glacial Periods and the Antiquity of Man, our author protests against the hypothesis of Dr. Croll which seeks to explain by astronomical causes the climatic conditions that led to the extension of the ice-fields. The protest is general, and is limited to destructive criticism; there is no suggestion of another view and no sufficiently arrayed proof to show that the last glacial period was, as seemed upon evidence not adduced by the author, less ancient than Croll's view requires us to believe. A large part of this essay is taken up with an interesting, but incidental, inquiry as to the length of time it may have required for the continental glaciers to accomplish their extension and retreat. This does not touch on the main points which we need to know, namely, how long the ice-caps were maintained at or near their maximum development. The author repeatedly states his belief that the glacial period was a time of very extreme cold. This view seems distinctly against the probabilities of the case. To bring about another such ice time, we should have to provide for a great increase in the supply of snow; this would require a larger amount of evaporation, in regions near to the glaciated area; moreover, the gain in precipitation would, most likely, be accompanied by a certain augmentation of temperature, in the realm where the fall took place, through the conversion of latent into sensible heat, as the process of condensation went on. The question is very complicated; but whoever will consider the fact that the coldest areas of the world, those in which the soil is locked in frost to the depth of hundreds of feet, are quite without glaciers, will be driven to question the hypothesis that the last ice epoch was due to extreme frigidity.

In the chapter on the Flint Implements of the plateau district of Kent, the author deals with a very puzzling set of facts which have of late interested geologists and archæologists. In the English field, as in the Trenton district of New Jersey, chipped stones, in evident semblance of primitive art-work, plentifully occur in deposits which were probably deposited during the glacial age. It is not easy to account for the introduction of these chipped stones at a later time than that in which the beds themselves were laid down; it is even more difficult to suppose that they were conveyed to their present sites by the ice. Although some of the specimens figured by Dr. Prestwich are clearly the product of art, it is not unlikely that in this, as in other cases, the collections which have been made from glacial deposits are to a certain extent composed of stones naturally fractured. Those who have been close students of drift materials have generally had occasion to remark how the shearing action of glacial motion sometimes leads to a fracturing of pebbles, or even of considerable boulders, in a manner which suggests art-work. This action, for evident reasons, is particularly apt to occur in those varieties of stone which are especially suited for making implements. It is not improbable that the conditions above mentioned have led to some part of the obscurity in which these inquiries have become involved.

In the chapter on the Agency of Water in Volcanic Eruptions, the author sets himself against the modern view that the explosive actions are due to the effect of a superheated water contained in the liquid rock. He contends, with much ingenuity, for the hypothesis that the water which plays so important a part in most outbreaks is derived from the surface, and that it meets the ascending column of lava in the base of the cone. Unfortunately, he does not take into full account the geographical distribution of volcanic vents. Their uniform limitation to the sea-floor, or to the shore-lands neighboring thereto, is a most important fact. This distribution is explicable on the hypothesis that volcanic action is due to the tension of water-vapor brought about by the upward movement of the planes of equal earth-heat in water-bearing rocks. This movement normally occurs beneath the areas of sedimentation, and is apparently sufficient to give rise to the volcanic tensions.

In discussing the Thickness of the Earth's Crust, we do not find that the author has made a notable contribution to the question as to how we are to reconcile the dictum of the physicists concerning the essential rigidity of this sphere with the abundant evidence that the strata warp with the utmost freedom, and that the continents sway up and down in a manner which enforces the idea that the superficial part of the earth rests on a foundation that behaves as if it were molten. The truth is probably to be found in a better conception of the terms fluid and solid. A body may be as rigid as wrought iron, and yet, under sufficiently great stresses, be made to flow. It is not unlikely that the strains which operate in the so-called crust of the earth are great enough to bring about, in materials which are as rigid as our firmest rocks, all the movements required to account for their deformation.

The volume ends with a chapter on underground temperatures, which is an admirable contribution of a very detailed sort to the question as to the rate of increase of heat as we descend below the surface. The list of observations is twice as great as any that has heretofore been given, and the criticism of the data better directed than in the previous essays on the subject. Eliminating the untrustworthy observations, by far the greater part of the list, the author comes to the conclusion that the date of increase may be safely taken at about one degree Fahrenheit for each fifty feet of descent.

Dr. Prestwich's contribution will excellently well serve the purpose which has led to its publication; it will excite controversy in fields where debate is much needed and in which the matter is ready for the argument. The book unhappily lacks an index. There are sundry minor slips, as, for instance, where the name of Baron Sartorius von Waltershausen is twice cited as Wattershausen. According to tradition, this worthy geologist originally bore the name of Schneider; one stage upward was taken by Latinizing the plebeian cognomen; a second, by the addition of the baronial name. If quoted in brief, the name should be Sartorius.

Evolution and Effort, and their Relation to Religion and Politics. By Edmond Kelly, M.A., F.G.S. D. Appleton & Co. 1895.

Mr. Kelly's book is related to so many topics of current interest that, were its treatment of these topics less effective than it is, it would challenge wide attention. His range reminds us of Bishop Berkeley's famous treatise on tar-water, which, beginning with his wonderful specific, ended with an exposition of the Holy Trinity; but he inverts the Bishop's order, and, beginning far away in the mysteries of organic evolution, he ends with the concrete of New York municipal politics—a kind of tar which some have touched incautiously and therewith been defiled. He tells us in his preface that his book was practically completed before the reanimating results of the New York elections of 1893 (meaning 1894). Evidently the preface was completed before the exanimating results of those elections had declared themselves as they have now, when it appears that the rushing stream of our enthusiasm for reform has largely been diverted to turn the private mills that manufacture predetermined spoils.

The main purpose of Mr. Kelly's book is a good one, namely, to encourage us to believe that if we are the bosses' underlings, the fault is not in our stars, but in ourselves—not in the stress of evolution, but in our lack of effort in opposing this. And so it happens that he ranges himself with Huxley in his courageous battle with the universe, as planned in his Romanes Lecture, and against the determinism of Spencer, the social selection of Weismann and Kidd. All this is instructive as showing that what is one man's meat is another's poison. A great many people have found Huxley's doc-

trine of man against the universe exceedingly depressing, but here is one whom it exhilarates, and what he writes of the ideal man is an exact picture of himself: "He appears as a combatant, instinct with vigor and life, defiantly pitting himself against the very forces of Nature to which Spencer tends to regard him as hopelessly subjected." He appears to us to overrate the practical effects resulting from determinism or the opposite conclusion. Mr. Spencer is certainly as little inclined to *laissez faire* as Prof. Huxley in his general attitude towards social wrongs and miseries, while they both uphold the Manchester political economy, and Mr. Kelly, who is on the right side of every practical question, is heartily with them. John Stuart Mill was a very earnest necessarian; but he never bated a jot on this account from his hostility to any concrete evil of his time.

As Mr. Kelly proceeds with his discussion, it becomes more practical. Under the head of "Church and State," he has some very good observations on the disposition of clergymen to "keep out of politics," but we are inclined to think that when he speaks of those with whom "abstention from politics has grown to be a sort of virtue," he is thinking overmuch of a particular church, and more of its past history than of its present status. In view of the courage which political outspokenness requires in a clergyman under the voluntary system, the wonder is, perhaps, that so many stoutly refuse to hold their peace. Mr. Kelly's contention is that, while partisan politics are so divisive that few clergymen can be expected to take part in them, there is a wide field of political interests which can be cultivated by clergymen with the happiest anticipations. This is, indeed, the final outcome of his book, and if the particular forms of organization which he suggests do not commend themselves to his readers, there is much in the spirit of his argument that is deserving of the carefullest consideration.

"Municipal Misgovernment" is the title of a chapter that contains much admirable matter. So far as New York is concerned, the advocacy of separate municipal elections is, of course, a *post-eventum* prophecy, but this point is only one of many. Coming to "The Problem of Pauperism," Mr. Kelly has a good word for indeterminate penal sentences and for the Elmira system, and elaborates a scheme of willing and unwilling pauper colonies which is, perhaps, not too Utopian to be within the bounds of possibility. Such a scheme is manifestly socialistic; but in a chapter dealing with socialism Mr. Kelly manifests a temper very different from that of Bellamy's 'Looking Backward' and Morris's 'News from Nowhere.' He develops the policy of the Fabian Society at full length, and, less expansively, that of the People's party; and, if his comments are more sympathetic than are warranted by the one programme or the other, he is again upon the firmest ground when, with Sir Fitz James Stephen and Prof. D. G. Ritchie, he falls back on the political philosophy of Burke—that every case is to be taken on its own merits. If the socialistic programme is good, and the means proposed for its realization are adequate, and its contingent evils will not outweigh its benefits, the sooner it is realized the better.

A Short Comparative Grammar of English and German, as traced back to their common origin and contrasted with the classical languages. By Victor Henry, Deputy-Professor of Comparative Philology in the University of Paris, etc. Translated by the author. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1894.

THE French edition of this work was published in November, 1893, and the preface to this English edition is dated May 1, 1894. That such a work was needed will be conceded by every scholar, and that it has been well done must be acknowledged by every one who has read it through carefully from beginning to end. The several parts treat successively of sounds, words, declension, and conjugation; and that the study of phonetics is made the basis of the whole is shown by the fact that the first topic occupies fully one-third of the volume, and the bulk of each other division. It is an application of the modern method of the study of comparative grammar to English and German, and, as the author says, "is intended to introduce the comparative method to students who already have some knowledge of both the English and German languages." While the work is ostensibly limited to "the comparative study of modern English and German," the author hopes "that for some students it may also serve as a primer of the earlier languages." Since, in our judgment, it is impossible to apply the comparative method intelligently to English and German without making use of the historical method also—without comparing the forms of Old English and Old High German—we find the author perfectly right in introducing these forms; in fact, the chief criticism that an English student would make of the work is that Old English forms have been sometimes omitted because they were lost in modern English, in cases where they would illustrate further the points discussed. It seems to us, however, a mistake to suppose that a student will gain from this text-book sufficient grammatical knowledge to enable him to translate, with a glossary, "such easy texts as may be found in an elementary chrestomathy of Middle English or Middle High German, of Old English or Old High German, or even of Low German or Gothic." These languages must be learned for themselves, and then the student will be better able to apply to them the comparative method so well delineated by Prof. Henry.

It would require more space than we can afford to criticise this grammar even cursorily from a philological point of view. The author defends in the preface his use of the term "metaphony," but we think it would have been better to use throughout the German term *umlaut*, which has been completely naturalized in English, or the English term "mutation," which Mr. Sweet and Prof. Skeat have been trying to naturalize for this process. So, too, *ablaut* seems better than "gradation" or "apophony." Another minor criticism is that where the terms "voiceless" and "voiced" have been deliberately used, it is not worth while to go back to "hard" and "soft"; the use of terms should be consistent. On p. 10 (1006) is a misprint for (1016); so, p. 34, is O. E. *lygen* for *lyge;* on p. 37, note, (Saxonic) and (Anglic) should exchange places; p. 87, O. E. *scyffan* stands for *scyppan*, better *scieppan*. On p. 174 the patronymic use of *-ing*, so common in the A.-S. Chronicle, is overlooked. P. 200, "Shake-speare" was parodied as "shake-scene" only by Greene in his well-known reference, hence "sometimes" is out of place. P. 268, "in them days" is scarcely "a trace of the old dative"; it is simply illiterate. P. 294, while the past participle *rode* was in use in the last century, it is now obsolete. P. 300, second note, *thresh* is not merely "a rural form," but is better English than *thrash*, which is now colloquial. Pp. 357-8, some O. E. forms, from which modern forms survive, are omitted, as O. E. *wiste*, Biblical *wist;* O. E. *witan*, legal formula *to wit;* O. E. *gewiss*, M. E. *iwis*, modern *I wis*, from mistaken analogy. P. 361, O. E. *āhte*, ought, is classed by grammarians (cf. Sievers) as "Type A," from its present *āh*, and so should not be entered as "unclassed"; O. E. pres. *ah* =owe, is omitted. P. 368, the modern distinction in the use of *shall* and *will* as auxiliaries is not noticed.

All told, we have found very little to suggest by way of correction, and can commend most heartily this excellent work to all *Fachgenossen*. The author himself says (pp. 375-6): "For practical purposes these scientific results may have but little value. . . . But the scientific mind, which likes to penetrate into the reason of things, will derive both profit and pleasure from being able to trace in the history and evolution of a language the reasons for its most minute and often apparently contradictory rules."

Catherine II. et la Révolution Française. Par Ch. de Larivière. 8vo, pp. xxxiii, 391. Paris: W. Le Soudier; New York: Brentano's. 1895.

THIS is the first of four volumes that are to appear successively on Catherine the Great, based upon her correspondence—a mass of letters in course of publication by the Imperial Russian Historical Society. The first volumes of this collection were issued a little more than twenty years ago, and the earliest letters of Catherine's were written on her accession to the throne in 1762, so that the wish she expressed to Grimm that her "pancartes" should not be made known to the world for at least a hundred years was exactly granted. That M. de Larivière is fully competent to deal with this material is vouched for by M. Alfred Rambaud (and there could be no better endorser), who assures the reader that "the book is based on the most complete and the most accurate information. No document of any importance, whether published in Russia or in France, has escaped the observation of the author; Russian collections almost inaccessible to the French public have been laid under contribution; and, finally, the author has sought in our own archives the solution of problems that no printed work could throw light upon."

"Fortunate the historian," exclaimed Voltaire, "who shall write a century hence the history of Catherine II.!" M. de Larivière does not present himself as that personage. His work is not a history of "Catherine *le Grand*," as she liked to be styled, but studies of her as the ruler of Russia, as a woman (or man) of letters, and in the other relations of her life where again she was both woman and man. The present volume treats of the attitude Catherine maintained during the great Revolutionary crisis. The friend of the Encyclopædists became the irreconcilable opponent of the Revolution. A "liberal" in 1767, she was in 1789 an extreme "réactionnaire." In one part of her life she was governed by opinions entirely different from those that possessed her afterwards, and it has been our author's object to show the stages of this curious evolution. He especially notes the judgments she expressed regarding the French Revolution, and points out the manner in which she combated it, even when her action is the most obscure. The Czarina could not be blind to the *universal* character of the Revolution,

to the fact that, as M. Albert Sorel has said, it menaced all established powers, and invited all nations to revolt and freedom. During the revolutionary period, selfishness and rapacity were dominant in Europe, and nowhere more so than in the brain of that sovereign who was most successful in exciting discord among her neighbors and benefiting herself by their jealousies. Towards the end of her life she said one day to Choiseul-Gouffier: "I have sailed my little boat as well as I could." She sailed it extremely well, and it was not so small a boat either, for more than once it carried the destinies of Europe. But never was there a more striking instance of the power of the winds of Fate, for, to quote M. Sorel again, "if no one contributed more than Catherine to form the coalition against republican France, no one contributed more to dissolve it, and thus, involuntarily and unwittingly, she rendered an immense service to that Revolution she execrated and whose ruin she longed for."

The acts of the Empress define her character, but in her letters may be found the "why" of her acts. The matters that occupied her thoughts are constantly noted in her correspondence, carefully and often sincerely, and with a quality of imagination in the expression flowing directly from that vital force that made her conquests of every kind so numerous, and which, guided by a rare strength of will and still rarer personal energy, enabled her to give unrivalled brilliancy to the position she occupied, and to raise the Slav power to undreamed-of heights.

Poets on Poets. By Mrs. Richard Strachey. London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribner.

"An English poet," wrote Butler, with his usual wit—

> "An English poet should be tried by his peers,
> And not by pedants and philosophers."

The verdicts of juries thus constituted are what Mrs. Richard Strachey has undertaken to record in her 'Poets on Poets.' She has done her work well. It is impossible to open her charming volume at random without hitting upon verses that one will care to read. Most of the best-known passages in which English poets judge their fellows are included, and not a few besides that only students are familiar with. There are all varieties of expression—elegy, compliment, flattery, calm appreciation, rhapsody, satire; but the prevailing tone is commendatory. Indeed, if the book has a fault, it is perhaps this of protesting too much. Not that the poets have always been good-natured; it is rather Mrs. Strachey's good nature that has produced this harmony. She intentionally omits personal satire—"whatever is concerned with the man alone and not the writer." This is probably a wise principle of exclusion, but we doubt if it is always wisely applied. Pope's portrait of Atticus, for instance, is excluded on this ground, though surely it concerns itself with the writer as well as with the man. There is more reason for leaving out Churchill's sketch of Dr. Johnson as Pomposo. We sadly miss Dryden's Elegy on Oldham. No doubt this was omitted as being praise of the man rather than criticism of his poetry, but the critical significance of the piece is clear enough. Drayton's "Epistle to Henry Reynolds" is, we are glad to see, printed without abridgment. Many persons who are not ill-read will owe to Mrs. Strachey their first acquaintance with this delightful poem.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Ethan. Washington; or the Revolution. A Drama. F. T. Neely.
Bruce, M. W. Alaska, its History and Resources. Seattle: Lowman & Hanford.
Clodd, Edward. The Story of "Primitive" Man. Appletons. 40 cents.
D'Arcy, Ella. Monochromes. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Harland, Henry. Gray Roses. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
MacColl, Rev. Malcolm. England's Responsibility towards Armenia. Longmans, Green & Co. 75 cents.
Marshall, Luther. Thomas Boobig. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Needell, Mrs. J. H. The Vengeance of James Vansittart. Appletons.
Oliphant, Mrs. Two Strangers. R. F. Fenno & Co.
Phillpotts, Eden. A Deal with the Devil. F. Warne & Co. $1.
Poole, Fanny H. R. A Bank of Violets. Putnams. $1.25.
Roberts, Gen. Lord. The Rise of Wellington. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Seymour, H. W. Government & Co., Limited. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75 cents.
Schlessing, A. Deutscher Wortschatz, oder der Passende Ausdruck. Zweite verbesserte und vermehrte Auflage. Stuttgart: Paul Ness: New York: Westermann.
Shores, Herman. The Keys of Fate. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Tufts, W. W. A Market for an Impulse. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Upward, Allen. The Prince of Balkistan. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Van Loan, Walter. Catskill Mountain Guide. Rogers & Sherwood Printing Co. 40 cents.
Warren, T. R. Juliette Irving and the Jesuit. New Brunswick, N. J.: J. Heidingsfeld.
Warr, Prof. G. C. W. The Greek Epic. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; New York: E. & J. B. Young.
Wines, F. H. Punishment and Reformation. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.
Yeats, S. L. The Widow Lamport. R. F. Fenno & Co.
Zangwill, I. Children of the Ghetto. Macmillan.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 20, 1895.

The Week.

It is an old commercial maxim that the condition of the iron industry is the most faithful index to general trade conditions. That industry is always, therefore, worth especial study. It will be recalled that in April, when many staple products were advancing rapidly in value, some doubts were suggested as to the permanency of the business revival, and the slowness of iron and steel to share in the recovery was used as an argument. These great staples certainly did fail in that month to reflect in full the movement of better promise. There was some advance in prices, but this was due to a partly speculative move by which the largest Pennsylvania producer, having a full supply of finished material on hand, marked up prices and wages simultaneously in order to force a profitable margin for the stored-up iron. It was, however, said by careful observers at the time that, whether the move was speculative or not, its success in "pegging" prices proved that normal conditions justified it. And this judgment is verified by the event. A really violent advance in prices began with the second week in May. Since then the further recovery has been so rapid that Bessemer pig-iron a week ago sold $2.20 a ton above the January minimum, an advance of 22½ per cent. Steel billets, the other index of the trade, advanced meantime, as compared with March quotations, $3.25, or 22 per cent.

That this advance is no longer a matter of simple speculation, and, least of all, a result of "cornering," is proved by the record of stocks of manufactured iron. During the month of May, when prices were rising with greatest rapidity, the stock of manufactured iron on hand at the leading furnaces actually decreased 95,597 tons, or more than 12 per cent. The *Iron Age* remarks further that this legitimate demand has hardly as yet been swelled at all by the greatest customers of the iron trade—the railways. That a really heavy inquiry from this source is near at hand, is evident to all observers of the transportation industry. Railway gross earnings are showing an increase of from 6 to 8 per cent. over 1894, and if the returns of companies in the depleted "corn belt" are excluded from the reckoning, the percentage gain becomes much larger. Weekly returns show this improvement to be continuous, and when the increase has reached the point of safety, it may be taken as certain that very large expenditures will be made for material to improve the physical condition of the roads. The Pennsylvania system has already set the example; others will soon follow; and the result will appear in all branches of industrial production. This forecast justifies the comment of the *Iron Age* that "the gain in value [of iron] thus far has merely been the gradual opening of the bow when released from tension. Wages have improved, together with prices, but until we are again back in an even line with conditions as they existed at the time of the panic, we are surely justified in both hoping for and expecting a further enhancement of values."

The Memphis monetary convention No. 2 was called for the express purpose of counteracting Memphis convention No. 1. How has it gone to work to do it? The earlier convention set out to demonstrate the fact that the solid business men of the South were for honest money. It was made up of delegates from chambers of commerce and boards of trade, bankers, merchants, and manufacturers. They maintained, by speeches and resolutions, that the Harrises, the Blands, the Turpies, the Stewarts, and the general run of Populist hangers-on did not fairly represent the business sense of even their own section. In this lay the value and encouragement of the gathering, and its effect was so marked both in this country and in Europe that the silver-men became alarmed and set about getting up a counter-demonstration. But all they have done is to prove the exact truth of what the business men of the South had affirmed. The charge was that only a collection of old Bourbon Senators and political men-of-all-work and Populist adventurers could be found to advocate free coinage of silver, and to refute it there is devised a grand round-up of these very political nondescripts. The country will not be very much impressed by the great discovery that Harris, and Bryan, and Sibley, and their tools and victims stand just where they did before. Yet that is all that their convention really proves.

Politically, the Memphis convention ran away from its own issue. It would not declare for a separate silver party. Torn by the struggle between devotion to silver and devotion to the offices, it gave in to the latter. Some of the bolder spirits were for cutting loose from the old parties and nominating each other for the Presidency; but so many cries of "God forbid!" arose from the office-holders and would-be office-holders present that the resolutions had to dodge the whole thing. This practically serves notice on the managers of either party that the tremendous silver bolt will never "materialize." The Memphis conveners are silver's own true lovers, but they are intenser lovers of party regularity and consequent eligibility to office. So if the national platforms of their respective parties do not meet their views, their views can be altered to meet the platforms. As it is flatly inconceivable that either party will be found next June deliberately splitting itself in two as the best way to carry the Presidential election, the failure of the Memphis convention to display the courage of its own lack of convictions is tantamount to a guarantee that there will be no Silver party pure and simple. Thus its total political effect is but to mark another stage in the ebbing of the silver madness. Some of the delegates themselves could not help betraying their consciousness that the fight was going against them. The gold-bugs, said one, might think the silver craze was about over, but they would find that they were very much mistaken. When men talk like that, the next thing is collapse and surrender.

The tide is now everywhere setting strongly against the free-coinage movement. The results of the Democratic primaries in Kentucky assure the defeat of Senator Blackburn in his efforts to commit the State convention to the "16 to 1" idea. As Kentucky was supposed to be hopelessly given over to the silverites six weeks ago, the change of sentiment thus demonstrated is most striking and significant. Ohio is another State where the Democrats have gone half crazy over silver, but are now recovering their senses. Young Thurman has been loudly boasting that Franklin County, which contains Columbus, would send to the approaching State convention a solid free-coinage delegation; but when the caucuses were held, the sound-money men carried everything before them, and the indications are now hopeful that a rational plank will be adopted. Another sign of the dwindling enthusiasm for silver is found in the failure of the Bimetallic League in Kansas to gather the expected crowds at the State convention in Topeka. Both Republicans and Democrats fight shy of the scheme, and the Bimetallic League appears likely soon to be only another name for the Populist party.

The revised returns of the Director of the Mint as to the world's gold production for 1894 bring the total up to $181,510,000. This is $11,000,000 greater than the estimates of the bureau published a few weeks ago, and $30,000,000 greater than the output of 1893. Dismal news this for the 16-to-1 silverites, some of whom are now asking what the gold-bugs will do if the production becomes excessive and the prices of commodities rise in consequence. Bless your hearts, the gold-bugs will

not demonetize gold, however plentiful it may become. They will stand and take it; they will grin and bear it. Director Preston's statistics show another fact quite as surprising, viz., that the world's production of silver for the same year, reckoned in ounces, is somewhat greater than that of the previous year, notwithstanding the decline in price. This is not remarkable when we consider that the construction of railroads and the improvements of machinery and processes of extraction are only now beginning in some of the most important silver-producing countries, especially Mexico and South America. Every new railway and steam-engine introduced for the first time into these countries makes some mines productive that could not be worked before.

Perhaps the most crushing part of the avalanche of fact that poor "Coin" has brought upon himself is the proof, from actual market reports, that the farmer has *not* been hurt by the fall in prices since 1873, whatever has caused that fall. Prof. Laughlin has shown that the farmers of the Northwest really get more goods now in exchange for their wheat and corn than they did in 1873. What he showed for that region has now been shown for Virginia in a most practical and telling little pamphlet, "Free Coinage and the Farmer," by Mr. E. C. Klipstein. The writer has had access to the books of a prominent country merchant of Virginia, covering the years 1867 to 1895, and showing the real exchangeable value of produce in goods, then and now. In 1867 the farmer could get for 50 bushels of wheat, 100 bushels of corn, 500 pounds of pork, and 100 cross-ties, a money price of $289.50; in 1895, he would get but $138. There is the free-coinage argument in a nutshell: the farmer robbed of half his crops by the gold monopoly. But look further, and see what the farmer could do with his money in 1867 and what he can do with it now. Mr. Klipstein gives a long list of prices of groceries, dry goods, hardware, tools, etc., of daily necessity to the farmer, and shows that an average consumption of these articles would have cost, under 1867 prices, $341.08. In 1895 the same things could be bought for $112.05. Thus the Virginia farmer's loss by falling prices is really a considerable gain. On the transaction referred to he would be $77 to the good—that is, to supply his needs in 1867 he would have had to add $51.58 to his produce, while now he could purchase the same things with his produce and have $25.95 to his credit.

Some of the English bimetallists appear to have taken fright at their own prophecies. The immense blessings which they have pictured as the sure result of bimetallism have had the effect of seriously alarming the conservative and property-owning classes. These know well enough that there is no hocus-pocus in any kind of currency contrivance to make all the poor rich, to enable debtors to settle with their creditors, and to make everybody live happy ever afterwards. So they have frankly said to Balfour and Courtney and the others: "We do not like your bimetallic millennium at all. Please prove to us that you are not proposing to make other people rich by making us poor." Mr. Courtney saw the awkwardness of this demand, and tried to reassure his alarmed friends by asserting, in a debate on bimetallism at the London Institution, that after the adoption of silver coinage "the common mass of mankind would pursue their customary life in happy, ignorant unconsciousness of any change." Then where would the millennium come in? What has become of the promise of double prices for the English farmer and double wages for all laborers? If they got those would they be so happily unconscious of any change? We fear that Mr. Courtney, in trying to reassure the creditor class, has simply succeeded in disgusting the debtor class. If bimetallism means no change, no scaling of debts, no automatic diffusion of prosperity and virtue, it will lose all its charms.

Considerable anger has been aroused in the celestial minds of some protectionists over the question of imports of woollen goods under the new tariff. We are now importing a disastrous quantity, they say, such as no truly American tariff would ever allow to come in. One answer to this is to show that even greater amounts came in during a corresponding period under the McKinley tariff. The *Wool and Cotton Reporter* published comparative tables last week showing "a heavy increase" in the imports over the past year or two, "but, as compared with those of the fiscal year 1892-'93, the returns for the ten months of the current year make a far less discouraging showing, especially on dress goods and cloths." This is the way to shut a McKinley mouth. The way to shut a merely rational mouth is to take the position that if we import woollen goods, it is because we want them, and have something to give in exchange for them, and can spend our time to better advantage than in making them ourselves. The bigger the quantities we import, the greater amount of things we have to give in exchange for them, the better our wages and profits and general prosperity.

The new Secretary of State enters upon his office with a singularly peaceful and easy prospect, so far as foreign nations are concerned, owing to the unappreciated good sense and patriotism of his lamented predecessor. He has, therefore, a very exceptional chance to turn his thoughts to the reform of our consular service—a reform loudly called for by every one who has really looked into the matter in a statesmanlike and impartial way. More than one Secretary, notably Mr. Blaine, has suggested a reform of our consular system. Bills for its reconstruction on the merit basis have often been introduced into Congress. In the last Congress Senator Morgan had a good bill, which he tried to affix to the diplomatic appropriation bill; but our sapient Senators pronounced it not germane, at the same time that they accepted the appendage of a Government cable to Hawaii. Other bills were introduced in the House, one by Mr. Storer of Ohio; but they had no chance. The Hon. James B. McCreary of Kentucky, chairman of the House committee on foreign affairs, has no belief in any such pernicious novelties as the merit system; his name is recorded in the affirmative to strike out the appropriation for the Civil-Service Commission. No bill to take consulships out of politics could ever have passed the ordeal of a committee of which he was chairman.

But let not Secretary Olney wait for Congress. Let him as head of the State Department formulate a system for classifying, for examining, for promoting, for retaining consuls. Let it include examinations in foreign languages, in foreign products and statistics, in history—for the higher grades, in commercial and international law. The salaries, and the rank as determined by salaries, are not badly established by existing acts. They might be recast, but they will do well enough. Let Mr. Olney get Mr. Cleveland's assent to such a plan, and put it into immediate operation. The appointment of consuls is in the hands of the President, subject to the Senate's approval. He and the Secretary of State are emphatically the judges of how our consular intercourse is to be conducted. Let the system go out as a department ordinance, let the risk boldly be taken that Congress will not endorse it by a regulating act including the like provision, or that a subsequent secretary will have the false courage to go back to the spoils system and induce the next President to reverse Mr. Cleveland's action. Secretary Gresham drew off entirely from the distribution of patronage. His political antecedents made him perhaps the wrong man to grapple with the problem, and he had other work. Mr. Olney has the power; he has given strong indications that he has the will; and surely the way is now open to him.

The signing by the President of an order bringing the employees of the Government Printing Office at Washington under the civil-service rules is one of the most emphatic demonstrations of the practical success of our system of civil-service reform that have ever been offered. In the first place, it is most significant that the President's act was a compliance with a request made by the persons affected. Here is

proof positive that civil-service rules not only do not work injustice, do not keep out of employment persons most fitted for the positions, but do afford protection to competent men when once their positions are secured. The signing of the order proves also that it is practicable to test the work of such employees as printers in the Government service, and upsets that old-time complaint that civil-service reform is adapted only to college graduates. A President not heartily committed to the rescue of the service from the spoilsmen could have found excuse enough for delaying action in this matter. President Cleveland, however, had already demonstrated his ability to overcome obstacles of this kind.

We learn from the *Columbia Spectator* that a most serious and alarming condition of affairs exists in the Columbia Law School. Eighteen out of forty-nine in the graduating class have been conditioned, thereby losing their degrees, and of nineteen seniors in the School of Arts who elected courses in law, eight "have been similarly treated." Nor should it be supposed that this was simply an ordinary case of deficient scholarship, or bad habits, or laziness. On the contrary, these conditioned men, according to the "unanimous opinion of their classmates," "far from being deserving of the treatment accorded them," were "among the brightest and most conscientious men in the class." This is grave enough, and we agree with the *Spectator* that "the surprisingly large number of men reported deficient reflects on the faculty, not on the students." The students have certainly done all that could be asked. They furnish bright and conscientious men, and then the faculty condition them. In such a state of affairs, it will not take "an unprejudiced observer" long, as the *Spectator* remarks, to see where the blame should be placed; and it asks with great force and pertinency, "Has a professor a right to condition men when he has been extremely slipshod in his own work?" Clearly, the professor is the man that should have been conditioned, not the bright and conscientious student whom all his classmates would have voted a degree *summa cum laude*. We are glad to see that the *Spectator* does not propose to let the affair drop. It calls upon the trustees to make a thorough investigation of the Law School, and settle once for all the great question, "Has a student no rights which a professor is bound to respect?" For our part, we never heard of such an outrage, except in the matter of civil-service examinations. In those, as everybody knows, the manly and bright and conscientious men always fail, and it is only the stupid and incompetent and shamefaced fellows who get through.

The decision of the United States Court of Appeals in the South Carolina registration case, reversing Judge Goff's ruling and dissolving the injunction he had granted, is based on the general ground that the Federal courts cannot pass upon abstract political questions. Some State courts of highest resort pronounce upon the constitutionality of laws as an abstract proposition, but the United States Supreme Court never does. It is essentially a "case" court. Somebody must show that he is injured or imperilled, either in his property or civil rights, by any given legislation before the court will so much as take up the question of its constitutionality. The fact that the averments in the complaint in the South Carolina case did not clearly assert a threatened infringement of such rights is plainly affirmed by the court to be the reason why it saw "no adequate ground for equity interposition." In other words, the registration laws, offensive and probably intentionally proscriptive as they are, were drawn in such general terms that no individual could positively declare that they were aimed at him, or that they directly impaired his rights under the Federal Constitution. The wrong, if any, was a political wrong, and the remedy must also be political. Doubtless the case will yet be heard before the Supreme Court, but there appears little reason to question that the general principles laid down by Chief-Justice Fuller in this Circuit Court decision will be sustained on final appeal.

The "yellow peril" is what is now troubling excitable folk in Europe. This does not refer to the deadly ravages of the yellow metal, from which people suffer in inverse ratio to the amount of the said metal they have about them, nor yet to the literary "yellows," which have hastened the passage of so many writers, as Mr. Zangwill says, into the sere and Yellow Book. The phrase covers, rather, the fear of a tremendous conflict impending with the yellow races of the Orient. It is to come, first of all, in the form of a crushing industrial competition. China and Japan are not extending their commercial treaties for nothing. They are planning to do the most gigantic dumping of cheap goods upon helpless Europe that the world ever saw. With their cheap and inexhaustible labor supply, with their patience, their artistic endowment, their quickness to adopt and appropriate all mechanic arts, who can stand against them? Perhaps the afflicted Europeans will try to repel the cheap goods by force of arms, but that will only bring on an unequal combat with the swarming millions who are even now aching for a chance to overrun Europe. These horrible imaginings will do to furnish forth an evening's gossip or evoke editorial wisdom; but the impending ravaging of Europe by the hordes of the East is even less likely to come off now than any time these two thousand years, during which it has been steadily predicted but never realized.

The International Miners' Congress, which met in Paris during the first week in June, did not receive the customary amount of attention this year. This may have been due in part to the comparatively small number of delegates, several of the great English mining unions having gone wholly unrepresented. But it is probably attributable more largely to the fact that the international fad is wearing out, and that a weary world is becoming more and more sceptical about the possibility of disposing of all the ills of life by international resolutions. Things like silver, an eight-hour day, over-production, a universal strike, old-age insurance, and employers' liability, that are too formidable for nations to grapple with singly, are pretty sure to be too much for them united. The congress, however, was singularly unanimous, and upon this fact the president congratulated it in his closing speech. Resolutions in favor of good wages for the coal-workers in all countries, and, at the same time, of fair interest on capital, were passed in perfect harmony. So was a sentimental resolve in favor of an eight-hour day. So was a declaration in favor of making employers responsible for all accidents, even where contributory negligence could be proved in the men. Such harmony is no doubt delightful, but it argues that the men of practical common sense either kept away or kept still.

It must be admitted that the English Government made a pretty abject submission to their Irish allies on Monday in the matter of the Cromwell statue. The grant for the statue should either never have been proposed, or should have been insisted upon and carried, as it could easily have been with Conservative help, in the teeth of the Irish. But the spirit of the ministry is evidently broken. Even rough-spoken Sir William Harcourt is getting meek and mild under the repeated losses of seats in bye-elections. He was very sharp with an ugly Scotch Liberal a few weeks ago, who wanted him to urge the Crofters' bill forward, threatening to resign from Parliament if his request was not granted. Sir William stiffly told Mr. Mac Gregor he could do as he pleased, and the angry Scot did resign. The result of the election to fill the vacancy was the loss of an apparently safe Liberal seat. A majority of only half-a-dozen or so cannot stand depletion in that way. If the ministry hold on, they will do so only at the pleasure of unruly followers, who will doubtless threaten and humiliate them from day to day as they perceive their power. Clinging to office under such circumstances is rather a melancholy business; it certainly will not lend the Government any prestige or put them in better shape for the general election, which they cannot stave off much longer in any event; when it does come, general opinion in England is that a Tory majority will be certain.

PLENTY OF MONEY FOR THE PEOPLE.

MAHONE — Gen. Mahone — of Virginia, whose first choice for President is Don Cameron, lays down the following platform for his party:

"I am for more money; I don't care whether it is silver money or shinplasters. It does not seem to me to make any difference. . . . Of course, we should keep within proper bounds in issuing money, but we want to have that article sufficiently plentiful to allow the people to get hold of it."

This is the platform that the convention in session last week at Memphis really stood on. The discussions about silver were mere wind of doctrine. The delegates had, it was said, cards stuck in their hats bearing the device "16 to 1," which were intended to make the public believe that they had settled the great question of the ratio, and after mature consideration had agreed that anybody who wants to exchange gold for silver ought to do it at that rate. But this is really what the boys call "poppycock." The delegates do not care what the ratio is, because few or none of them possess either metal in quantities worth mention. The object of the convention was not to regulate the currency, but to allow the people to get hold of some money. The apparent unconcern of the bimetallists about the ratio has always astonished the monometallists. "How can they," the spectators have always asked, "keep on agitating in this way without ever mentioning the exact rate at which they were going to make silver exchange for gold? Ought they not to inform the public what the purchasing power of silver is to be under their system?"

The answer to these questions is, that the great bulk of active bimetallists as well as of silver-men never expect to engage in exchange operations to any great extent. The mass of them are either in debt, or have so little gold or silver that the ratio is hardly of any consequence to them. Most of them might well exclaim with Mahone: "I care nothing for your ratio or your material; what I want is money! I am entitled, all the papers tell me, to fifty dollars per caput, whereas I haven't a dollar in the house. What is the use of a 'caput' if the dollars that go with it are not forthcoming?" The price of commodities, except articles of food and clothing, is to a man who does not possess them a matter of supreme indifference. Diamonds might double in value to-morrow, leaving the mass of mankind perfectly unmoved. This accounts for the open-mindedness of most of the silver-men in the matter of ratio, and fineness, and all cognate questions. You can have any ratio you please, and make your money of any material you please, as far as they are concerned. There is, however, one kind of money on which they look with suspicion, and that is "honest money." The chaplain of the recent convention prayed that their labors might hasten the establishment of such money, *eo nomine*, but he was promptly called to account, and only got off by explaining that he meant "silver." The term "honest" recalls the old monarchical superstition that money is a measure of value; whereas, in our day, it is a commodity to be issued by the Government "direct to the people." A commodity issued direct to the people is neither honest nor dishonest. It is simply scarce or plentiful.

The attitude of such nations as Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Turkey towards silver is much the same as that of our silver-men. Having neither silver nor gold of their own, they are naturally indifferent to "the ratio," and would agree with England and America to keep it at any ratio they chose; 16 to 1, 30 to 1, 50 to 1—it would be all the same to them. It would be like a partnership between Mr. Vanderbilt and Mike Daly, to carry several blocks of real estate for an indefinite period. Mike would hardly make trouble about the rate of interest or the assessment for taxation. How the irredeemable-paper-money states would figure in the "international agreement," or what ratio their shinplasters would bear to gold under the treaty, has never been explained, and never will be, nor is it necessary. The big states can arrange it to suit themselves, but the others are sure to have the laugh on them in the end.

Foreigners who feel troubled by such bodies as the Memphis silver convention because they have interests in the United States, will never know what peace is until they have thoroughly familiarized themselves with the nature and history of American "crazes." These crazes are in reality fits of mild insanity, at present peculiar to this country, but likely to become endemic in all countries as democratic institutions spread. The attack is brought on by the combined action of publicity and impecuniosity. The impecunious man is generally unhappy, and in a large number of cases his impecuniosity is due to dislike of steady industry, or to some moral defect which makes steady employment difficult. Under these circumstances an American gifted with fluency and fond of notoriety almost inevitably turns his attention to defects in our government, by way of accounting for his own condition. A few blasts on his horn wake up others similarly situated in other States. They come together; they compare notes; they find their condition inexplicable except as the result of conspiracy or malicious legislation. They resolve to mend matters at whatever cost. They call conventions; they rope in blatherskite editors; they make the welkin ring with their tale of wrong. After this has gone on for some months it begins to attract the attention of the industrious and rational. The noise increases; the industrious and rational get frightened and begin to issue pamphlets, and make speeches, and call conventions too, and in a few months more the "craze" subsides. The leaders turn book-agents, insurance agents, or assistant editors, or drummers for patents, and the world goes on as before. This is very much the history of the Granger craze, the greenback craze, the Powderly craze, and others. They are all plans for getting hold of other people's money without working for it, and none is more fascinating than the plan of being able to make purchases with worthless currency. There is an appearance of fairness about this which tickles a crazemonger, and he enjoys frightening property-holders, who have probably often refused him a loan or pressed him discourteously for a board bill.

A NEW CORRUPT-PRACTICE LAW.

So far as we have observed, Minnesota is the only State which has enacted a corrupt-practice law during the present legislative year. This raises the number of such laws in this country to nine, the other eight being in New York, Massachusetts, California, Missouri, Colorado, Michigan, Indiana, and Kansas. Of these, as we have pointed out on previous occasions, by far the most comprehensive and stringent in their scope are the statutes of California and Missouri. These are, in fact, scientific adaptations of the English corrupt-practices act of 1883 to American needs, and if they were sufficiently sustained by public opinion, there can be no doubt that they would be effective in operation. We regret to say that such is not the case with either of them. The California law is said to be practically a dead letter, since nobody pays attention to its requirements. The Missouri law is treated with more respect, and has been moderately successful in restricting expenditures, but it has not been rigidly enforced. The Massachusetts law has been useful in giving publicity to the amount of money spent in elections, but beyond that has not amounted to much. The New York law, which requires sworn publication after election of receipts and expenditures by candidates only, not by campaign committees, is of little or no account. The Kansas law, while simple in its requirements, has been successful in diminishing expenditures and in restricting corruption. The laws of Michigan, Colorado, and Indiana are very inadequate, and the results attained by them are inconsiderable.

The law which Minnesota will test in its next campaign and election is in many respects an excellent one. Next to the laws of Missouri and California, it is the most carefully drawn of the nine. It requires sworn publication after election of all moneys received and spent by candidates and committees, and places maximum limits to expenditures in all cases. These limits are fixed in the same manner as in the Missouri law, that is, on a ratio based upon the number of voters, as follows: For 5,000 voters or less, $250; for each 100 voters over 5,000, and under 25,000, $2; for each 100 voters over 25,000 and

under 50,000, $1; and for each 100 voters over 50,000, 50 cents—the number of voters to be ascertained from the number of votes cast for all the candidates for such office at the last preceding regular election. The schedules of the Missouri law are the same, except that the amount allowed for 5,000 voters or less is, under that law, only $100, instead of $250.

The provisions for enforcing the Minnesota law are copied mainly from the Missouri law, and permit the candidate receiving the next highest number of votes to that cast for the successful candidate, at any time during the latter's term of office, to make application by affidavit to the Attorney-General to bring an action to have him ousted from office on the ground of violation of any of the terms of the act. Such application must be accompanied by a bond of $1,000 as the means of paying possible costs for which the State may be made liable under the suit, and the Attorney-General must begin the suit within ten days after the application is filed. In case of refusal of the prosecuting officers, the contestant may bring suit in the name of the State, but at his own expense. If the charges are sustained, the defendant is to be ousted from his office, and that office is to be awarded to the plaintiff, unless the latter be found guilty of some violation of the law, in which case the office is to be declared vacant, and is to be filled either by appointment or by a new election.

The law is amply specific and stringent to secure honest elections by making impossible the corrupt use of money without exposure and punishment, provided there be in Minnesota the public opinion necessary to compel its enforcement. Unless that opinion exists, the law will not help matters. It must be confessed that the public mind has not yet been aroused to the importance of this question. The politicians everywhere know that they do not incur much risk either in refusing to pass such laws or in violating them after they have been passed. Then, too, few communities have the machinery or organizations which are necessary to insist upon the law's enforcement. A league was formed for the purpose in Massachusetts a few years ago, but nothing has been heard of its work since. Candidates very seldom are disposed to contest in the courts the success of a rival, for the reason that in most instances a legal investigation is in danger of revealing unlawful practices on both sides.

In New York city an admirable agency exists for the enforcement of a thoroughgoing law in the Good Government clubs. These, by making it their business to collect evidence and to bring suspected violators into court, could make such a law a veritable terror. The politicians scent this danger from afar, with their habitual vigilance, and consequently refuse to take any chances. Whenever the Platt majority in the last New York Legislature got sight of a measure converting the present State law into a statute which might be made effective in practice, they showed it no mercy. No less than three such measures were defeated in the lower house. This is the best testimony possible that a good law, fearlessly and thoroughly enforced, would be a deadly enemy to corruption in elections, and it ought to lead to an awakening of public interest in the subject. No law would be complete for New York which did not cover nominating conventions as well as elections, for it is in those that the money is used which the bosses of both parties collect as the "price of peace" from the corporations.

OUR FOREIGN RELATIONS LITERATURE.

It is a very proper rule at the State Department not to publish despatches bearing on pending complications so long as there is any danger of such publicity embarrassing the negotiations. Many of these documents are never printed at all. While, therefore, the volume of 'Foreign Relations' just sent out gives no hint concerning some questions still under discussion, the despatches contain details of events of varying interest that have taken place within the last year. At some of our legations the same question arises year after year. It is always the old dog in a new doublet. For example, there is usually an unspeakable Turk who emigrates to the United States, becomes naturalized, and immediately returns to his native heath, claiming freedom from Ottoman sovereignty on account of his acquired American citizenship. Similar cases often occur in Russia, and, less frequently, in Germany. It is usually found, upon examination, that American citizenship has been acquired, not with the intention of living in the United States, but solely for the purpose of returning to the native land as a "Civis Romanus," claiming exemption from military service as well as immunity from the operation of inconvenient laws. In such cases this Government is not disposed to uphold these new-made countrymen or to extend to them the protection of the flag.

It is to be hoped that Buffon's maxim, "The style is the man," is inapplicable to our envoys. Wellington's despatches compelled admiration even from their modest author, but the despatches of our ministers will probably not give so much satisfaction to their own composers. A few are excellent. Some are characterized by "decent debility." Others are so very remarkable that one wonders why the gentlemen who wrote them so badly ever thought themselves specially fitted to represent their country abroad. The two following sentences display little regard for the ordinary rules of construction or of grammar:

> "Bands of music . . . during the afternoon played ours as well as their own national airs."
>
> "I was assured of his purpose to do what laid in his power."

These peculiarities of expression may be passed over, but here is an extract which exhibits not only a lack of culture, but at the same time a great want of courtesy in dealing with a friendly government. The commander of the United States steamer *San Francisco* had been instructed to assist our Minister, if necessary, in settling the Argüello case. The captain received his orders first and notified the Minister, who had not then received his instructions, but "assumed for my purpose with this Government on this occasion that they were something pretty perpendicular, containing a genuine American ring." He then launched forth this philippic:

> "You express to me, Mr. Minister, your friendship for the United States, and the President does the same; and then you jump on us with both feet and spit in our faces. Your action in the canal matter has advertised to all the civilized world your own lack of good faith. . . . Your notice of forfeiture of the canal concession, even though it be upon a frivolous ground and one not warranted and not founded in law, not only destroys the credit of the Interoceanic Canal Company, but it is the most ghastly stab under the fifth rib of the credit of your own Government which could be inflicted by the keenest Damascus blade."

Another minister, who did not bear in mind Talleyrand's motto, "Surtout pas de zèle," was reprimanded by the late Mr. Gresham for introducing into a conference with the Turkish Minister for Foreign Affairs a comparison between the constitutions of the United States and of Great Britain, which was "not only unnecessary, but inaccurate." The Secretary of State's despatch continues:

> "The Department specially regrets your saying to the Minister for Foreign Affairs, 'If your Excellency believes it would accomplish good, I will go yonder to your Padishah (the Sultan) and tell him that unless he heeds the advice of his ministers, who are trying to save the country from the devil, it will be bad for Turkey.'"

Wilkes remarked upon one occasion: "It was observed of Apelles's Venus that her flesh seemed as if she had been nourished by roses; Burke's oratory would sometimes make one suppose that he eats potatoes and drinks whiskey." But upon what meat do these our envoys feed? Sometimes our representatives drop into absolute incomprehensibility, as when a consul in Central America informed the United States Minister that certain Americans were "in limbo," meaning merely, it was afterwards ascertained, that the persons were in some danger of arrest. It is probable that these things will continue so long as the diplomatic and consular service remains a part of the spoils.

Unfamiliarity with diplomatic custom exhibits itself in many of the despatches. One minister asked the State Department whether he had authority to perform the marriage service in Nicaragua. Another envoy requested the Government of Bolivia to promote an officer of its army because of his civility in officially receiving the minister. On another occasion a minister arrogated to himself the authority to "appoint" a consul. When Thackeray was in Jerusalem, he met

the United States Consul-General for Syria, who, forsaking family and comfortable home, had accepted the appointment in the East in order that he and his favorite dove might be near the holy places at the millennium, which he believed was at hand. He explained his interpretation of the Apocalypse to the Lieutenant of the Sublime Porte, no doubt much to that official's astonishment. He was a kind, worthy, simple man. His knowledge of Syria was limited to the information which he had derived from prophecy, but that was enough to secure his appointment as United States Consul-General. We are not entirely through with selecting foreign representatives in that way.

THE HORSE.

THE *Evening Post* prints a very virulent letter directed against the horse, which, however, is not very far astray as to the future of that animal. But it is hardly fair to say of him that he has been "found out." There never has been any concealment or pretence about him. He has for some thousands of years shared with the camel the duty of furnishing the human race with its chief means of rapid locomotion. But no one who had any experience of him ever denied his extraordinary imperfection as a machine. What with his diseases and tenderness and temper and stupidity, he has been singularly ineffective as a mode of motion. In fact, it has been so difficult to make good use of him that the management of him has been in all ages a very difficult art, acquired only by very few people. Nor has he been particularly ornamental. The ordinary horse is not handsome. To get a handsome horse, very careful breeding, followed by a close, confined, artificial, and unhealthy life is absolutely necessary. To stay handsome, a horse has to be shut up in an expensive house, and treated with as much care as an invalid, and under the best of circumstances he does not last very long. Happy is the man who has a saddle-horse in use for five years. The number and variety of known and understood diseases to which he is liable are almost comic, to say nothing of the mysterious ones which no "vet" can find out. His attacks of insanity and panic, too, are frightfully frequent, although his courage in battle is undoubted.

Why, then, has man put up with him so long? For the simple reason that there was no substitute for him for travelling or fighting purposes. He has held his own because he had no competitor. He has been thrown out of employment as fast as science produced other means of getting the work done. The railroads stopped his use for long journeys. The old stage-horse is gone. It seems marvellous now that he could hold on so long when twelve miles a day was about as much as could have been got out of him. The trolley and the cable-car are driving him out of employment as a feeder of the railroads. Now he has been attacked in his last stronghold—as an instrument of pleasure—by the bicycle. In truth, as fast as means of doing without him are discovered he is laid aside. The chances are that some means of supplying electric power to light vehicles, like the bicycle or buggy, will be discovered before long, and then he will be relegated to cavalry, polo, and hunting. Riding in a wagon behind a horse is, in truth, not unlike employing as a driver a person liable to occasional fits of acute insanity. What may bring them on cannot be foreseen. A wheelbarrow, a bird in the bush, a railroad train, or a big dog may turn any horse into a maniac and kill his owner or his family.

This long dependence of humanity on the horse has furnished a striking illustration of the adaptability of the race to inevitable circumstances. Although he fell very far short of furnishing cheap, easy, or safe locomotion, he has been treated in all ages as one of the noblest of beasts. The description of the war-horse in the Bible has been accepted for many ages as a good picture of the reality, although very few horses indeed ever answered to it. The fact, too, that he is extraordinarily difficult to use and to manage, far from causing complaint, simply developed a new art which was held in great honor and brought in much profit to its possessors. Nobody has ever blamed or depreciated the horse for being vicious, or silly, or intractable, or skittish, or obstinate, or tricky. The blame has all fallen on man for not being able to get the better of him. The good horseman who can successfully resist the horse's efforts to get rid of him has always been held in high esteem, but nobody has ever found fault with the horse for trying to get rid of him. If the horse had been looked on as what he really was, however — an industrial machine — he would have been treated as a calamity. A machine which behaved as he has behaved, would have been universally decried and shunned.

But there is one excuse for him of which the *Evening Post's* correspondent makes no mention, but which accounts for some part of his failure to progress in historic times. His size and peculiarities of digestion have made his close association with the more cultivated portion of the human species impossible. He has consequently been cut off from the advantages enjoyed by the dog, which everywhere shares in household life, has become man's friend and companion, and coöperates intelligently in some of the work of the world. This is largely due to the fact that the dog is able to enter the dwelling-house and lie by the fireside and live in constant and familiar intercourse with his master and his family. The horse, on the other hand, is relegated to the mercies of one of the lowest classes of the community—the hostlers, or grooms, or teamsters—who, as a rule, tyrannize over him, and suppress or discourage rather than develop his intelligence. In their hands, in fact, he is exposed to all the blighting influences of slavery. The life he leads under their rule, combined with the unhealthiness of the abodes in which they keep him, would brutalize man himself.

To show the importance of this we have only to look at the horse under conditions of life similar to those of the dog, as in Arabia. There he grows up in the tent or at the tent door, among the children, and although he does not join in the family life as intelligently as the dog, the owner's care and companionship have made him far more sociable than the European horse. The "runaway," or panic, is unknown among Arab horses, and so is what we call "vice"—that is, bits of deviltry intended to mar his usefulness. He is gentle, tractable, ready to serve and do his best, and is in such sympathy with his master that he is not afraid of anything which does not frighten his rider. As matters stand, the cheap horse, with few good points, seems doomed. The costly good-looking horse will probably last long for hunting and cavalry, and great pains will be taken to breed him. The demand for cavalry will always be great, as long as the art of killing remains in such high esteem. No charging machine will ever be invented, but it is a question whether scouting will not be done far more effectively on bicycles than on horses. In that sort of service bottom and swiftness are what tell, and in these the horse as compared to the wheel, is "nowhere." But we must not discharge the horse without recalling the great part he has played in the work of civilization, and the number of glorious fields on which he has laid down his life side by side with his master. The epitaph on the Duke of Wellington's Waterloo charger has much suggestion in it:

> "God's humble instrument, though meaner clay,
> Must share the triumph of that glorious day."

"MIDSUMMER NIGHT'S DREAM" AT SMITH COLLEGE.

NORTHAMPTON, MASS., June 17, 1895.

THE readers of the *Nation* may remember that in June, 1889, it gave a brief account of the "Electra" of Sophocles as presented in the Greek by the Senior class of Smith College. Every June since then the graduating class has given a play for the double purpose of entertaining its friends and affording a definite expression of a somewhat uncommon interpretation of the relation between art and science in education. These plays have all been managed by the Senior class. The money for the necessary expenses has been contributed by the members of the class, and the business connected with it carried through by a committee appointed for the purpose. The conduct of these plays has been looked upon as a valuable experience in administration, apart from the æsthetic discipline gained by the actors or the æsthetic culture shared by the class at large with the public.

Besides the "Electra," three of these efforts have had a distinct value for the interests that they have embodied or for the training that they have required. In 1890 the "Spanish Gypsy" of George Eliot was given; in 1892, Browning's "Colombe's Birthday"; this year, June 14 and 15, Shakspere's "A Midsummer Night's Dream." This work was undertaken with a profound sense of its delicacy and difficulty, but with an equally profound conviction that it is possible to interest students in giving, and audiences in hearing, something better than Hasty Pudding plays or adaptations of fourth-rate French comedy. From the beginning, the departments of elocution in the college and the director of the play earnestly emphasized the desirability of making the performance as little spectacular and professional as possible, and of rendering prominent the nature and poetry in the play. The result richly justified their confidence. The play was successful at exactly the points where it was hoped that it would be. Its beauty, refinement, variety, humor, and pure poetry were adequately represented and throughly appreciated. One clever critic of the modern drama declared that it had convinced him that Shakspere ought always to be acted to be understood, and that he had received his first satisfactory demonstration that Shakspere was really a great constructive playwright. Perhaps the committee of the class and their counsellors, Miss Peck and Mr. Young, would ask no more adequate recognition of what they were attempting for both students and audience.

The presentation embodied several interesting departures from stage tradition. The costumes were designed and made almost entirely by the students themselves. They were studied as carefully as possible to be suitable to their wearers and conformable to the historic setting. The cuts in the play were made also with a view to the peculiar circumstances of the presentation. In the third scene of act ii. a very beautiful tableau was introduced of *Oberon* bending over the sleeping *Titania* as the fairies retreat into the distance after lulling her to sleep by their song and dance. In the fourth act *Theseus* and his train appear after a gradual sunrise and through real trees introduced for the sake of a more natural effect than the one commonly produced at this point, where the lovers, in the broadest daylight, lie undiscovered at *Theseus's* very feet through several long speeches. After the departure of the royal train *Puck* is discovered in the balcony outside the palace. This arrangement was carried out by Samuel Phelps, but has not been used in this country before. The final scene of the play was left to the fairies and to *Puck*. The shadows and the fairy blessing on the house and its owner were first in possession, and then the Della Robbia face and figure of *Puck* were half revealed in the glimmering light for his charming epilogue. So it was hoped that the sprite-like, dream-like, other-world element might be last and most abiding.

Throughout the performance, the grotesque and the clownish were used only as foils to the more delicate and romantic suggestions of the text. At the moment of *Titania's* deepest infatuation, the attendant fairies *Peaseblossom*, *Cobweb*, *Moth*, and *Mustardseed* were represented as beautiful and interesting. They danced about the figure of *Bottom*, fitting expressions of *Titania's* heart and mind before her eyes had suffered their "hateful imperfection." The acting was far less amateurish than might have been expected. All the fairy train were beautiful suggestions, reminiscent of Botticelli, made possible by drilling for months in Delsarte gymnastics. Even the hackneyed passages were impressive and poetical. As for the mechanicals, they were the strongest part of the play. They never once suggested women in disguise, and from *Bottom*, with his remarkably clever "business" and original interpretation of his office as a fussy vulgar, to the "under-study" dog, were exquisitely mirth-provoking.

In reviewing such an effort as this a number of points need consideration. In the first place, the performance is a monument to the practical financiering of the students. The sum of money at their disposal is limited by the faculty to $900. This fact is further memorable as an indication of the democratic spirit fostered by the entire work. It is intended to represent the whole class, and as fully and impartially as possible. The poorest student has as much interest in it as the richest, and may be chairman of the executive committee. It is further noteworthy in giving some other medium of expression for the student experience than that found in the purely mental or academic exercises customary at the close of a college course. It is most seriously conceived, most seriously carried out, and whether successful or not from the point of view of the public, considered most remunerative by the students. From the point of view of the public, I think it may be said that such a play under such conditions gives as pure a form of entertainment as can be imagined, and affords indefinite suggestion with regard to the limits imposed by the present dramatic conventions. The success of this performance was due to the enthusiasm of the actors and to the insight and untiring efforts of Miss Ludella L. Peck and Mr. Alfred Young. X.

DURHAM DOCK LABORERS AND PITMEN.—I.

ENGLAND, May 10, 1895.

IT is commonly said in the North of England that what Durham thinks to-day the rest of England will think when it wakes up; and certainly Newcastle, which is in many ways the capital of the North, seems to be taking, from a political point of view, the place which Manchester held under the leadership of Mr. Bright. It is the centre of that thickly populated district of old Northumbria which has undergone such strange vicissitudes; which was Christianized by Columba, Aidan, and the Venerable Bede; which was ravaged and laid waste by William the Conqueror; which for centuries was debatable land, the scene of continual inroads and repulses between the Scotch and English; and which finally towards the end of last century sprang, by the help of steam and the increasing need for coal, into wonderful prosperity.

For, on the Tyneside, natural facilities abundantly encourage the production of wealth. There is a large supply of iron ore; there are almost limitless resources of coal for smelting; and there is a magnificent river-way. With such advantages it is not surprising that Messrs. Armstrong and scores of other ship-builders should have chosen this site for their works, or that from one dock alone —Tyne Dock—as much as 27,000 tons of coal should daily be shipped abroad. Both sides of the river from Newcastle to North and South Shields are indeed so crowded with workshops, ship-yards, and their attendant populations that the whole district seems little else than a suburban district of another metropolis. Trains run almost every quarter of an hour throughout the day from Shields to Gateshead, from Tynemouth to Newcastle, and are as densely crowded as the Underground in London or the overhead railways in New York. The people in consequence are as quick and nimble-witted as the city-bred Londoners; though, because of the stronger element of Norwegian blood in their veins, or because of the more invigorating nature of their work and the nearness to strong sea-air, they have no want of backbone such as is said to arise from life in the enervating South.

In one of the parishes that border on the Tyne it was the writer's lot to spend two years of his life. Possibly no spot in England would have been so suitable a *point d'appui* for studying the social and economical problems which concern the industrial classes. In St. Mary's Tyne Dock there are no gentry, in the ordinary sense of the word, excepting the three resident clergy. This is unfortunately the case in most of the mining districts of Durham, for the smoke and the coal-dust have compelled landowners to move south. The population is between seven and eight thousand, who earn wages—(1.) as employees of the North Eastern Railway Company. This class includes engine-drivers, stokers, guards, porters, trimmers, teamers, shunters, plate-layers, and workmen; Dock officials, clerks, and policemen. (2.) Pitmen and men connected with the coal-pits of Boldon, Harton, Whitburn, and St. Hilda, which undermine the whole of the district including the town of Shields itself. (3.) Seamen, seagoing engineers, firemen, and the miscellaneous floating population of casual laborers, locally called "tag-rags," who appear, no one knows whence, to earn half a day's pay by unloading the timber-ships, and then disappear as suddenly as they have come.

Of Class I. it may be said that they are the aristocracy of the place. The N. E. R. is the great landlord and the chief employer of labor. It is the aim of all who are not already employed by this company to get their names into its books. Next in order of social precedence come the seagoing engineers and the chief hewers in the pits. The ordinary sailors and firemen, who are away from their homes for longer or shorter periods, are reckoned last upon the list.

From the point of view of wages, one section of Class I. is probably better paid than any other unskilled laborer in England. These are the "trimmers." Their work is to pack the coal in the holds of the ships as it is shot down from the huge "jetties" which run out into the Dock. It is most important, lest the cargo should shift, that no inch of waste room should be left between the coal and the sides and deck of the ship. But this means heavy shovelling for the "trimmers," in dark holds which they have to light with farthing candles; hot and stuffy work in the dust-laden atmosphere, which is bad when the cargo is coal, but worse when it is coke. In cramped positions, for they often have to shovel with scarcely a foot of room between the coal and the deck, standing knee-deep or half lying upon the rough lumps, this is about as parching and tiring work as can well be imagined. "Trimmers" wear several thicknesses of rough blue-black cloth shirts, for the danger of catching cold after sweating is great, and naturally the thirst which follows is a snare to many. They work in gangs of eight, over whom they choose a foreman or "crow," as he is called, to arrange their work, to see that coal is teamed down from the "tops" or "jetties" as it is wanted, and to re-

ceive and divide the pay. This is settled according to a fixed tariff per ton, and, as I have said, the trimmers are well paid. When the Dock is in full working, the average wages per head is rarely less than £3 per week, and often it is more. The work goes on day and night excepting Sundays, throughout the year, the men changing their shifts every fortnight. The day shift is from six A. M. to five P. M. and the night shift from five P. M. to six A. M., though naturally in contract jobs there is some overlapping. Men dislike the night shift, not so much because of working in the dark as because their sleep during the day is never so refreshing as at the natural time. Neither do wives like the night shift. In addition to the nuisance of having a husband in bed all day, for whom the house must be kept quiet, there is no small danger that the men will prefer the comfort of a public house in the early hours of the morning, and will come home later in the day very much the worse for whiskey. One public house, which has a commanding position exactly opposite the Dock gates, boasts that its rent is paid by takings before six o'clock in the morning. On a cold morning, before he opens his doors, the owner is careful to have 500 threepenny glasses of gin filled and ready to be consumed. If, however, the "trimmer" avoids the drink danger, he often becomes exceedingly well-to-do. He owns his house and garden, sends his children to the higher-grade schools, and frequently takes his wife and family into the country for a fortnight in the summer. The N. E. R. gives privilege tickets at a quarter of the ordinary fare to all its servants, and this enables them to travel cheaply and easily over all parts of the system.

The "teamer" is frequently a son of a "trimmer," who looks forward to being made a "trimmer" himself some day. His work is to knock out the bottoms of the coal-wagons over the tips, and shoot the coal down into the ships. This is a more dusty employment still, for the jetties, being high up, are exposed to the wind, and, on stormy nights, to driving snow and rain. The teamers also are paid according to the tonnage they team, but at a lower rate; and their wages range from thirty-five shillings to two pounds a week. They, too, of course, are subject to the changing day and night shift.

The boys who bring the coal-wagons from the "field" to the jetties, and take them back again empty, are called "bank riders." When a train of coal-wagons has been left in the "field" by an engine, little more steam-power is needed to bring five or six wagons, as they are needed, to the various "tips" a mile away. The bank rider unlooses so many wagons as he needs, is given a start by a tiny pilot engine, and then steers his trucks along a series of inclined planes, backwards and forwards by means of his brake, to the particular jetty which needs his coal. When trade is brisk, it not infrequently happens that a cargo is ordered from an inland pit for a Swedish railway, perhaps, or the gas-works at Rouen, is dismissed from the pit-mouth within twenty-four hours after receiving the order, is shipped the same night by bank riders, teamers, and trimmers, in common tramp steamers, and, within a week of leaving its deep bed in Durham, is driving a train in Upsala or a gas-engine in Normandy.

Men who spend their lives in this fashion you would expect to find strong and muscular. Their work in the open air in all weathers is healthy and invigorating. Their pay enables them to feed on the best of food, all the wives bake their own bread, and the demand for home-grown beef is very great. And indeed their physique is very striking. A large proportion are more than six feet high, with enormous shoulders and chests, forearms like a leg of mutton, and massive legs. These are almost always Northumbrians or Tynesiders of long descent, whose fathers first came to our shores in Norse Viking ships. But the largest men are not always the best workers in the cramped holds, and in the great trimmers' strike of twenty years ago many Southerners of inferior physique and lesser build from Norfolk and Suffolk were taken into employment, and have held their posts ever since.

Without being skilled mechanics, these men are far more intelligent and educated than most laborers. They have to exercise their brains in computing the amount of coals a ship will carry, and in driving bargains with the shipowners, who are men of every class and nationality. They are brought into touch, through the widening influence of a large dock, with many larger interests and varied ways of thinking. They have large cabins in the dock-yard, where their shovels are housed and their food is left by the children who bring them their hot dinners, and where they themselves sit in the intervals between work. Here they play whist and dominoes, or read the sporting and religious papers, and receive the clergy, who come one day in every week to give lectures and instruction. They have their Union and their temperance society, and are exceedingly generous to members in misfortune. Religiously they belong to every shade of thought. Romans, Anglicans, Baptists, Methodists, Congregationalists, and Freethinkers are all strongly represented. Some of them are local preachers among the Wesleyans, some officers in the Salvation Army, some Spiritualists. But the life in common tends to make them think much and discuss the questions of the day; while lectures on Shakspere given by a Baptist minister were carefully followed. Not infrequently the lecturer is heckled on all kinds of topics, religious, social, or political; he is asked, for instance, to justify the sovereignty of the Queen, or to say which came first into the world, an egg or a hen. This is in most cases, of course, the reflection of the Radical journals, which are almost universally read; and it must be said that until they understand how closely imperial interests affect their own livelihood, there is little in their local surroundings, except the Church, to make them Conservative. W.

LEOPARDI'S HOME.

RECANATI, May 8, 1895.

As our century falls into silence, we distinguish at least two Italian voices, of very different notes, that have gone forth from it into many lands, and seem likely to be listened to by a long posterity. One voice, Manzoni's, speaks a clear, wholesome message, abounding in wit, in love of the elemental human lot, in piety; the other voice, Leopardi's, sounds all the stops of despair, passing from pity to scorn, and from scorn to bitterness, but always beautiful, like the song of a hermit thrush. And the world, obeying an instinct which lies deep in the heart of man, has come to pay more attention to Leopardi than to Manzoni; for the genial author of the 'Promessi Sposi' and of the Catholic hymns furnishes delight, perhaps even consolation, but he does not answer, at least for our doubting, inquisitive generation, questions which every serious man must some time confront. To submit reason to dogma (to the dogma formulated by St. Thomas and encrusted with the superstitions of the subsequent six hundred years), to deny science, to close one's eyes to the amazing contradictions of our existence—all this has become for honest thinkers well-nigh impossible, and they naturally do not turn to Manzoni for enlightenment. His great achievement lay not in his philosophy, but in his pictures of the life round him, and we may enjoy his romance, as we enjoy any other beautiful work of art, without quarrelling with him for not making it philosophic. Fiction has become so sodden with social, political, religious, medical, or other propaganda that we can reverence Manzoni all the more that he refused to turn his novel into an ill-disguised tract.

But it is because Leopardi, whether in his poetry or in his prose (and in both he was a master), spoke out the doubt which consumed him, that his works have gone into many lands, and that he is held as the representative of that pessimism with which so much of the thought of our age is saturated. He at least gave one answer to the problem of life—a grim and terrible answer, yet one which, for reasons not here to be discussed, has been prevalent in these later decades. The caprice and injustice of destiny, the overwhelming realization of evil, the perpetuity of sin and pain—in a word, the apparent impossibility of reconciling the individual with the universe—left him but one solution, the preferability of annihilation. We think of another soul, Spinoza, equally impressed by this immense discrepancy between the individual and the infinite, and, remembering Spinoza's ecstasy at being a mere atom of infinity, we understand how temperament—that very fate against which Leopardi inveighed and which to Spinoza was God—determines our view of life. Leopardi was no whiner, and therefore it is that now, nearly sixty years after his death, new books about him appear every year, and that whatever concerned his personality has been carefully gleaned. His voice, intensified by rare genius, is the voice of those that suffer, or fail, or despair, a voice akin to that of Ecclesiastes, who summed up the pessimism of the Hebrews. And just as sorrow or pain enters sooner or later into the experience of every one, so at some time Leopardi appeals most intimately to many hearts. Even while the healthy soul knows fortitude and resignation to be indispensable, it cannot always forbear grief or stifle the sigh of anguish.

But for those who never have taken Leopardi thus seriously, his remarkable career, almost without parallel in literature, would more than justify a pilgrimage to his home. Born in 1798, of a noble family, at eleven years of age he had outstripped the utmost learning that the priests of Recanati could give him; at fourteen he had read the entire body of patristic literature in Latin and Greek; he learned Hebrew, German, French, English, and Spanish by himself; at twenty-one he had achieved more in poetry than any Italian since Petrarch; and thenceforward by the discerning few he was appreciated. But their appreciation brought him little solace and no money, so that to the end of his grievous life (he died in 1837) he hardly subsisted on the scanty stipend given him by his father, added to the irregular sums he earned by hack-work from the booksellers, and to the bounty of one or two friends. Poverty has so often been the comrade of genius that we should not lay stress on it in Leopardi's case, were it not an indica-

tion of family relations which go far to explain his abhorrence of Recanati. Leopardi's father, Count Monaldo, was rich, as wealth was measured by the nobles on the Adriatic coast, and yet he allowed his son only twelve *scudi* (or dollars) a month, although that son was an invalid, diseased in nerves and spine, requiring every comfort to make his physical existence barely tolerable. Count Monaldo's niggardliness has been much debated, but I have yet to find proof that it sprang from want of affection for his son; it seems more probable, on the contrary, that, being quite unable to understand Giacomo's genius, and dreading his anti-clerical opinions, the father wished to force Giacomo to stay at home, where his heresies could be smothered. Certainly the plea that the Count could afford no more than a beggar's portion will not persuade any one who has seen the Leopardi palace at Recanati.

On the other hand, the poet's invectives against his surroundings must be taken with much reserve. That he had no congenial companionship at Recanati is undeniable, but that the place itself or the neighboring country would suffice to explain his pessimism will be argued only by those who, like Taine, try to explain every genius by the acre it happens to be tethered in. As well pretend that Shakspere drew *Hamlet's* pessimism from Warwickshire, as that the beautiful country around Recanati caused Leopardi's pessimism. And as for lack of intellectual companionship, was Burns, then, so fortunate, or Carlyle at Ecclefechan? No; seek Leopardi's secret—if what is so patent can be called a secret—in his diseased nerves and spine, in the restless, insatiable mind unsupported by an adequate physique! Nature is as beautiful on the hills he haunted as she ever was in Arcady.

From Ancona a slow train takes you in less than an hour to the village of Porto Recanati, on the very margin of the Adriatic. Thence, by an excellent high-road, you drive in an hour to Recanati itself, which is built along a high ridge, and looks most picturesque with its old walls and towers and vast communal palace. The road winds among very fertile fields, every inch of which is cultivated. The backs of the curving hills are now deep with grass or wheat; in the lower fields the grain is almost ripe, and endless processions of mulberry-trees, trained in goblet shape, are festooned with vines. Innumerable flowers grow along the wayside; the road itself is bounded by hedges of white hawthorne, just blossoming; the farmers' houses are overrun with wistaria, or decked with little plots of purple iris. The peasants seem well-to-do, working, men and women together, in the vineyards. Some of the women still wear the traditional peasants' costumes, and the ox-carts, drawn by white oxen, have pictures or flowers or religious emblems painted on them. There is nothing in all this to suggest the approach to the shrine of pessimism.

The town, which we enter from the east, has narrow streets and, except the communal palace, no noteworthy buildings. In the chief square there is an admirable marble statue of Leopardi, by Panichi; it gives the large, intellectual head, the deep-set eyes, the pinched cheeks, and pained expression common to his later portraits. Eighty years ago, in these very streets, his fellows jeered at him. Five minutes distant from the square, near the western wall, is the Leopardi palace, a large, rambling brick structure. Beyond the entrance, instead of the customary courtyard, there is a marble "atrium and peristyle," completed, as a tablet informs us, by Count Monaldo for the admiration of posterity in 1798—the year of Giacomo's birth. Flights of marble steps lead to the second story, and the whole produces the effect of old-fashioned elegance tempered by a tendency towards the sepulchral.

The footman of the present Count unlocks the door leading to the Leopardi library, which consists of five rooms, connected by a corridor along the eastern side of the house, and thus gives the appearance of a series of vast alcoves rather than of separate rooms. The walls from floor to ceiling are filled with books—27,000 in all—the larger part bound in vellum, and arranged according to topics. The largest hall contains cabinets with many of the poet's manuscripts and other mementoes of him. There is also a cabinet of medals, bric-à-brac, and antiques, formed by his father, and his father's study. In these quarters, certainly not to be equalled in many private houses anywhere, young Leopardi grew up. The number of boys of genius who have had nearly 30,000 books under their father's roof must be exceedingly small, so that on this score Leopardi was not to be pitied—unless, indeed, we are to pity those into whose hands fortune places the means of their undoing. That Leopardi could ever have been robust was impossible, but that he speedily wrecked by over-study his frail physique is also unquestioned; and in this rich library the means of wrecking himself were at hand.

The windows of the rooms look towards the east, but the view is cut off by a row of bare, ugly houses, in one of which dwelt the coachman's pretty daughter, of whom he wrote under the name of "Nerina." He used to go out but seldom, an old servant who remembers him told us, and then alone. But even a short walk would bring him to one of the many points whence he got the views which he has described. If he looked eastward, he saw the rolling hills and rich valleys, and the Adriatic beyond; a little to the north, three miles away, he saw the dome of the shrine of Loreto, and then Castelfidardo, Osimo, and half-a-dozen other hill cities; westward, across great gulfs of green, he saw the Apennines. How easily the disciples of Buckle could account for a joyous poet reared amid this environment!

But most interesting, after the sight of his home itself, is that cabinet which holds his manuscripts, all neatly written, only the poems showing frequent emendations. Here is a large copy-book entitled "The Philosophic Essays of Giacomo Leopardi," and dated 1809, when he was eleven years old, and another, "The History of Astronomy," with the date 1813. In his case such titles were not vain, for there has probably been no other juvenile mind, except Mill's, which worked with the accuracy and vigor of the best-trained mature intellects at an age when most boys are, fortunately, still playing at leap-frog. We know how near Mill came to disasters in both physical and mental health, and how long it took him, through a life of intellectual action, to throw off the gloom wh ch that early abnormal strain fixed upon him; but Leopardi had no companionship to draw him out of himself, no great movement into which he could throw himself, and, worst of all, no constitution to endure the immense labors he engaged in. Towards the end of his life he protested that disease had had nothing to do with the pessimistic principles he professed; but psychologists to-day, familiar with neurotic conditions, will not heed his protest. They will wonder that a mind so tormented preserved to the last its remarkable powers rather than that its thoughts took the tinge of his suffering.

A frank biography of Leopardi is still lacking, but it is safe to say that it cannot be written by one who has not seen Leopardi's home. As your rickety carriage drives down the steep hill towards Castelfidardo, passing rich crops and innumerable wild flowers on either side, and you think of the palace and vast library, you will feel how personality lords it over environment. You will feel, too, that Leopardi's career, irrespective of his doctrines, gives no comfort to those easy optimists who blink facts. Prometheus on the rock, Laocoön in the toils—you have their modern instance in Leopardi. "Great men, great nations," says Emerson, "perceive the terror of life"; a life like Leopardi's is not to be confuted, but to be understood, before its example of terror can be bravely faced. W. R. T.

Correspondence.

THE JOURNAL OF THE BOARD OF TRADE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I think the students of history throughout the country will be glad to know that "a circular recently issued by the Historical Society of Pennsylvania to its members asking contributions or a guarantee to the amount of $2,000 per annum for five years for the purpose of obtaining a full copy of the Journal of the Board of Trade from the original in the English Public Record Office," mentioned in your issue of the 13th, was so promptly responded to that the work has been begun.

Very respectfully yours,

F. D. Stone, Librarian.

Historical Society of Pennsylvania,
Philadelphia, June 13, 1895.

Notes.

Macmillan & Co. will soon publish 'Studies in Economics,' by Dr. William Smart; 'Mother and Daughter: An Uncompleted Sonnet Sequence,' by the late Mrs. Augusta Webster; and 'A Son of the Plains,' by Arthur Patterson.

From Duprat & Co. we have what appears to be the first of a series of volumes on the private libraries of New York. It is entitled 'The Library of Robert Hoe,' and has been prepared by O. A. Bierstadt, assistant librarian of the Astor Library. The book has been most expensively and beautifully made at the De Vinne Press, being printed on vellum paper, with 110 admirable illustrations, taken from MSS. and books in the collection described. There are some 150 manuscripts, the illuminated portion being unsurpassed in this country; and these are discussed in the first section. Louis XII., Matthias Corvinus, Lorenzo de' Medici, Maximilian I. and Charles V., Diana of Poitiers, and Anne de Beaujeu are some of the famous former possessors of them. There are five vellum Petrarch MSS., and the Oriental collection is also striking. Next follow the Incunabula, among which we shall specify only the *editio princeps* of Homer (1488); Printed Books of Hours; Aldines, with the Virgil of 1501, the first book printed in italic type, and a volume containing Melanchthon's autograph; Elzevirs, 200 in number, including imitations; French books, embracing a Montaigne with Voltaire's autograph; Eng-

lish books, among which we note Blake's 'Milton,' one of three extant out of the total twelve, a fine array of Bewicks, and an extra-illustrated Life of Stothard. The last section is given up to a miscellany in which a Testament inscribed to Bonaparte by the Widow Beauharnais, and bearing his autograph also, is a precious "human document." Eleven Groliers are here described and many exquisite bindings. Some of these treasures will perhaps find their way eventually into the consolidated New York Library. The present edition is limited to 350 copies.

Mr. Selden L. Whitcomb's 'Chronological Outlines of American Literature' (Macmillan) has been intelligently modelled upon F. Ryland's corresponding work for English Literature, and even contrives a column for the latter beside those devoted to Foreign Literature and the contemporary events in biography and history. The tables thus composed have an obvious convenience for students of any given year or period, and to a certain extent they have been indexed for the American portion by a list of the more prolific authors, with their works displayed beneath in order of publication. The same space, however, would, in our opinion, have been better given up to a complete index of every personal name, journal or magazine mentioned on the left hand (American) page. In this way we should have been directed to Poole's first 'Index to Periodicals' (1848), the founding of *Graham's Magazine* and the *Tribune* (1841), and of *Niles' Register* (1811), the beginning of Appletons' 'New American Cyclopædia' (1858), and of Dr. Lieber's 'Encyclopædia Americana' (1829), and the like. With these reserves we have only praise for the author of so great a labor.

The latest issue in the "Globe" series of Macmillan & Co. is a reduced edition of Lord Berners's translation of Froissart's Chronicles from the hand of Mr. G. C. Macaulay. When it was first published, 1521–1525, Lord Berners's Froissart was the most important work of modern history that had yet appeared in England, and to its influence has been attributed with much plausibility the noteworthy increase of interest in historical literature in the next generation. Lord Berners, while by no means the best prose-writer of his time, had certain peculiar qualifications for translating Froissart. He was deeply interested in history, and hardly less so in the chivalric romances, while as a nobleman and a courtier he was familiar with the language of chivalry so far as it survived at the court of Henry VIII. As a result his translation, although inaccurate from both ignorance and carelessness, reproduces the atmosphere and flavor of Froissart with a success far beyond that attained in the painstaking but prosaic version of Johnes. Mr. Macaulay has reprinted about one-third of the whole in the form of selected passages, maintaining the continuity of the narrative by brief summaries of the omitted portions. The majority of the omissions occur in the second part, where Froissart fell into great diffuseness. The selections are given as originally printed, save that the spelling has been modernized, misprints and faulty translations corrected, and the geographical names reduced to consistent forms. Mr. Macaulay has supplied a glossary, but has neglected to provide an index, which could have been made with very little trouble with the help of that in Johnes's edition.

'Dr. Judas' is the allegorical and not altogether satisfactory title, based upon the treachery of the drug, of a book better described alternatively as "A Portrayal of the Opium Habit," by W. R. Cobbe (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.). It is the apparently genuine autobiography of an intelligent neurasthenic who, during an attack of illness, became a victim of the insidious sedative, which, introduced as a servant, speedily became master. Unlike many confessions, this portrayal does not indirectly allure to vice. Everywhere is the directest denial of De Quincy's dictum as to the "gates of Paradise." It is the portal and anteroom of hell, physically and to the spirit. This is an interesting psychological contribution, which intelligently, if somewhat floridly, displays the sufferings of the wretched souls whose escape from the toils is nearly impossible. The author claims to be well now, to have had the chains removed. There is no appearance of advertisement about his work, but he joyfully announces that the redemption of the most thoroughly enslaved is possible.

From Theodore Presser, Philadelphia, we have a volume of 423 pages devoted to 'Celebrated Pianists of the Past and Present'—a collection of 139 biographies, with portraits, by A. Ehrlich, who has also written a similar volume on 'Celebrated Violinists.' It is with some curiosity that one looks over the formidable list of "139 celebrated pianists," and one is hardly surprised to find that the word celebrated is taken in a very liberal sense. The book could have been made more valuable to students if it had included lists of compositions for the piano in each case, in place of rambling general remarks on the life of each composer and his works in all departments; but for those who wish a convenient bird's-eye view, Ehrlich's volume may be commended. The book is nearly up to date, Paderewski, Rosenthal, and Sauer being included. But why are Josef Hofmann and Anton Hegner omitted?

A 'Memoir of George Higinbotham, an Australian Politician and Chief-Justice of Victoria,' by Edward E. Morris, has been published by Macmillan & Co. Some interest attaches to such a career as is here depicted, because similar careers are common in our own country. The subject of the biography was a reporter, journalist, legislator, lawyer, Attorney-General, and Chief-Justice. But the political controversies in which he was engaged, although lively enough, are of as little interest except to students of political development as the battles of the kites and crows. Some constitutional questions were settled, but they have little bearing on the fundamentals of government. The biographer has slight literary qualifications for his task, and the life that he describes was on the whole of no more than local interest.

From Félix Alcan, Paris, we have the second series of the collected essays of the late Émile de Laveleye, which is to be followed by a third and final volume. M. de Laveleye was an extremely facile writer, and his writings are almost numberless; but he was less profound than prolific, and we think that few of his works will be found to have permanent value. Nevertheless, he treated many subjects out of the common line in an agreeable and suggestive manner, and those who have the knack of browsing judiciously in economic pastures will find among these essays not a few that will repay attention.

The income tax appears to be for this country a closed chapter of history, but in France the demand for its imposition, in a progressive form, is incessant and irrepressible. Those who are interested in the literature of the subject will find the arguments for the tax stated in a volume of speeches by M. Godefroy Cavaignac, published at Paris by Armand Colin & Cie.

M. Jules Payot, who has written largely in the philosophic reviews, and who made himself more widely known last year by his book on 'L'Éducation de la Volonté,' has just published a new study entitled 'L'Éducation de la Démocratie.' Although he agrees with the neo-Christian school as to the insufficiency of science and as to the necessity of a moral faith, he breaks with such leaders of that school as M. Melchior de Vogüé and M. Paul Desjardins by placing this necessary faith outside of dogmas and revealed religions, and basing it on the notion of human solidarity. Men need to be taught, he says, that altruism is a far more intelligent egoism than any merely personal egoism can be. Children should receive an *éducation altruiste pratique:* they should be brought in direct contact with the social injustices, with labor, and with poverty, but they should also be shown and made to understand the benefits which have come to the race through civilization. In this way, he thinks, they may be sheltered from the seductions of revolutionary socialists, and be brought to the conviction that the world, as it is, is going on very well, developing itself and gradually growing better.

M. Albert Soubies has already deserved well of all students of the stage, and he has now again won their gratitude by an account of 'La Comédie-Française depuis l'époque romantique, 1825-1894' (Paris: Fischbacker; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer). The book itself is interesting, and in it can be traced the whole movement of the drama in France during the greater part of this century—a period second in brilliancy only to the age of Louis XIV. Even more important are the appended tables in which we have lists of all the plays acted at the Théâtre-Français in the past seventy years, with the number of performances of each, year by year. We have thus exhibited the relative popularity of Corneille, Molière, and Racine as the Romanticist movement rose to its height and then fell away, and as the Realistic movement in turn followed it. M. Soubies counts carefully for us the number of times Corneille has been acted by the Comédie-Française in these seventy years: it is 1,090, while the plays of Racine have furnished 1,623 performances. As is fit and proper, the Molière total is more than twice the combined totals of Corneille and Racine: it is 6,689.

Dr. Coues's remark, in his recent letter regarding Sergeant Floyd, that "his grave has been washed into the river," is likely to mislead. The exact truth is shown in the following words in a private letter by Mitchell Vincent, written last April: "My duties as a civil engineer in 1867-'8 upon the Sioux City and Pacific Railroad took me within forty feet of the grave of Charles Floyd. In 1857 his bones had been removed about two hundred feet back on the bluff, a small portion of the bones having dropped into the river before removal. The grave [pit] at that time was about two feet long and a foot wide, depressed about six inches below the surface of the ground. I intended to have the grave filled and put in better shape, but my work taking me away before the frost was out of the ground prevented my good resolutions bearing fruit. I did not see the spot again till last year, when all traces had been obliterated by the trampling of horses and cattle."

The success of Durham University's petition to the Crown for permission to confer degrees

on women students has apparently stirred anew the zeal of other friends of the higher education of women. At a recent large and representative meeting of the Oxford Association for the Education of Women, it was resolved by a majority of more than 4 to 1 (115 to 26), "that it is desirable that women students who have complied with the statutable conditions as regards residence and examinations should be admitted to the B.A. degree. . . ." As it has, we believe, always been contended by both Oxford and Cambridge that an act of Parliament is indispensable for their conferment of degrees on women, the Association further resolved to memorialize the University at once in favor of such action, and to circulate a petition for signatures among graduates of the University. The Oxford Association having hitherto been divided in regard to the policy of active agitation of the question of degrees for women, this fresh departure shows an unexpected growth of opinion.

In this connection it may be noted that the Association of Irish Schoolmistresses, which appealed some time ago to the Board of Trinity College, Dublin, for the admission of women to lectures and degree examinations, has been duly notified that Trinity College has no power, under its present constitution, to recognize women students; furthermore, the august board warns the Association that it would "oppose any act of Parliament conferring such power *unless* the measure affected Oxford and Cambridge." The claim of Trinity that her statutes are based on those of the ancient English universities, which still serve her for models, has naturally called forth a last word from the Irish petitioners, who suggest that the board has ample warrant for at least admitting women to college lectures and examinations.

An English correspondent writes that Charlecote is to be opened to visitors this summer, "quite free, or, at all events, almost." The Lucy family have hitherto been chary of admitting visitors to their home, so that this long-coveted permission will be welcome news to those Americans whose wanderings this year include a tour through Shakspere's country.

—The movement initiated at the Congress of Philologists and Archæologists in Philadelphia last winter for the establishment of an American School in Rome, similar in its main purposes to the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, has met with gratifying success. A large managing committee was organized, under the direction of Professors Hale, Warren, and Frothingham, and an appeal for financial support brought out prompt and generous subscriptions, so that the committee at its first meeting, held in this city in May, was enabled to make arrangements for opening the school in the autumn of the present year. Professor William G. Hale, of the University of Chicago, will go out as Director, and Professor A. L. Frothingham, jr., of Princeton University, as Associate Director for the academic year 1895-96. The object of the school, as set forth in its regulations, is "to promote the study of such subjects as Latin literature, as bearing on customs and institutions; inscriptions in Latin and in the Italic dialects; Latin palæography; the topography and antiquities of Rome itself; the archæology of ancient Italy (Italic, Etruscan, Roman) and of the early Christian, Mediæval, and Renaissance periods. It will furnish regular instruction and guidance in several or all of these fields, will encourage original research or exploration, and will coöperate with the Archæological Institute of America, with which it is affiliated." The school will probably occupy rooms adjoining those of the recently established American School of Architecture, in the Casino dell' Aurora of the Villa Ludovisi on the Pincian Hill. The successful establishment of a School at Rome will be gladly welcomed by all who are familiar with the admirable work which has been done in the past twelve years by the Athens School, and the stimulating influence it has exerted on Greek scholarship in this country. The two schools will coöperate with each other, and it is provided that a student in either school may study for a part of the year in the other. The Archæological Institute has granted to each School, for the year 1895-96, a fellowship of $600, and each School has established from its own resources a second fellowship of the same value. The school in Rome offers, further, a fellowship of $500, contributed by friends of the school, for the study of Christian archæology. These fellowships are open to Bachelors of Arts of universities and colleges in the United States and to other American students of similar attainments. Students may join the School for either a whole or a part of the scholastic year. No charge is made for tuition. Applicants should address, for the Greek School, Prof. John Williams White, Cambridge, Mass.; for the Roman School, Prof. A. L. Frothingham, jr., Princeton, N. J.

—The Harvard Law School recently paid a tribute to Prof. Langdell, who has just completed his twenty-fifth year as Dean of the School, by publishing a memorial number of the *Harvard Law Review* in his honor. It now announces that, in behalf of the graduate members of the school, it will celebrate Prof. Langdell's anniversary in Cambridge on the 25th inst. The occasion promises to be a notable one for both the character and number of the guests who are expected to be present, among whom are Chief Justice Fuller, '55, and Mr. Justice Brown, '59, of the Supreme Court of the United States; Secretary Olney, '58; Mr. Justice Holmes, '61, of the Massachusetts Supreme Court; and Joseph H. Choate, Esq., '54. The Association has been fortunate enough—such is the potency of Prof. Langdell's reputation—to induce Sir Frederick Pollock, who is probably the most agreeable, as well as one of the most learned, writers on the law now living, to come from England to deliver the memorial oration at Sanders Theatre. His address is to be at twelve o'clock, and at its close there will be a banquet in Memorial Hall, at which President Eliot, Prof. Langdell, and the invited guests are expected to speak. Tickets to the banquet, $2.50 each, may be procured, by members of the Law School Association only, of P. S. Abbot, 220 Devonshire Street, Boston, Mass., or in Cambridge, at Austin Hall, on the day of the meeting.

—Mr. Paul Leicester Ford has reprinted the enriched 'Notes on Virginia' from the third volume of his competent edition of the Writings of Jefferson. Even the fortunate owner of a copy may regret that only a hundred have been made up; and on another side he could wish that the index had been more elaborate, as a commercial edition might have justified. After the bibliography proper, Mr. Ford makes allusion to the controversy to which the 'Notes' gave rise, and the handle they furnished to the writer's political adversaries; and cites one tract wholly directed against the 'Notes' for their irreligious tendency. We think he might have done the same by Walker's 'Appeal,' which was at least half inspired by Jefferson's disparaging view of the capacity of the blacks, and which had the distinction of being submitted to the House of Delegates by the Governor of Virginia as an incendiary document in 1830. On p. 181 Mr. Ford refers in a foot-note to the Abbé Grégoire's incidental refutation of Jefferson on the same point, and on p. 179, apropos of the sweeping imputation of mathematical (or geometric) incapacity, it would have been in order to refer to Jefferson's well-known letter to the colored astronomer, Benjamin Banneker, from whom he received an almanac in answer to this passage in the 'Notes.' The terrific indictment of slavery which, more than any other consideration, made the prudent Jefferson hesitate about publishing the 'Notes,' did good service after his death as ammunition for the abolitionists; and it is curious enough that a work so freighted should have been, in Mr. Ford's words, "perhaps the most frequently reprinted book ever written in the United States south of Mason & Dixon's line." Only two editions, however, were issued south of that line, and both at Baltimore, by one publisher, and in 1800.

—Nothing is more curious in his whole treatment of the subject of slavery than the way in which Jefferson passes, from a humane caveat against a general conclusion derogatory to the natural capacity of the blacks, to a complete adoption of such a judgment, in the same paragraph. He reproaches his countrymen with never having viewed the red race (which he has already pronounced equal in capacity to the white) and the blacks "as subjects of natural history"; then advances it, "as a suspicion only," that the blacks, who were either created or have become distinct from the whites, are inferior to the latter "in the endowments both of body and mind"; then, as a lover of natural history, viewing "the gradations of all the races of animals with the eye of philosophy," thinks himself excusable for wishing "to keep those in the department of man as nature has formed them"; then, while wishing to "vindicate the liberty of human nature" by emancipating the blacks, is "anxious also to preserve its dignity and beauty." What hinders? Why, the perverse refusal of the whites to view them as subjects of natural history even in a state of freedom. Hence, when freed, the slave "is to be removed beyond the reach of mixture," lest he "stain the blood" of his late masters. Yet while the reprinting of the 'Notes' was most active, at the beginning of this century, Jefferson's opponents in his own State were openly charging him with keeping a negro mistress and having a mixed posterity, and Mrs. Trollope caught up the tale thirty years afterwards and gave it to the world, with a rhetorical change, as too notorious to hazard contradiction. "Povera e nuda vai, filosofia!"

—An entertaining book has recently been published in Berlin, by Frau Anna Seuron, who was for many years governess in the family of Count L. N. Tolstoy. The intimate knowledge which she acquired of the celebrated author's character, and of his relations to his wife, family, and the peasants, she has expressed with a frankness that will startle those who feel unqualified admiration for Count Tolstoy as a reformer and apostle of the lowly. Frau Seuron remains one of his devoted admirers, though the views which she announces, and the deductions which the reader cannot fail to draw from her anecdotes, would appear

logically not to permit of that attitude. She has shown the Count in a light which other writers have not had the opportunity of seeing, or about which they have thought it best merely to hint. This in no way discredits her assertions, which bear strong internal evidence of their truth. Frau Seuron declares that Count Tolstoy is not a harmonious, simple character, that he is not a genius, a true vein of precious metal in the rock, but a patchwork, a bit of mosaic, whose cracks and faults have been so well daubed over that they appear, to many people, to form a smooth, united surface. He is no anchorite, convinced of the nothingness of the world, who has conquered himself and has turned his back on it in disdain, but a man who has carried his vanity over into the "new life" which he has fashioned after his own pattern. When he finds that his sins and his principles cannot be reconciled by any amount of discussion, he turns a somersault from his point of view, withdraws to his study, and begins, with all the more zeal, to set down in writing his laudations of the elementary principles of life which he has just outraged. After firmly refusing, for more than a year, to touch meat, he allowed his family to persuade him to eat poultry, though he maintained that he intended to adhere to his rules. But the attentive observer would hear the clatter of knife and fork in the dining-room during the night, and the next morning the cold roast beef which had been left on the table would be found half devoured. Tolstoy never confessed to his sin of weak indulgence, but Frau Seuron declares that she is sure of her facts. He also indulged surreptitiously in a smoke, after preaching against it. She concludes that, while the Count might be a temporary fanatic for abnegation, he was not built for a saint.

—As a proof of this she alleges his treatment of his own peasants, and of the poor and of beggars in general. His pockets were usually very tightly buttoned, even when a few kopeks would have relieved the distress. She accuses him of being indifferent, and says that momentary, strongly overpowering impulses of miserliness often made him hard-hearted. On such occasions he justified himself in his own eyes by his theories as to the evil of money and the blessings of poverty. For example, when the peasants of his village, Yasnaya Polyana, had but three spades among them, and lacked all the implements wherewith to cultivate the land, he refused to help them to buy the necessary tools. He said that "precisely this lack of implements made them lend to each other, and that was an act of helpful brotherly love." "When the Count, who was constantly talking and writing about brotherly love, talked with a begging peasant, the despot of the sixteenth century awoke in him. It was as if abysses lay between them. An evil look came into the Count's eyes, and the petitioner went away shaking his head." When the Countess Tolstoy, anxious for her own future and that of her children, wished to exploit his works, the Count vehemently protested against money, in his usual strain. But when the Countess persisted, and carried on affairs too openly, under his very nose, he "cut a somersault," went out, and chopped wood. He worked in earnest at such tasks as carting and distributing manure. He did not change his dress for dinner, and brought the odors in with him; as he has a strong taste for perfumes, and did not stint himself in the use of them, the combination of smells sometimes required strong nerves on the part of those present. Frau Seuron takes a very practical view of his arduous labors; they replace, she says, the riding and hunting which he has forsworn. His healthy, muscular frame requires a great deal of exercise, and he takes it in this form because it suits his health; and that is all there is to the fad of hard labor for the salvation of the soul.

—Mantchuria is a much more valuable possession than it is generally regarded, judging from the description of it in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for May, by the Rev. John Ross, D.D., for twenty-two years a resident in the country. In treating of the physical characteristics he remarks on the curious fact of the infrequency of earthquakes. Although in Japan, but a short distance away, they are of almost daily occurrence, he has known of only three slight shocks. The soil of the vast plain is composed of the rich loess, formed and continually renewed by the disintegration of the underlying rock. Its remarkable fertility is shown by the fact that the "tall" millet produces eight hundred fold, and the "small" millet is reputed to produce eight thousand fold. Wheat and barley come to maturity so rapidly that a second crop of some other kind can be sown on the ground and reaped in the same season. Gold is found in many places, but the present dynasty has steadily refused to permit mining, for two reasons—a superstitious fear of altering the configuration of the earth, and the lawlessness of the miners. Accordingly, even the search for gold, silver, or copper is penal throughout the province. There is one gold-mine near Kirin where "the miners have for generations made a little kingdom of their own and defied the Government." In many places, also, good coal crops out of the ground, but the people dare not touch it, though the extracting iron ore is barely tolerated in certain localities. The population, especially of the southern part, has increased very rapidly within the past twenty years, and Dr. Ross estimates it at 25,000,000. This is a far higher figure than most authorities give. The 'Statesman's Year-Book,' for instance, says 7,500,000. "On the great plain" villages and hamlets, each with its little grove of willow-trees, are so numerous and planted so thickly that you have scarcely left one behind before you enter another. In a radius of three and a half miles Dr. Ross found, by actual count, seventy-five villages, "the largest with 10,000 people, the smaller with a few hundreds." The inhabitants, who are nearly all agriculturists, are very largely immigrants from the neighboring Chinese provinces. Their condition is more comfortable than that of any other Asiatic people. They live "to a great extent, on their own small properties. The taxation is probably the lightest in the world. Food, fuel, and clothing, though coarse, are abundant." The northern part of the country nearest to the Russian boundary is still very sparsely settled. It has the rich soil, however, which characterizes the rest of the Mantchurian plain, and it will apparently not be long before it is filled with an industrious population. The principal industry of Mukden, a city of 300,000 inhabitants, is tanning. An excellent map accompanies this unusually interesting and suggestive paper, which closes with a brief sketch of the history of Mantchuria.

—Mr. G. W. Smalley signalizes his change of status from American correspondent in England to English correspondent in America by reprinting another collection of letters written to the *Tribune*, together with an account of his interview with Bismarck, first published in the *Fortnightly Review*. He names the volume 'Studies of Men' (Harpers). It consists of sketches and appreciations of twenty-five prominent contemporaries, mostly English, concerning whom not much information is easily accessible to the mass of readers, and it is therefore likely to enjoy a wide popularity, especially as it is written in an easy, flowing style, and abounds in gossip and anecdote. Particularly interesting are the articles on Lord Bowen, Tyndall, Jowett, and Froude. But although the book has many elements of popular success, and is above the level of even the better class of newspaper work, it will hardly gain recognition as a genuine contribution to literature. It has the distinctly pronounced ephemeral character that marks even the most finished productions of journalism, and it is not free from the minor blemishes which Thackeray satirized in his pictures of "Our Own Correspondent." Mr. Smalley delights to let his readers know on what terms of intimacy he is with the great ones of the earth, and abounds in such phrases as "One of the foremost men in English public life told me," etc., or, "I used sometimes to say to Tyndall"; at other times he patronizes them with the most charming condescension, as when he says: "There are points in which one would have liked Tennyson to be other than he was; so are there in all men." He is oracular and omniscient, but occasionally confesses his inability to resolve a knotty question, as when he candidly remarks: "But is it absolutely certain that the Emperor William Second is a Napoleon? Is he even a Frederick? He may be both; but how is one to know?" As a general thing, however, he has the courage of his opinions, as when he decides that "Froude was something more than the most accomplished prose-writer of his time." On points of etiquette he is great.

McMASTER'S HISTORY.—I.

A History of the People of the United States, from the Revolution to the Civil War. By John Bach McMaster. Vol. IV. D. Appleton & Co. 1895. Pp. xiv, 630. Maps.

THE fourth volume of this well-known work begins with the repeal of the British Orders in Council—a tardy measure in the hope of preventing war—and ends with the admission of Missouri into the Union in 1821. The war of 1812, problems of the Southern territory and national boundaries, the development of the Western country, and the efforts of Congress to control or direct the expanding energies of the people, offer Mr. McMaster a wide field for the exercise of his characteristic research and powers of description. In smoothly flowing periods he recounts the events of war and politics, almost quieting criticism by his ability to collect and arrange facts, and lulling the reader into over-confidence by his relation of incident and his judgments of social movements. It is impossible to agree with him in all matters, and his work suffers when compared with that of Mr. Henry Adams, whose 'History' covers a part of the same period. There is a lack of connection in Mr. McMaster's work which leaves the impression of his having failed to grasp the full relation of the national events he describes.

The war of 1812 offers few points of interest, as it is a record of official incompetency and individual error, which blundered into rather than won a peace. Very few of those in power

knew exactly why hostilities were declared, and certainly Madison was ignorant of the cause, or, what was worse, interested in maintaining a fiction of his own creating. Entering into an offensive war, without preparation other than an excess of proclamation, it required a long series of disasters to teach the prudence and the necessity of securing peace. If Madison was in error, his agents were incompetent. As at the beginning of the Revolution, a number of men who had seen service in a former war were appointed to command the motley collection of troops constituting the army; and, as in the Revolution, experience proved how injudicious, almost fatal, such a standard for selection was. Too old to be energetic, and too jealous and independent to act in concert on a definite plan of campaign, these superannuated leaders blundered, surrendered, or fled, and set an example their followers were only too willing to imitate. The memory of the severe lessons taught by the Revolution had passed away. Militia, enlisted for a short term, was believed to constitute an army, and the strongest element in this fluctuating body was the lawless and unrestrainable volunteers from Kentucky and Tennessee, where the war spirit burned most fiercely. What could be expected of a force engaged to serve till "after a battle"? What could be looked for from a commander whose sole recommendation had been a slight service nearly forty years before, and some political activity in the interval? The confidence with which the war was undertaken contrasts painfully with the results attained at great cost; but the experience was wholesome both in internal matters and in external relations.

Mr. McMaster could not pass by the stupid and often cowardly conduct of individual incursions, for it would be absurd to speak of campaigns where the intentions of each general seemed rather to neutralize the efforts of his fellow-general than to utilize their aid. It is a dreary record of error. Hull, Van Rensselaer, Smyth, Dearborn, and Wilkinson, not one of whom can command sympathy, pass by in the melodrama, and leave Harrison and Jackson to win political preferment on the strength of some very dubious military achievements. The inefficiency of the land force was offset by the brilliant record of the naval force on the lakes and the ocean. Too much praise is given to Perry's victory on Lake Erie, for he was nearly defeated by the conduct of Elliot, his second in command; and much more could have been said of the failure of the military features of the war. The hearts of the people were not in the contest, and New England was in almost open opposition. As an opportunity to work off the ferment of agitation in the new States of the West, the war is interesting, for there is no telling what form of internal dissension might otherwise have been provoked. The spirited efforts after the sacking of Washington to construct fortifications on the coast contrasted strongly with the general apathy of the people in organizing active resistance. It was a pretty enthusiasm that led all trades and occupations to go to the trenches, or sail up the Hudson to work at the new earthworks in picnic form; but it never passed beyond the stage of prettiness. An English army, by no means formidable, could march without meeting any resistance into the heart of a country supporting a million and a half whites, plunder and destroy at will, burn the Capitol, remain nearly five weeks on shore, and retire at leisure without encountering so much as a check. National impotency could hardly be more clearly demonstrated. The war proved the possession of true naval power; it also proved as true an incapacity to conduct operations on land, and it made many political reputations which the country might better have been spared.

If ever a wholesome lesson was dearly learned, it was this realization that a policy of foreign connection and entanglement was destructive of internal peace and development. For a quarter of a century the partisans of France in the United States were set against the favorers of Great Britain, and the war of 1812 only marked the extreme use of a victory of one faction over the other. The cost through embargoes and depredations on commerce was enormous and unmeasured. It led the country to the verge of a division into two separate nations, for sectional feeling was intensified. The war policy failed dismally at the North; and in the South it fostered a spirit of conquest and unwarranted aggression, with all the vulgar glitter and accompaniments of cruelty and greed to tarnish the repute of victory. It is easy to admire Decatur forcing the Barbary States to recognize rules of justice; but it is impossible to applaud Harrison and Jackson in their severe punishment of Indians —guilty of murder, it is true, but guilty under the strongest provocation and sense of injustice.

Civil matters were also passing through a crisis. Government was bankrupt; Gallatin, the ablest manager of its finances, and the least of a shifty and speculative "financier," had laid down his office, and left it to his successors to restore solvency by means doubly questionable in their neglect of public faith. Political parties reflected the chaotic condition of national affairs. The "Gerrymander" in Massachusetts and New Jersey, and the rise of unscrupulous managers of party, supported in influence mainly by office, and seeking to bend State and Federal Government to their own purposes, led to intrigues which were responsible for the incapacity to provide the means to meet emergencies, such as defence of territory, or to take action upon questions of public policy. The Republicanism of 1816 differed little from the Federalism of 1798; and this reversal of party is so concisely told by Mr. McMaster as to give little impression of the magnitude of the change. The measures which had defeated John Adams and the Federalists now became the mainstay of the Republican party, but with a difference: the popular influences which had been dreaded by Jefferson and his followers became more active than ever, and added one more element of danger to the welfare of the people.

In any history of the people of the United States their experiments in banking and tariff legislation would naturally play a leading part. Mr. McMaster devotes three chapters to these subjects, and they will repay a careful study. The refusal to renew the charter of the National Bank, which expired in 1811, created an opening for State banks, incorporated under laws so lax as to give no check to fraud or over-issues of notes. The desire to obtain charters for these too irresponsible institutions led to offers of certain financial advantages to the State, and could hardly have ended with that legitimate return for a valuable franchise. The men who passed the acts of incorporation were human and open to "influences"; and it is impossible to believe that legislators were not corrupted. No State escaped the infection of "wild-cat" banking; but it was in the West and South that the greatest abuses existed. The war only increased the dangers by giving an excuse for suspension of specie payments by the banks throughout the country, and by encouraging the expansion of issues and the circulation of paper down even to the copper money of the day. Mr. McMaster tells us much of the practices of banks and other companies, of the issues of individuals and counterfeiters, of the bold trickery and barefaced dishonesty of those who were bent upon gulling the community with their "rag money"; but so much is not said of the effect on prices, of the widespread ruin caused by the uncertainties of all values, of the lowering of public as well as private morality by the temptations to defraud, and of the spirit of gambling and general speculation introduced into every line of trade and industry. It is not too much to say that the action of members of Congress in voting increased compensation for themselves was due to this element of corruption. The vast movement of population from the older States to the westward was greatly stimulated by the disturbances introduced through financial disorder and interruption of trade. The sharper was fostered and encouraged at the expense of the honest, and even the sense of honor was sapped, for the banks refused to resume of their own accord, and had to be compelled to that act of common honesty. While the bubble of paper money existed, there was apparently great prosperity and boldness in undertaking new schemes. It was only when the day of reckoning came that the hollowness was realized.

FAST AND THANKSGIVING IN NEW ENGLAND.

The Fast and Thanksgiving Days of New England. By W. DeLoss Love, Jr., Ph.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895. Pp. vii, 607.

THIS handsome volume from the Riverside Press deserves the hearty recognition of students of New England history. With a breadth of treatment scarcely indicated by its title, the writer has examined the Puritan attitude towards days of religious observance, and has traced the development of American fasts and thanksgivings with much picturesqueness of detail and great antiquarian learning, setting forth the relation of these appointments to the more significant vicissitudes of colonial and national life, the firm persuasion of immediate dependence on divine providence from which they sprang, and the political animosities which occasionally appeared in their designation.

Dr. Love shows that the number of holidays established in England before the Reformation led to their lax observance by the people, while customs tolerated at the greater ecclesiastical festivals robbed them of much of their spiritual significance. The Tudor sovereigns limited the number of these days, and diminished the strenuousness of statutory requirement as to the observance of such as remained; but neither governmental nor popular thought made much distinction in sacredness between Sunday and other holidays, and all such seasons were alike marked by boisterous sports and general laxity. It was to rescue Sunday from what they deemed misuse that the early Puritans rejected the observance of other sacred times. Yet, though the Puritans always set their faces against saints' days, at the beginning of Elizabeth's reign the leaders of the party, especially those who had come under the influence of the Swiss reformer, Bullinger, would gladly have commemorated the principal events in the life of Christ, and a proposition to limit English

churchly holidays to these "feasts of Christ" failed of approval in the Convocation of 1562 by only a single vote. The Anglican insistence on much of the ancient calendar, and the radical influence of the Genevan school, soon led the Puritans and Separatists to reject all regularly recurrent days except Sunday. This was the attitude of the founders of New England.

Yet, though opposing recurrent seasons of religious observance believed by them to be of human appointment, no men of their age were more ready to find the hand of God in the adverse or propitious circumstances of their private and corporate life, and none insisted so strenuously—though all religious parties did so to some extent—that special successes or hindrances demanded particular recognition. Hence the founders of New England brought with them the occasional, non-recurrent thanksgiving and fast; and they looked upon these days as primarily of churchly appointment, though intimacy of connection between church and state speedily led to the designation of such seasons by civil authority. This governmental designation ultimately brought about the transformation, save in rare instances, of the occasional thanksgivings and fasts for special causes, into annually recurring days of civil appointment such as the earliest Puritans would have rejected.

Dr. Love thus points out that the annual fast and thanksgiving, having primary reference to the harvest and to general blessings, so characteristic of New England life, involve an essential modification of the original New England conception. This departure was made early in colonial life. The famous harvest feast of 1621 had no religious character, and was not a thanksgiving in the sense in which early New England understood such a day, however unconsciously it may have foreshadowed the practice of this century; but the annual thanksgiving had become the usage of the Plymouth church by 1636. As a regularly recurrent after-harvest day of governmental designation, however, the thanksgiving first appears to have established itself in Connecticut, and about 1649. In Massachusetts the annual appointment was a decade later in obtaining similar fixity. The yearly spring fast of civil designation likewise first took root in Connecticut—in Dr. Love's opinion not far from 1659—but was resisted in Massachusetts till about 1694. Regarding it Dr. Love declares: "It is altogether certain that it is a day which, even at its best estate, the colonial fathers, in their intelligence and piety as Puritans, would not have tolerated."

The author's summary of the history of these seasons is worth quoting at length:

"It may be said, in a general view, that the fast and thanksgiving days of Massachusetts have passed through three periods to their present development. The observance which the forefathers brought from old England was religious, having its motive in the doctrine of Divine Providence, and this was maintained with vigor down to the establishment of the provincial government. With the adoption of the system of annual appointments, particularly as to the fast days, came in an observance having its affiliations with the season of the year the events of which it chronicled, and this was characteristic through the Revolution. After the organization of the federal government, the observance—though retaining the semblance of the first period and operating through the system of the second—was infused with the political spirit, which has been, on the whole, dominant in it to the present time. The fast day especially may be characterized as successively religious, historical, and political."

Dr. Love shows incidentally that the colony of New Netherland had its occasional fasts and thanksgivings of civil appointment, in addition to a considerable observance of the churchly holidays, conforming in this respect to the practice of the Dutch home land; but that no annual thanksgivings existed under the rule of the Dutch or of their English successors. Similar occasional days, due to English example, were observed in the colonies to the southward, though the custom nowhere developed into the spring and autumn holidays characteristic of New England. This widespread recognition of the propriety of special fasts and thanksgivings led the Continental Congress to recommend days of both descriptions as the exigencies of the Revolutionary struggle seemed to suggest. The same usage was continued by Washington and Congress after the establishment of the Federal Government, a national thanksgiving being held in 1789; and another, by recommendation of Washington, without Congressional action, in 1795. Between the latter date and 1815, when Congress and Madison recommended a thanksgiving for the end of the war with Great Britain, five national fasts were designated. Again in 1841, on account of the death of President Harrison, and in 1849, by reason of the cholera, special national fasts were proclaimed. The civil war was prolific on both sides with fasts and thanksgivings for special occasions. And, as recently as 1876, by appointment of President Grant, the centennial anniversary of the Declaration of Independence was designated a special thanksgiving for the blessings of the first century of national existence.

Since the beginning of the present century the later form of the New England thanksgiving—the annual autumn festival—has won its way rapidly outside the region of its origin. Such a day has been appointed in New York since 1817, and other commonwealths so embraced the observance that by 1858 all but six of the States had adopted it. It was therefore a natural development that led President Lincoln to nationalize the custom by appointing a thanksgiving of this character in 1863. Dr. Love draws the conclusion that "the present national custom may be said to be the appointment of an annual harvest thanksgiving, and such special fast or thanksgiving days as the circumstances of sorrow or joy may seem to warrant."

If the yearly thanksgiving of New England has thus grown into national acceptance, it has been otherwise with the annual fast. Begun as a religious observance, it has had an unlike fate in the two States where it earliest appeared. In Connecticut the desire that Episcopalians should not be annoyed by the appointment of a fast in the week succeeding Easter led Gov. Huntington, himself a Congregationalist, to set the day on Good Friday in 1795—a custom that has continued unbroken from 1797 to the present. This alteration of time has gradually modified the spring fast in Connecticut, so that it is now largely observed by the churches as a memorial of Christ's passion. In Massachusetts, on the other hand, its religious significance well-nigh disappeared, until the efforts of Govs. Russell and Greenhalge, with those of religious and historical societies, resulted in its abolition in 1894, and the substitution of the Nineteenth of April as a spring holiday without claim to religious observance. Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont still follow the ancient custom; but, in Dr. Love's opinion, their "future action would seem to be reduced to a choice between the example of Connecticut or Massachusetts."

In reviewing the main argument of Dr. Love's volume, we have passed by much of interesting detail which his studies present—an example of which is his account of the attempt of those in authority under the Andros Government to force upon unwilling New England a day of humiliation on the anniversary of the beheading of Charles I. Such an episode throws a flash of light upon one of the causes of the unpopularity of that régime. But we cannot omit to mention the calendar of more than seventeen hundred fasts and thanksgivings observed between 1620 and 1815, or the careful bibliography of six hundred and twenty-two sermons delivered on such occasions before 1816. What labor such a catalogue of days involves is best understood when it is remembered that they are only scantily noted in early legislative journals, so that, as Dr. Love declares, there are "more outside of the Colonial Records than in them." Of the six earliest Massachusetts proclamations known to Dr. Love to survive in their original printed form, only one is mentioned in the records of the Colonial Government. These early broadsides afford the author the theme for an interesting chapter, and photogravure reproductions of the three most venerable survivors of the broadside proclamations of Massachusetts and Connecticut fittingly embellish this serious and well-nigh exhaustive study of one of the most characteristic of New England customs.

Life and Times of Major-General Sir Isaac Brock, K.B. By D. B. Read, Q.C., author of 'Life and Times of Governor Simcoe,' etc. Toronto: William Briggs. 1894. Illustrated. Pp. viii, 266.

Canadians, or some of them, have worked themselves into the belief that they are living "under the gigantic shadow of a rapacious neighbor," and that plots are always on foot for their annexation. This, they fancied, was the object of the McKinley Act. The suspicion, it is needless to say, was baseless. In the McKinley debates slight reference was made to the Canadian question, nor had the framers any object but protection. Canada, however, was severely pinched by exclusion from the American market, and the consequence was that a wave of the sentiment which its enemies call Annexationist and its friends Unionist passed over the border counties and swept more widely the Province of Quebec. The movement, if anything wholly devoid of organization can be so called, was the result of commercial pressure, but could not have been produced by that alone without general affinities and attractions. Commercial pressure would not produce a movement in Denmark for union with Germany, or in Holland for union with France. On the other hand, partly as a reaction against the annexationist movement, partly in response to the appeals of Imperial Federationists, there has been a lively manifestation of loyal and imperial sentiment. Stirring appeals have been addressed by the Tory Government of Canada, in elections, to anti-American feeling, and strenuous efforts have been made by celebrations of military anniversaries, the erection of monuments on battle-fields, and martial parades of the school-children, to revive the memories of 1812 and all memories adverse to closer relations with the American republic. The Life of Sir Isaac Brock, the Canadian (or, rather, British) hero of 1812, which lies before us, seems, in spite of Mr. Read's humane and polite disclaimers, to be instinct with the spirit of the hour, and to satisfy the requirements of Canadian patriots better than those of a student of history.

However strongly convinced Americans may be of the righteousness of the War of 1812 as a revolt against British Orders in Council and impressment, there are few of us who will not acknowledge that, as an attempt to conquer Canada, which was its most attractive aspect in the eye of Clay and the War-Hawks, it was not only a military failure, but a political mistake, and retarded instead of hastening the step of manifest destiny. Canada was unhappily founded in enmity to the United States. Had the wise and noble counsels of Greene and Hamilton prevailed, and amnesty been extended to the vanquished in the Revolutionary war, Great Britain would probably have withdrawn from this continent, as her best advisers desired she should, and Canada would have been in the Union. However, before 1812 the enmity had abated. Americans had been settling on the northern side of the line; commercial interests and social affinities had been drawing Canada towards her own continent; and the attraction, had it been left to work, would have gained strength with time, and might have brought about a peaceful union. Canadians had little interest in the quarrel about Orders in Council and impressment. How unwilling they were to go to war with their kinsmen on the south of the line appears from the despatches of Prevost and Brock cited by Mr. Henry Adams in his History (vol. vi., pp. 318, 319). Those despatches complain of "the little dependence to be placed upon the militia or upon the active exertions of any considerable proportion of the population of the country"; of "a lukewarm and temporizing spirit, evidently dictated either by the apprehension or the wish that the enemy may soon be in possession of the country"; of the refusal of the militia to march, and of "a disposition to tame submission" not confined to the militia. But invasion roused the spirit of a brave and hardy population. The Canadians fought gallantly by the side of the British troops, and, by the bloody and protracted struggle which ensued, not only was the growing tendency to reunion wrecked, but in its place a hatred was implanted which three generations have hardly sufficed to uproot.

The military history of the war is intelligible enough. Raw American troops under inexperienced commanders attempted to act on the offensive against British veterans commanded by one of the best officers in the British service, and this in a country which was then thickly wooded and presented special difficulties to the invader. The natural result was a series of disasters during the early period of the war. Before its close the Americans learnt their lesson, and the balance of victory began to turn. At Chippewa a battalion of British regulars was overthrown. Lundy's Lane, the last engagement of the war, was also the bloodiest—a bloodier action, in fact, in proportion to the numbers engaged, has scarcely been fought in any war; and though the Americans retreated and their operation failed, the same stubborn valor was shown upon both sides. At Queenston Heights, the scene of Brock's victory and of his heroic death, neither the American General Van Rensselaer nor the regular force under his command appears in any way to have failed. They had almost grasped the victory. But the raw militia refused to pass the river in their support, overcome (it seems) by the sight of the wounded, who had been brought across to them as the engagement went on. The operation of physical law is hardly more certain than the ascendancy of discipline in war.

Mr. Read's materials are scanty, and, saving some details of the capture of Detroit and the battle of Queenston Heights, there is nothing new to interest us in his work. He has little to tell us of his hero. It is certain, however, that Brock was a great soldier and a very noble man. His courage was shown when he was a subaltern, in an encounter with a noted duellist, the bully of the regiment, whom he quelled by challenging him to fight across a handkerchief. But he seems to have had also the highest qualities of the commander, and to have wanted, in order to attain a splendid name, only an ampler field. He is fortunate in having had erected to his memory about the finest monument on this continent, and upon a site worthy of its beauty. But Mr. Read's description of this monument passes our comprehension. He calls it an "obelisk," and says that its style is "the simplest and purest Egyptian," and that "the proportions of the obelisk known as Cleopatra's Needle have been strictly adhered to." The monument is no obelisk, but a fluted column, with a Corinthian capital surmounted by the statue of Brock. It has nothing Egyptian about it, and, be the proportions what they may, is no more like Cleopatra's Needle than it is like the pyramid of Cheops. The grass has long grown over the graves in the battle-field which that monument overlooks; and perhaps its pediment may some day bear an inscription in which a tribute of honor to the brave men who fell on both sides will be blended with words of international reconciliation.

A Handbook of Systematic Botany. By Dr. E. Warming, Professor in the University at Copenhagen. Translated and edited by M. C. Potter, M.A., F.L.S. Macmillan & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. 620.

Classification in natural history endeavors at the present day to exhibit kinships. This endeavor is justified by the modern and generally accepted view taken of species. Species, the units in all classification of living things and of things that have lived, are now believed to have been derived from preëxistent species in much the same fashion in which younger and smaller branches spring from older ones. Since the revolution in thought by which this belief became incorporated into all our science primers, it is difficult to understand how naturalists could have ever held any other view. And yet it was scarcely forty years ago that the revolution fairly began. Up to that time, naturalists, with very few exceptions, spoke of species as "fixed," and as varying only within narrow limits. The absurdity of describing unvarying species as related appears to have struck many students of animals and plants, and to have forced from them, from time to time, apologetic and explanatory utterances. To make this absurdity apparent at the present day, let us suppose ourselves in a toy-shop well filled with the different types of playthings. The Noah's arks would constitute one species, the yachts another, and the steamers still a third, all coming, perhaps, under the general head or genus of boats. These different crafts would be related to one another solely by the end or purpose of construction, and this would, of course, in the last analysis, go back to the idea in the mind of the artisan who conceived and made them. Classification of the boats would deal either with shape as expressive of fitness, or with the idea behind both shape and fitness. The classification could not represent anything like kinship, for kinship involves the conception of common descent.

Unvarying species were believed to have come down to us in parallel lines out of the past, and hence all expressions denoting relationship were mere figures of speech. And yet, incredible as it may appear, the so-called relationships indicated by the leading systematic botanists who worked on the hypothesis of the fixity of species turned out to be, in very many cases, perfectly satisfactory to the systematists who adopt the hypothesis of descent or derivation. In the great majority of instances, the systematists holding the first hypothesis had, by keen insight, gone below the superficial characters, and selected as a basis for their classification the deep characters which, in the language of the second hypothesis, are only slowly affected from generation to generation.

Every serious attempt to represent kinship under the modern view is to be treated with consideration. The modern systematist does not usually have within reach any positive historical evidence of descent. He has just about the same material at his command which was at the disposal of his predecessors, so far as the flowering plants are concerned, but he is now in possession of a vast recent accumulation of facts respecting the lower or flowerless plants. If we take the work of Professor Warming as an illustration, we shall see first the comparatively slight changes which have been made in the arrangement of the flowering plants. In general, the system suggested by the late Prof. Eichler is followed to a moderate extent. The plants having their flowers on the plan of five (the Dicotyledons), are divided into two groups —the Choripetalæ, possessing separate petals or no petals at all; and the Sympetalæ, those which have united petals. Under this arrangement, there are some curious juxtapositions. For instance, the Knotweeds, the Peppers, and the Pinks occupy successive pages; Spurges, Rue, Horse-chestnut, and Maple come close together, and so on. But all this flows from a proper disregard of a very obvious superficial character which used to cut through the Natural Orders without exciting much comment, namely, the presence of separate petals or the absence of petals. Wood-Anemone was not thrust out of the Crowfoot family just because it has no petals; it is only one of many cases which have called for a rearrangement of the groups of the families themselves. The Sympetalæ are believed to be later in their origin than the other flowering plants. Of the Sympetalæ, the Compositæ are very naturally placed at the head.

After all, that which will most surprise the reader who has not kept pace with the results of modern study of Botany is the completeness with which the kinship of the lower and the higher plants is now made out. There is hardly a break in the long line of evidence, and even these gaps are being from time to time filled up. The old dividing wall between the flowerless and the flowering plants is broken through, and the terms which are applied to the reproductive organs of the former are now applied also to the latter, whereas it was formerly just the other way. There is no saying how soon we must finally substitute in our primers of botany the word microspore for pollen-grain, and megaspore, or macrospore, for ovule; but, jesting aside, it seems as if the time could not be very far away.

Although there is much in Prof. Warming's work which cannot meet the entire approval of every botanist, it may be heartily recommended to the general reader who wishes to see for himself how far the revolution in the recognition of kinship has gone. The useful

products of plants and the manifold peculiarities of the more curious plants are charmingly dealt with, and, under the careful hand of the translator, who has been a thorough editor as well, the mistakes are few and unimportant. It would be ungracious to call attention to the trivial errors.

Out of the East. By Lafcadio Hearn. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THIS latest contribution in book form to the solution of the problem of Japanese psychology, by Mr. Hearn, comes labelled under a quotation, with the sub-title, "Reveries and Studies in New Japan." The author, a man of remarkable mental inheritance through a mixture of blood and races, has made himself a sort of revolving photographic camera. Even to the ordinary traveller, a new world like that of Japan beyond the seaports strikes upon mind and sense like the emanations from a new sun. But to a student of Mr. Hearn's mental make-up the waves of light are, so to speak, vastly multiplied. Where the ordinary man sees, as it were, impressions through yellow glass, this author keeps his sensitized plates in the violet ray. Yet because of the very fact that his mind employs mostly but one end of the spectrum, he is apt to ignore the gamut of color and fail to see things in true white light. It is manifest, from our point of view at least, that there is a vast element of exaggeration in Mr. Hearn's fascinating description and philosophy.

Concerning his papers, numbering a dozen lacking one, mostly reprinted from the *Atlantic Monthly*, it is difficult to draw the line between those which are "reveries" and those which are "studies." He tells again the old Rip Van Winkle story, which in Japan exists in both the marine and the terrestrial form. The one selected is that of the fisher-boy, who goes beneath the sparkling waves to spend a delightful little eternity where suns do not rise and set, and where time—that element which so disturbs the calculating Westerner—is no more. From the ocean's daughters of fairy-tale the author turns to "The Eternal Feminine," to show how utterly absent from the decent and orderly side of Japanese life romantic love is, and how Confucianism, with the power of its disguised savagery, has made woman only a cog in the great driving-wheel of society. Throughout his writing, the author protests against the conclusions of scholars and the unchallengeable testimony of the language. He would have us believe that although personality is absent from speech and literature, there is a subtler and keener sense of individuality, and a finer strength of personality, in the Japanese than the Anglo-Saxon man or woman knows; yet the author's success is not noticeably visible. With all the wealth of his marvellous vocabulary, his artistic phrase, and the prismatics of fascinating philosophy, he would have us enjoy the dreamy haze of Buddhism in place of a clear perception and belief in one God, personal, real, distinct from his creation, yet in it. Even the very keenness of his sympathies with the Japanese mind helps to show us what a very thin and wavering line divides the real from the unreal, mythology from history, a stone idol from the being which it is supposed to represent. The papers in this volume make it still more easy to understand just how and why it is that Japanese gentlemen, educated in the physical sciences and in the technical processes of modern trades and machines, can still talk and write about the dragon-born Jimmu Tenno as "the first Emperor of Japan, who ascended the throne of Japan twenty-five hundred years ago." It explains clearly how even yet the overwhelming majority of Japanese believe that their Amazonian queen "conquered" Korea over sixteen hundred years ago and "made it tributary to Japan." Indeed, Mr. Hearn's latest book serves an excellent purpose in exhibiting Japanese Jingoism and the determined purpose of the military classes to retard education and keep appropriations for schools down to the lowest point, while millions are squandered on armaments and militarism is systematically nourished.

On the whole, the ablest chapter of the book is that entitled "Jiujutsu." This term, which superficial foreign observers translate "wrestling," is, in reality, the verbal exponent of a remarkable system of self-defence by apparent surrender to the one attacking. The writer, on first seeing a performance of jiujutsu, was, without being able to understand the rationale of the proceeding, impressed with the fact that the most eager and muscular young men did most quickly get the worst of their bout. A thin and rather delicate looking professor of the art very quickly "laid out" a dozen or so stalwart and rosy-cheeked youth, though in each case it seemed at first as though the master was getting mauled to death or at least to helplessness. By profoundly skilful reasoning and great felicity of statement, Mr. Hearn shows that, when awakened Japan found herself in the grip of European giants with muscles which were treaties and hands that were ships and cannon, with every power of offence in consular courts, Western insolence, and race hatred, she deliberately planned a game of jiujutsu on a national scale. She yielded again and again. She confounded all those sanguine folk who expected immediate adoption of Western dress, manners, food, and ideals. She caused woful disappointment to the men who preached, prophesied, and wrote pamphlets on "the immediate Christianization of Japan." Yet, while quietly yielding, Japan studied, thought, digested, assimilated, rejected. Now, in 1895, the whole world recognizes with astonishment and admiration that *Japan has won in her game of jiujutsu.*

Essays on Scandinavian Literature. By Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

THIS is not an attempt at a connected exposition of Scandinavian literature, but a series of studies of some of its separate phases among the nations that once formed the triple kingdom. Three of the essays, those on Björnson, Kielland, and Jonas Lie, are given to Norway; three others, on Hans Christian Andersen, on Contemporary Danish Literature, and Georg Brandes, represent Denmark; one alone, that on Tegnér, in some ways the most interesting of all, stands for Sweden. Ibsen, conspicuous by his absence, it will be remembered has been made the subject of a separate volume previously published.

To the essay on Björnson has been appropriately given not only the first place in the book, but more than a third of the whole number of pages. The author confesses to heroic condensation, but it is a matter for regret that, with the wealth of material on hand, his pen should not have been allowed to follow its natural tendency, since there is no book in English on Björnson. To write another essay on this Titan of the North requires no little courage, but this has materially rounded out our picture of him as he is, and we are made to realize, if we have not appreciated it before, the extraordinary part he has played. Few men in all history have exercised a greater influence upon a nation's intellectual development than has Björnson upon that of Norway. It has been everywhere paramount; not only in religion, where he has acted the part of liberator, or in politics, where, although holding no office, he has been the soul of the national movement, but in literature in all its manifestations—in journalism, in the drama, in lyric poetry, and in the novel as well. Björnson in all this is not merely a Norwegian, he is Norway. "To mention him," says Brandes, elsewhere quoted, "is like running up the Norwegian flag."

Even more interesting than the initial essay to the American reader will doubtless be that on Hans Christian Andersen, not only on account of the unique position of this writer in English literature, where he is felt to be almost a native element, but because of the wholly sympathetic way in which he is treated. The author has given us again a personal picture unmistakable in its fidelity, and a critical estimate produced with a touch no less sure. He shows us how harmless was the vanity of this most childlike of men, and how unaffected his innocence and unworldliness, yet without shirking his idiosyncrasies or sparing his foibles—and that is the charm of the essay. We feel that we have at last got hold of the real Andersen, who, although a *rara avis* of most whimsical plumage, was a personality infinitely superior to the Andersen of the autobiography.

Of the other essays in the volume, that on Tegnér, the national poet of Sweden, whom we know as the author of 'Frithjof's Saga' and 'Children of the Lord's Supper,' has probably the most enduring interest, because of the thoroughness of treatment of a most picturesque subject. It is the only time in English, so far as we are aware, that Tegnér, who in his environment was a great poet, has been satisfactorily accounted for, and has had an intelligible place assigned him in European literature in and out of Sweden. Of the remainder, the essay on Jonas Lie, whom the author predicts that London and New York will before long have discovered as one of the foremost representatives of modern realism, is important because of the personal character of much of its material. Lie has been widely translated into the languages of Europe, which is proof positive, as such things go, of popularity abroad. His tales of the sea are the best that the North has produced, and the reality and modernity of this, as of much of his other work, are undoubted. Why he has not taken firmer root among us is not quite apparent, although the author ascribes it, in part, to inferior translations.

The other essays are short; that on Contemporary Danish Literature necessarily so to hold our interest, that on Alexander Kielland apparently only from choice. The least satisfactory of them all is the one on Brandes, not, however, for what has been said so much as for what has been left unsaid, for here is a writer of whom we know far too little in English. The author of the present volume does not unqualifiedly call him so, but Brandes is in many ways the first of living critics. He does, however, associate him with Lessing, Matthew Arnold, and Taine, with the last of whom, as is pointed out, there is no little intellectual kinship. As a critic Brandes has not only gained an international fame, but, more than that, in and out of Scandinavia has deeply influenced contemporary thought.

Many of his essays—our author notes particularly the one on Björnson—are superb pieces of critical writing, subtle, luminous in statement, striking in judgment, and replete with information. Unfortunately, in his unaffected sympathy with anarchism there is a devil lurking behind the door to discredit him at home and abroad, and he has failed of a recognition otherwise accorded him.

Prof. Boyesen has never written more clearly or convincingly than in the present essays. It is to be hoped that the future volume suggested in the preface will in good time be forthcoming.

The Rise and Development of Organic Chemistry. By Carl Schorlemmer, LL.D., F.R.S. Revised edition, edited by Arthur Smithells, B.Sc. Macmillan. 1894. Pp. xxvii, 280.

THE first edition of this book was published in 1879 and has been long out of print. A revision was undertaken by the author shortly before his death, and has been completed by Prof. Smithells, who prefaces the work with a short biographical sketch of Prof. Schorlemmer. Born at Darmstadt in 1832, Schorlemmer, at the age of twenty-one, was an apothecary's assistant at Heidelberg, where he came under the influence of Bunsen, whose lectures he attended in his spare time. Four years later, he decided to give up pharmacy, and, after a few months at Giessen under Will and Kopp, succeeded his friend and former schoolfellow Dittmar as private assistant to Prof. Roscoe at Owens College, Manchester. In 1861 he was appointed official assistant in the Owens College laboratory, and in 1874 the chair of Organic Chemistry was created for him—a position which he occupied until his death. His first important work resulted in deciding the vexed question concerning the identity or isomerism of the alcohol radicals and their hydrides, and had great influence on the development of organic chemistry. His experimental activity is indicated by the list of sixty scientific papers appended to this sketch of his life. The last fifteen years he devoted almost entirely to authorship. In 1874 his 'Organic Chemistry' was published in both English and German, and at once became a standard work. A little later he undertook with Roscoe the task of writing the now well-known 'Treatise on Chemistry,' the first volume of which appeared in 1877, and which is still incomplete. It is pleasant to know that Schorlemmer's faithful and fruitful service to Owens College for thirty-three years is to be recognized by the erection of the "Schorlemmer Laboratory" for organic chemistry by his pupils and admirers.

Organic chemistry is almost wholly a growth of the present century. At the close of the seventeenth century a division of natural substances into mineral, animal, and vegetable was recognized; and a hundred years later Lavoisier proved that vegetable bodies consisted chiefly of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, while those formed in the animal organism usually contained, besides these, nitrogen and sometimes phosphorus. The distinction between animal and vegetable substances soon after fell into disuse, and at the beginning of this century the present division of all substances into organic and inorganic was generally adopted. The organic substances known at this time were all of natural origin, and it was believed that they were formed in the plant or animal by the mysterious agency of the so-called vital force, and that, though capable of conversion into other compounds, none of them could be artificially produced from inorganic matter or from their elements. In 1828 Wöhler prepared urea from ammonium cyanate, and thus dealt a heavy blow at the doctrine of vital force. It soon appeared that ammonium cyanate could be made from its elements, and with this discovery the first synthesis of an organic compound was complete. In 1845 Kolbe effected a simple synthesis of acetic acid from the elements, and in 1859 Berthelot solved a problem which had long occupied chemists, viz., the direct combination of carbon and hydrogen, by obtaining acetylene, C_2H_2, by means of the electric arc between carbon poles in an atmosphere of hydrogen. The significance of these syntheses from the elements lies in the fact that, since it is possible to pass from one organic compound to any other by a series of appropriate reactions, all compounds whose constitution is known can now be built up from the elements. The history of organic chemistry is in a large measure a history of the development of hypotheses concerning the constitution of compounds into the present theory, to whose adequacy, as a working theory, at least, the wonderful growth and important practical applications of this branch of science bear witness.

The subject is presented in the book before us in a thoroughly lucid and readable manner. It is, as the editor says in his preface, a piece of work which discloses "at once the breadth and depth of his [the author's] knowledge, and his ardent and disinterested love of what he was wont to term, with the pride of a disciple, 'our science.'" The results and bearings of all the most important recent researches, such as those of Fischer on the sugars, Ladenburg on the alkaloids, Von Baeyer on indigo, are clearly and skilfully stated and discussed in a very suggestive manner. Chap. ix. deserves special praise for its complete and masterly discussion of the constitution of the aromatic compounds. At the close of his account of the brilliant achievements of synthetical chemistry, the author says:

"If to-day we still cannot make morphine, quinine, and similar bodies artificially, the time is near at hand. . . . If we cannot make quinine, we have already found a partial substitute in antipyrine, and its introduction has lowered the price of quinine. Another important problem is the synthesis of the ingredients of our daily food, such as sugar, gum, and starch. . . . That the synthesis of sugar is imminent has already been stated. But it is quite different with those important parts of our food which have been called the albuminous bodies."

It has been suggested "that if ever chemists should succeed in obtaining albuminous bodies artificially, it will be in the state of living protoplasm, perhaps in the form of those structureless beings which Häckel calls the Monera. All attempts hitherto made for the purpose of producing living matter artificially have failed. The enigma of life can only be solved by the synthesis of an albuminous compound."

The enormous number of substances now included under the head of organic chemistry may well dismay the student until he learns that progress in the knowledge of their constitution and their relations to each other has been even more rapid than the discovery of new compounds; so that, "in spite of the grand development of chemistry, nay, even for this reason, a survey becomes easier from day to day." The large chapters of former handbooks treating of coloring matters, bitter principles, indifferent compounds, and other bodies, which could not otherwise be arranged in the system, and which Gerhardt called "corps à sérier," become shorter and shorter, and will disappear in course of time.

Golf in America. By James P. Lee. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1895.

IN a modest preface Mr. Lee gives the formation of the United States Golf Association at the end of last year as the *raison d'être* of this manual. His main purpose in writing it was, doubtless, to record the constitution and by-laws of that association, and the conclusions arrived at by its officers in the important question of rules. And it is, in fact, a matter of interest to golfers to be informed, as they now are for the first time in an official manner, that the playing rules adopted by the association are the same as those of the St. Andrews Club of Scotland, with two modifications only, both of which are in the nature of improvements. But Mr. Lee has gone considerably further than this, and has produced an attractive volume which contains all that is really essential to the beginner in the way of book-learning. In these days, when all the young men and maidens who are not learning to ride a wheel are struggling with the mysteries of golf, a brief account of the best methods of meeting the initial difficulties and of making the ordinary shots cannot fail of a warm welcome. Of course the tyro must not expect to drive 200 yards at once as a result of reading this or any other manual. In all probability he never will drive that distance except in his happiest dreams. But Mr. Lee's advice, if carefully conned over from time to time after a day's practice in the field, will inevitably improve his game. The trouble with the literature of the game is that it tends to become too voluminous. A great number of books have appeared in recent years dealing with the history of the game in Europe, with the peculiarities of different links, and with the prowess of distinguished performers. Nothing remains to be said on these subjects, and we think Mr. Lee might have omitted his first thirty-two pages with advantage, and confined himself strictly to American golf.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arrowsmith, R. Seidel's Die Monate. American Book Co. 25 cents.
Bain, C. W. The Sixth Book of Homer's Odyssey. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.
Balzac, H de. The Wild Ass's Skin. London; Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Barlow, Jane. Maureen's Fairing. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Base "Coin" Exposed. Chicago: E. A. Weeks Co.
Beddard, F. E. A Monograph of the Order of Oligochaeta. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Bennet, A. R. The Telephone Systems of the Continent of Europe. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
Bliss, Rev. W. D. P. A Handbook of Socialism. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Brandt, F. B. Friedrich Edward Beneke: the Man and his Philosophy. Berlin: Mayer & Müller; New York: Macmillan.
Brosé, E. de. A Modern Pharisee. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Bulwer, Sir E. L. History of a False Religion. New York: Peter Eckler.
Burgis, Edwin. Perils to British Trade. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Clark, A. C. Cicero pro Milone. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Craigie, Christopher. An Old Man's Romance. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Defoe, Daniel. The Life, Adventures and Piracies of the Famous Captain Singleton. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Dougall, L. The Zeit-Geist. Appletons.
Drake, S. A. The Watch Fires of '76. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Driver, Prof. S. R. A Critical and Exegetical Commentary on Deuteronomy. [International Critical Commentary.] Scribners. $3.
Duff, Conover. The Master-Knot and "Another Story." Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
En Pique-Nique. Publication Annuelle du Comité de la Société des Gens de Lettres. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Fabia, Prof. Philippe. P. Terenti Afri Eunuchus. Texte Latin avec une Introduction et un Commentaire. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. Woman's Work in the Home. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus.
Fawcett, Millicent G. Life of Her Majesty Queen Victoria. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Feilden, H. St. Clair. A Short Constitutional History of England. 3d ed. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Field, Rev. H. M. Our Western Archipelago. Scribners.

Filipi, Rosina. Duologues and Scenes from the Novels of Jane Austen. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Galton, Francis. Fingerprint Directories. Macmillan. $2.00.
Gardener, Helen H. Facts and Fictions of Life. 3d ed. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Goldsmith, Oliver. The Vicar of Wakefield. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 30 cents.
Grahame, Kenneth. The Golden Age. Chicago; Stone & Kimball.
Griffith, Dr. J. P. C. The Care of the Baby. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders. $1.50.
Hall, Gertrude. Foam of the Sea, and Other Tales. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Hale, Prof. E. E. Selections from the Poetry of Robert Herrick. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Hartmann, Prof. Edward von. The Sexes Compared, and Other Essays. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Haygood, A. G., Sr. The Monk and the Prince. Atlanta, Ga.: Foote & Davies Co. $1.
Hermant, Abel. Nathalie Madoré. Leipzig: Albert Langen.
Hervieu, Paul. Im Eigenen Licht. Leipzig: Albert Langen.
Hodgkin, Thomas. Italy and her Invaders. Vols. V. and VI. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Holford, C. N. Aristopia: A Romance-History of the New World. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Kipling, Rudyard, and Balestier, Wolcott. The Naulahka. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Kitson, Arthur. A Scientific Solution of the Money Question. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Larned, J. N. History for Ready Reference. Vol. V.—Tunnage to Zyp and Supplement. Springfield, Mass.: C. A. Nichols Co.
Moore, F. F. One Fair Daughter. Chicago: E. A. Weeks & Co. 50 cents.
Munroe, J. P. The Educational Ideal. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.
Optic, Oliver. Across India; or, Live Boys in the Far East. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Preston, Prof. Thomas. The Theory of Light. Macmillan. $5.
Private Letters of a Frenchwoman. G. W. Dillingham.
Rich, Helen H. Madame de Staël, the Rival of Napoleon. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. 15 cents.
Richard, Ernest. Seidel's Der Lindenbaum. American Book Co. 25 cents.
Sonnenschein, W. S. A Reader's Guide to Contemporary Literature. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Putnams. $7.50.
Starr, Julian. The Disagreeable Woman. G. W. Dillingham.
Stephens, Rev. W. R. W. The Life and Letters of Edward A. Freeman. 2 vols. Macmillan.
Tarbell, Miss Ida M. A Short Life of Napoleon Bonaparte. Illustrated. S. S. McClure. 50 cents.
Tomlinson, E. T. The Boy Soldiers of 1812. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 27, 1895.

The Week.

THE sole interest felt by the general public in the meeting of the National League of Republican Clubs at Cleveland last week was as to the position which it would take on the silver question. Being the only national gathering of representatives of the party to occur before the meeting of the Presidential convention next summer, there was naturally much curiosity as to its attitude towards the burning issue of the day. President Tracy, in his opening address, dwelt upon the importance of the platform which the convention should adopt, characterizing the clubs as "the positive and active force of the last campaign," and declaring that "our conventions are the opening guns of every campaign." The convention lacked the courage to live up to this forecast of its duty. Committees, and sub-committees, and sub-sub-committees grappled with the matter of the platform for days. Free-coinage and sound-money resolutions were discussed for hours without action. Then the idea of an address to the people was suggested, which should "go for" the Democratic Administration, charge it with "incompetency and insincerity," and pronounce "every page of its history dark with failure." Finally, somebody pointed out that a section of the constitution of the League provides that it "shall not in any manner endeavor to influence the action of any national, State, county, or municipal convention," and proposed as the easiest way of escape from difficulties the adoption of a resolution reciting this clause, and referring all resolutions in relation to public questions to the Republican National Convention of 1896. Of course, this "dodges" the silver issue. It does so, too, in a most transparent way. This is the eighth year of the organization, and nobody ever before suggested that it had no right to express any views on public questions. On the contrary, it has always adopted a platform which covered the whole political field. Last year's convention of the Leaguers was held at Denver, and the committee on resolutions made a long report, one plank of which was devoted to the tariff and another to the silver question. Indeed, the adoption of a platform has always been regarded as a sort of necessity, to justify the coming together of delegates from all parts of the country. Nevertheless, the "dodge" is really a great victory for the cause of sound money. This becomes plain when we compare the refusal of this year's convention to say a word in favor of silver, with the plank adopted last summer at the demand of delegates from the silver States and with their hearty endorsement.

While the attitude of the Republicans towards the silver and tariff questions in their next national convention remains doubtful, one feature of the platform may be regarded as already settled. The sectional issue will for the first time be omitted, and no demand will be made for federal interference in State elections. The change that has come over the party in this respect is most striking. The federal election laws were repealed by the last Congress, and prominent Republican newspapers already admit that it was a fortunate thing for the country. No party organ was more emphatic and urgent in advocating force bills only a few years ago than the Indianapolis *Journal*, and yet it now confesses that it "is inclined to believe that, under the circumstances, the repeal of the so-called but unjustly called 'force bill' was judicious." Moreover, it declares that it "is not in favor at this time of reënacting the law, or of reviving the issue further than may be done by prosecuting an educational campaign and persistently urging the paramount duty and vital necessity of securing fair and honest elections." Comparatively few Republican newspapers have yet advanced far enough to admit that the action of the last Democratic Congress in this matter was commendable, but we do not know of one which any longer professes to lament the repeal of the obnoxious statutes. It will be an immense gain for the country to have this old sectional issue formally dropped.

One agency that is working quietly but effectively in favor of sound money at the South is the country press. National attention is attracted by the attitude of the most prominent daily newspapers, like the Louisville *Courier-Journal* in Kentucky, the Montgomery *Advertiser* in Alabama, and the Galveston *News* in Texas, but nobody learns except by accident of the instruction given their readers by the host of small weeklies published in every State. A recent issue of the Bainbridge (Ga.) *Democrat* contains seven editorial paragraphs and three articles devoted to the exposition of correct views on the silver question. This is not an exceptional case. The Atlanta *Journal* prints almost every day extracts from other country weeklies in Georgia that take the same position. Many of these rural editors put the case against free coinage with great force, and in just the way best suited to affect their readers. A recent analysis of the attitude of these local papers in Alabama showed that a decided majority were on the right side; and in other States as well, editors who have been on the fence are now coming out against the silver craze. No publications are read more carefully than these country weeklies, and when the bulk of them are on the sound-money side, it will not be long before the majority of the voters will be found there also.

The marked advance in the price of staple commodities cannot be explained upon the theory of the silver advocates. According to that theory, nothing can cause such an advance but an addition to the quantity of money. But there has been no such addition, and yet prices have materially advanced. Moreover, this advance accompanies a greatly increased business activity, which should also require much more money to carry it on. But, as there is no more money, according to the silver theory the demand for what exists ought to depress prices. It cannot be denied that if prices had declined below their recent low level, a state of desperation might have been occasioned in the minds of farmers, who always think a great deal more of the prices obtained for what they sell than of the prices they pay for what they buy. In their desperation they might have been led to favor silver money or fiat money. Fortunately this dangerous point has been passed, and the rise in prices means the decline of the cause of free-silver coinage.

The Trenton *Gazette* last week had a carefully prepared and able editorial on the way the pottery industry of the United States had been "hard hit by the Gorman tariff." It was very unpleasant for a paper so largely read by working potters to have to tell them such a disagreeable truth, and to remind them of the black outlook before them, but the conscientious editor must not shirk a plain duty. However, on the next page a news item tended somewhat to reassure the depressed potter. From it he learned that, as a consequence of being hard hit, his wages had been advanced 25 per cent. So unacquainted were he and his fellows with the nature and evidences of tariff ruin that they were reported to be "well satisfied," and disposed to regard the result of their negotiations with their employers as "one of the greatest victories" which they ever secured. Certain it is that McKinley never hit them in this way. He put the tariff up for them, but the employers made up for that by putting their wages down. In fact, an advance of wages at the Trenton potteries is something for which the oldest inhabitant can scarcely find a parallel. For many years, at least, whether the tariff went up or down, wages at Trenton have had but one course, and that was downward. The potters will be tempted to pray that some ignorant tariff-tinker may come along and hit them hard again.

Nothing is more remarkable about the many advances in wages reported from

all parts of the country, than the cheerfulness and spontaneity with which they are made by employers. The Commissioner of Labor, Mr. Wright, remarked on this fact some weeks ago, before it had attained anything like its present distinctness. It is safe to say that no other like period of our industrial history ever witnessed so many voluntary advances in wages. There have been some strikes and threatened strikes, but for the most part the change has come about through the simple announcement of employers that business had improved sufficiently to enable them to mark up wages 10, 20, 30 per cent. The disastrous effect of this state of things on the high-tariff reasoners is evident from their painful wriggling to explain it away. But it carries its lesson also to another class. What have the agitators and the socialists, with their bogey representation of the grasping capitalist, the iron law of wages, and social class arrayed against social class in deadly struggle—what have they to say about these unforced concessions of higher wages? Something must be wrong with the theory of soulless corporations and grinding employers, if so many of them are found glad to jump at the chance of giving their work-people a larger share of the profits of business. What possible labor legislation could secure for employees such advances in wages as have come to so many thousands of them during the past few weeks, purely under the operations of the laws of trade and through the interest of employers in the welfare of their workers? Agitators go to work the wrong way. They are like the income-taxers, who rail at the miserly millionaires at the very time the said misers are giving away for public uses vastly larger sums than could be wrung from them by any conceivable system of taxation.

The silly-season war with Spain over the Mora claim, which enterprising Washington correspondents had Secretary Olney waging a week ago, has already smoothed its wrinkled front. What the Secretary appears to have done is once more to urge Spain to pay a claim which her Government has repeatedly acknowledged to be just and has more than once promised to pay. Every new Secretary of State has done that for years. Secretary Fish began it, and all of his successors have taken their turn at it. Secretary Bayard in 1886 succeeded in getting a direct promise from the Spanish Government to pay $1,500,000, and the incident was then thought to be closed. But the Cortes have steadily refused to vote the money, and the Government has professed itself helpless. Mr. Blaine sent some very urgent instructions on the subject to Minister Palmer, in 1888, calculated to bring the Spaniards to time. But Mr. Palmer, our Minister to Spain, politely and "unofficially" pointed out to Mr. Blaine several egregious blunders in his letter of instructions, which he had used his discretion not to act upon at once, and which appears never to have been acted upon, as Mr. Blaine lost all interest in the case from that day on, so far as the published correspondence shows. Mr. Foster took the matter up, and so did Mr. Gresham, but neither of them was able to make any headway with the polite but stolid Spaniard. Secretary Olney may have better luck, owing to the Cuban revolution and Spain's especial desire at this time to be on the best of terms with this country. Superficially, the case is not unlike that of our own Congress scornfully refusing to pay the $425,000 Bering Sea damages which our Government had promised; but there is the added exasperation of ten years' delay on the part of Spain, and of the fact that any ministry could no doubt force the Cortes to vote the money if they were in earnest about it.

Secretary Olney has rendered a service to good morals and the cause of peace by defining the duties of citizens towards foreign powers with which we are at peace. The letter was written in answer to a request for information addressed to the Department of State by the cashier of a bank in Texas, who wanted to know whether there was any law against the bank's becoming the depositary of funds subscribed for aid to the cause of Cuban independence, and also what were the duties of American citizens in the premises from a moral point of view. The Secretary's reply is that there is no adjudicated case and no particular law touching the duties of bankers in receiving money known to be intended for the promotion of insurrection in foreign countries, but that the general duties of citizens toward nations with which we are at peace have been judicially declared by the Supreme Court. Those duties are that the citizen is bound to be at war with any country that the Government is at war with, and is equally bound to be at peace with any country that the Government is at peace with. This principle, says the court, "lies at the foundation of all government, as there could be no social order or peaceful relations between the citizens of different countries without it." There could not be a sounder maxim. When a rebellion becomes so important that the Government of another nation accords to it belligerent rights, a new set of rules comes into play. These are very strictly defined by law, but they need not be now considered, since belligerency has not been conceded to the Cuban rebels. There is always a lot of uneasy and adventurous spirits "who breathe short-winded accents of new broils," and are always spoiling for a fight in Cuba, Mexico, Central America, or some other place. None of this class will be deterred by any views that may be entertained by Secretary Olney or by the Supreme Court, but sober-minded and responsible citizens, like the cashier of the Waco bank, will everywhere be glad that a clear and authoritative rule of action touching their duties has been laid down.

The dispensary law in South Carolina fares worse and worse. Judge Simonton's decision in the Federal Court, that liquors might be brought into the State from outside for personal use, was a serious blow. The failure to secure punishment of offenders against the law in the State courts at Charleston because grand juries will not indict, shows the strength of public sentiment against the system in the larger places. Worst of all, the dispensary does not "pay," for the great profits promised went far to reconcile the people to a trial of the experiment. Tillman figured out that it ought to net the State half a million the first year and a whole million the second. This is the second year, and the report for the last quarter makes the actual earnings for the three months only $5,220, which is less than one-tenth of the profits of the license system that formerly existed. Of course the bitter factional feeling which prevails in the State has prevented so fair a trial of the dispensary as might have been possible under other circumstances, but the indications are that, under the most favorable conditions, it would have fallen far short of the promises made for it. The failure in South Carolina is likely to make other States shy of trying the experiment.

Quay has challenged the Republican party of Pennsylvania to an open contest as to whether he shall be recognized as its absolute dictator. Having bossed the Legislature, he now announces his candidacy for chairman of the State committee. The present incumbent has made an excellent record, and is entitled to reëlection. But he is a member of Gov. Hastings's administration, and as Quay has quarrelled with the executive, the boss insists that the Governor's supporter must be "turned down." The issue is made as sharply and clearly as possible. It is simply whether Quay shall be invested with supreme control of the organization. The opponents of the boss show more readiness to fight than usual, and they seem stronger than ever before. Indeed, the surface indications at the start are most unfavorable to Quay. But he has wonderful resources for such a struggle, and he has won more than once when public sentiment in his party was strongly against him. Hitherto, however, he has usually kept more or less under cover, and he loses certain advantages when he makes the contest in an open field. If he does succeed, in the face of all the disadvantages that confront him, his victory will mark the lowest depth that Pennsylvania politics has reached.

The sentence of Inspector McLaughlin, as Judge Barrett said, was imposed with

full regard for clemency. In less than two years he will be free from prison, and, considering his offences, incarceration for that period is a very mild punishment. It is true that his conviction involves loss of office and salary, as well as of such tatters of reputation as he may have had among his companions. But the same thing is true of defaulting bank-tellers and embezzlers generally. The statute prescribes a penalty for their offences, and the penalty is undoubtedly fixed with reference to the conditions under which the offence is committed. It cannot safely be maintained that when a man enjoying a good income in a responsible position violates his trust, his loss of reputation and money should be considered as in any way atoning for his fault. The mischief of such crimes lies in their perpetration without the excuse of want. When a man who is homeless and penniless commits a larceny, he may be said to do it to satisfy a pressing want, and to a certain degree to deserve mercy. The punishment is graduated according to the temptation. So of homicide: if committed in the heat of passion or under great provocation, the law properly affixes a less severe punishment than when there is "malice aforethought." Now there is no such sudden and urgent temptation to commit extortion as to make it just to impose a light penalty upon those who are guilty of it. And we cannot take very seriously Judge Barrett's observations upon the forfeiture of a great and honorable office, gained by McLaughlin "by twenty-five years of undoubtedly valuable service in various phases of duty." We know too well the manner in which "honorable office" has been gained in our police force to be altogether free from doubt as to the value of the services which have gained it.

On another account Judge Barrett's clemency seems to us to be uncalled for. The defence of McLaughlin was conducted in such a manner as to make it altogether equitable to impose the severest penalty allowed by the law. The difficulties to be encountered by the prosecution were enormous, and few persons probably believed that it would be possible to get a jury which would be unanimous for conviction. We presume that the counsel for the defendant did no more than their professional duty required, but it is undoubtedly true that the public believed that McLaughlin would resort to every possible expedient to escape justice. The delay and expense caused by this desperate defence were very great, and a few such trials would block the whole administration of the criminal law. There is simply not time enough to try all those who are indicted, if they are going to protract trials to such a length. In a fair trial of strength men admire the courage and spirit of a defeated antagonist and feel disposed to treat him generously. But there is no parallel between such cases and that of a prisoner contending for his liberty. Where the prisoner has money to spend and influence to exert, it is the people who struggle at a disadvantage. Every technicality, according to our practice, is made use of against their case, and legal errors can hardly be made except by them. Considering the manner in which McLaughlin's defence was conducted, it seems like encouraging objectionable methods to impose a light sentence.

It was in 1886 that Mr. Gladstone gave the Liberal party the Irish home-rule programme; it was in 1887 that Mr. Cleveland gave the Democratic party the tariff-reform programme. How do the results achieved by the greatest political genius of his century compare with those brought about by the dull and inexperienced man whom the accident of an accident made the head of his party? Mr. Gladstone has not been able to enact a line of his programme into law. For all that the statute-books have to show, the ten years' agitation for home-rule might as well have been conducted in the moon as in England. A good part of Mr. Cleveland's programme is now the law of the land. It is not such a law as he would have had, or as his party was bound to give, but it is a law which is winning its way into popular favor with great rapidity, which thousands of Republican business men secretly delight in, and the main features of which its bitterest opponents now admit they dare not promise to repeal. Defective as these results confessedly are, beside Mr. Gladstone's barren labors for home-rule they seem like a great success. Strange how impetuous and fine-fibred statesmanship spends itself in vain, while incompetency blunders along its heavy way to distinct achievement!

The upsetting of the ministry in England is likely to encourage the bimetallists to believe that the Conservative Liberal-Unionist Government will favor an international conference and all that that implies. This does not by any means follow. The Liberal-Unionists gave notice to the Conservatives some time ago that they would have no part in a government that supported bimetallism. The most influential man in the Unionist ranks on the financial side is Mr. Goschen, and he has steadfastly opposed any change in the English standard, although favoring bimetallism for other countries. He took this position in the conference of 1878, and has never swerved from it. Because he was favorable to an international agreement to which all countries except Great Britain should belong, he has been reckoned as a bimetallist, but he would not be counted as such in any group where the coöperation of England was deemed essential. Germany considers the coöperation of England indispensable. It is still an open question whether Germany will issue a call. The Imperial Chancellor said some weeks ago that he would take the necessary steps to summon a conference as soon as he had obtained the approval of "all" the federal States. Since that time both Würtemberg and Baden have decided against it.

The attitude of the United States, if a conference should be called, has been brought in question. The language of the law authorizes the President to act whenever a conference is called "with a view to secure internationally a fixity of relative value between gold and silver as money by means of a common ratio between those metals, with free mintage at such ratio." A conference called, as the last one was, merely to see if a larger use of silver could be injected into the currencies of the world, would not be the kind of conference which this law contemplates. The President would be justified in sending delegates to a conference in the absence of any law, or (following the Harrison precedent) in calling a conference without any law; but when a specific law has been passed on the subject, he is bound to observe it. The 16-to-1 silverites in the United States would certainly blame the President if he should transcend the law in this particular. It is pretty certain, too, that he has no inclination to outrun the law. Therefore, any call for a conference by Germany, issued before the assembling of Congress, must be a call for the fixing of a ratio and for unlimited coinage of both metals at that ratio. And to this end Germany must come to the conference with a programme and must take the lead in advocating it. It will be a great relief, no doubt, to our delegates to have the onus of leadership resting on somebody else.

Russia's transaction in the matter of the Chinese loan is one of the most singular among recent political developments. In effect, the operation seems to have been that the Russian Government, wishing to maintain either actual or pretended close relations with its Oriental neighbor, made a bid for the privilege of serving China with its £16,000,000 sterling, which China did not feel at liberty to reject. But Russia itself neither had the requisite money nor the means of raising it directly. Hence it had recourse to a Continental friend with plenty of idle money and a sentimental attachment to the Russian Government. France virtually accepts this note-of-hand of China, endorsed by Russia, and, as occasionally happens in private life, the endorser of the note takes all the thanks and credit, and its accepter all the risk. This may be fairly called a novelty in international finance. England has now and then resorted to a somewhat similar procedure, but only in cases where a colony virtually leaned on the home Government for financial help.

THE GOVERNMENT REVENUE.

PERHAPS the most striking of all the symptoms of the revival of business confidence is furnished by the condition of the United States Treasury. It is evident that the deficiency in revenue for the year just closing will be not far from $50,000,000, and the expenditure is still considerably greater than the receipts. Moreover, the revenue counted upon has been reduced by some $30,000,000, the amount estimated to be produced by the income tax. Nevertheless the gold reserve in the Treasury is to-day probably $101,000,000. There appears to be no difficulty in maintaining this reserve, and it seems probable that it may be considerably increased when the export of this year's crops begins. Considering the prolonged deficiency in receipts, this condition of affairs is remarkable, and the contrast between the present state of the Treasury and that of a few months ago is amazing.

It is true that the Government has borrowed considerably more than the amount of the deficiency. The loan effected in November brought in about $60,000,000, and the last loan added some $65,000,000, so that the condition of the Treasury ought to be a very easy one. But, all things considered, it ought to have been easy five months ago. The deficit in revenue was less then than now, and the product of the income tax was reckoned a safe asset. Nevertheless, the Government was then within a few days of suspension of gold payments, while now, although it is apparently no better off, it holds its full gold reserve of $100,000,000, and has other cash assets in the Treasury amounting to almost as much more.

The London *Economist* inclines to take a rather dark view of this situation. It asserts that the estimated expenditure for the coming year is greater than for this, that no new taxes can be imposed before next December, unless a special session of Congress is called, and that even then the hostile majority in Congress may refuse to vote any new taxes. Hence, it argues, for many months to come the Treasury may have to go on drawing on its cash balance in order to cover the current expenditure. But if that process is to continue for any length of time, doubts as to the ability of the Treasury to maintain gold payments are sure to revive. Furthermore, the *Economist* argues, this apprehension cannot be allayed by a new loan, because no new loan can be made until the reserve is actually encroached upon, and the Government has no authority to borrow money for the ordinary administrative expenditure.

It is surprising to read arguments of so feeble a character in a journal having the reputation of the *Economist*. As to new loans, they certainly will not be needed until the gold reserve is actually encroached upon, and when that time comes, the loans can be effected. The fallacy about using up the reserve in paying the expenses of the Government has been exposed too often to deserve further refutation. There will be no material increase in expenditure the coming year. The problem, therefore, is simply this: the United States Treasury has during this fiscal year paid out $50,000,000 more than its income, but has increased its cash assets, by borrowing, to the amount of, say, $125,000,000. It will begin the coming year, therefore, with perhaps $75,000,000 more cash than it had a year ago. If the coming year were to be as lean as the one that is just closing, the Treasury would still be able to go through it and emerge with a balance $25,000,000 greater than it had a year ago. It is evident that the process of "drawing on its cash balance" is one that can be regarded without apprehension for some time to come; but only upon one condition.

That condition is the appearance or the prospect of improving revenue. If the revenue continues to shrink, it will certainly arouse anxiety. But what is the outlook for revenue? Upon what theory is it maintained that the revenue of the Government during the coming year is to be no greater than during this year? The volume of business throughout the country, judging from the returns of the clearing-houses and railroads, which are the best evidence we have, was last year perhaps not more than four-fifths, certainly not nine-tenths, of its normal volume. But the returns of the clearing-houses for the current weeks show that the business of the country is from 20 to 30 per cent. greater than last year. The earnings of the railroads are already perhaps 10 per cent. greater than last year, and, unless most serious calamities befall the crops, they will this autumn show an even greater increase. The volume of production is in every branch of manufacture steadily, and in some rapidly, enlarging. The number of men employed is very much greater, and the wages paid are higher, than last year. All this means that more things are bought, and the revenue of the Government, which is principally derived from taxes upon such things, is therefore certain to increase. It must not be forgotten that the sugar duties have scarcely yet begun to be productive, and that the revenue from distilled liquors is $12,000,000 or $15,000,000 short of what it is under normal conditions. We cannot here present the details which show that a largely increased revenue is probable, but will specify one single fact as perhaps the most significant of all. The number of immigrants last May was about 49,000; in May, 1894, it was about 33,000. Immigration does not increase unless the country is prospering, and the country cannot prosper without paying more in taxes. It would require an increase in revenue of only 10 per cent. to extinguish the deficit; but an increase of 5 per cent. would extinguish apprehension, and such an increase is beyond question likely to be manifested very soon.

THE ENGLISH SITUATION.

THE first and strongest impression made upon most Americans by the resignation of Lord Rosebery's Government and the almost certain passing of the Liberal party from power for at least some years, will be that of a tremendous and fruitless waste of party energy. It is nine years now since the English Liberals undertook to meet the aspirations of the Irish nation for self-government in local affairs. Under a leader of heroic courage and marvellous activity, they went to defeat on the issue of healing the deadly Irish wound by pacificatory treatment, and then, in 1892, after six years of agitation and hope deferred, came back to power only to find their way blocked by the brute mass of the House of Lords. Now, after three years of vain effort, they leave office without a single act of positive Irish legislation to point to as the fruit of the long and sore struggle.

But only the short-sighted will say that the struggle has naught availed. English political reform moves in ways as mysterious as those of divine Providence, and no one who recalls the manner in which Sir Robert Peel forced his party to repeal the corn laws or Disraeli the Conservatives to pass the Reform Bill of 1867, need despair yet of seeing the Irish cause suddenly spring into new vigor and promise even under a Tory cabinet. It is already clear that Mr. Chamberlain will be a member of that cabinet, and he has had a half-dozen Irish home-rule bills up his sleeve any time these ten years. No one who has marked his shifty course for a decade past would be shocked at the suggestion that he might turn another sharp corner and come out as the original Irish Home-Ruler. In fact, for the Conservatives in general, the advocacy of some measure of Irish local self-government would not now require so instantaneous a somersault as did their taking up the extension of the franchise in 1867, and passing a bill far more radical than the one they had denounced and beaten Mr. Gladstone for bringing forward. Both Lord Salisbury and Mr. Balfour could point to passages in speeches of theirs foreshadowing such a sea change. Of course their home-rule bill would be safe and honorable, of a kind to bind the empire together, and not the mad revolutionary thing that the Gladstonians had affrighted the country with. Fair names and grave excuses could easily be found in plenty if a political exigency should compel the Conservative leaders to take to blessing what they had been banning for ten years.

The thing which, if anything, may be expected to force such action on a Conservative government, is the return of a solidified Irish parliamentary delegation to the position they occupied prior to 1886. In a shrewd and brilliant article in a late number of the *Fortnightly*, written by an Irishman, presumably Mr. Redmond, the way was incisively sketched in

which the Irish members might again demonstrate the need of doing something for Ireland, if only to keep Parliament from utter breakdown. Despite the new devices of closure and the new powers of the Speaker, it is still possible for fluent and acute Irish members to make the burden of imperial and local business greater than Parliament can stagger under. Day after day and month after month, they can, as before, forcibly remind the Government and the country, in this way, that the consuming desire of the Irish people for control of their own local affairs remains unappeased. It would only be a question of time when something would have to be done to end this intolerable and unworkable situation. A beginning might be made by applying Scotch precedents to Irish difficulties. A grand committee for Scotland already has practically supreme control over all local Scottish legislation. Various proposals to appoint other committees of this kind were made only a few weeks ago in Parliament, and were not unfavorably received by the Conservative leaders. A grand committee for Wales is almost certain to come very soon, and stranger things have happened than that a grand committee for Ireland should come too. With Parliament more and more unequal every year to the vast mass of business thrust upon it, with local self-government in England already given a great extension by recent legislation, and with the tendency clearly visible in Parliament to divide up the work of law-making according to subject and nationality, it would be rash in the extreme to affirm that the Liberal overthrow meant the overthrow of Ireland's hopes.

Another thing which it would be rash to predict is the strength and permanency of the alliance of Liberal Unionists and Conservatives. For the moment that alliance will be made closer than ever before. In speeches before the National Conservative Union on June 14, both Mr. Chamberlain and the Duke of Devonshire made it clear that the Liberal Unionists were now prepared to sink their separate organization in that of the Conservatives. The leaders will no longer refuse, as in 1886, to take office. They hope to found a new united and homogeneous party, neither Liberal nor Conservative, but "national," or something of the kind. The Duke frankly admitted that many serious difficulties stood in the way of complete amalgamation. He would not conceal the fact that "a severe strain would be placed upon many of our most ardent supporters if they found their leaders occupying positions in a Government avowedly Conservative." Nor did he see clearly how the radicals of the Liberal-Unionist following could get on well with the great mass of the Conservative party "averse to change of any kind, and unwilling to acknowledge the existence of the new forces with which we have to deal." But the home-rule terror, he believed, would bind these irreconcilables permanently together. Less interested observers will not believe it. Irish home rule is but a passing phase of constitutional policy; it cannot permanently create and divide parties. It must soon be either settled or shelved, and then the great differences of personal character and political theory which make men and parties radical or conservative will reassert themselves and redraw party lines. The influence which rains from duchesses, and the social prizes which they adjudge, may keep Mr. Chamberlain a contented sharer of Conservative cabinets and dinner-tables, but his great artisan and middle-class following, which has made him what he is, will not have the same sunshine of noble favor to bask in, and will not be so complacent.

INTERNATIONAL INSINCERITY.

THE ceremonies attendant upon the opening of the Kiel canal are supposed to furnish a striking demonstration of international good feeling. So all the correspondents assure us. The occasion marks the beginning of "a new era of peace." Embassies and war-ships from so many foreign countries bespeak a spirit of universal fraternization. The whole celebration is a great tribute to the power of peaceful intercourse between nations, and a veritable triumph of international peace and good will.

A glance beneath the surface, however, will show that there is a great deal of sham and insincerity about all this. In the very gathering of war-vessels there is manifest a spirit the reverse of peace-loving. Each nation sends its biggest ships and heaviest guns, not simply as an act of courtesy, but also as a kind of international showing of teeth. The British navy despatches ten of its most powerful vessels merely as a sample of what it has in reserve, and with the air as of one saying, "Be warned in time, O ye nations, and provoke not the mistress of the seas." French and Russian squadrons, in like manner, put on their ugliest frown lest host William should presume upon the jollification to make too friendly advances. Our own American ships join the fleet with the feeling doubtless animating many an officer and sailor on board that it is time the haughty Europeans learned that there was a rising naval power across the sea which they had better not trifle with. A different result could scarcely be expected from an invitation extended by fire-eating Wilhelm. The affair is very like an appeal to "liquor up" addressed by Alkali Ike to Silverado Bill and Tombstone Tom. Bill and Tom walk up, lay their "guns" and knives on the bar, and tell Ike that they will drink with him, but that it will be a bad day for him if they catch him at any of his tricks.

An especial air of bouffe attaches to the presence of the French and Russians. As lovers of international peace, especially as lovers of Germany, they are truly comic. The French fleet, in fact, could hardly get away at all. The Minister for Foreign Affairs had to answer a shower of interpellations as to what the Government meant by showing courtesy to Germany while Alsace and Lorraine still lie a-bleeding. M. Hanotaux could save himself only by assuring the Chamber that the whole thing was an empty form, and that all true Frenchmen could keep on as before hating the Prussian despoilers and getting ready for a speedy *revanche*. Even so the rage and fury over the thing in some parts of France were great and unconcealed. At Toulon the flags were at half-mast, to show how keenly was felt the national disgrace of even being polite to the hated Germans. The statue of Alsace-Lorraine was draped. Relief was found only in emphasizing the Russian alliance, and in arranging to have the French and Russian fleets enter the canal side by side, as a practical challenge to the Dreibund to come on as soon as they got ready. These intrigues and manœuvres helped to make the spectacle of international courtesy and peace complete and touching.

But the most striking insincerity of all was to be found in the opening of the Kiel canal itself. It is dedicated to "the traffic of the world." Hence its international significance, hence all the rejoicing and glorification. But what do Germany, and France, and the other Continental Powers really think about the traffic of the world? Why, at this very moment, as for twenty years past, they are straining every nerve to fetter and hinder and reduce as far as possible the free commercial intercourse of nations. The really significant figures in Germany are not lordly William and his officers, opening the new canal to commerce, but Kanitz and the Agrarians demanding that the empire be closed to commerce, and the Chancellor on his knees to them. M. Méline and the French protectionists, Cánovas and the Spanish protectionists, Italy with her discriminating duties against France, Belgium now contemplating for the first time a departure from the policy of free trade, Howard Vincent and the "fair-traders" in England—these are the men and this the spirit, that most truly represent the predominant sentiment of the nations to-day about "the traffic of the world." New canals and railroads are all very well if they help *us*, if they carry our goods exclusively; but they at once become objects of horror, demanding new restrictive legislation and suggesting the necessity of war, if they enable a foreigner to sell another dollar's worth to us.

There was, in truth, something more than sentiment, there was a profound principle, in Cobden's linking of free trade with international peace in his historic programme. A commercial war may be the deadliest of all. It certainly may be the meanest and most malicious. When the McKinley tariff threw thousands of workmen in Vienna out of em-

ployment and into misery, and the *Tribune* gloried over the spectacle like one of Tertullian's saints in heaven exulting in the torments of the damned, we had an object lesson in international malice not easily to be forgotten. An overt act of war could not have aroused baser passions, or been better fitted to inflame international ill-feeling and resentment. But that sort of thing, in kind if not in degree, is all the while happening under exclusive and retaliatory tariff legislation. It cannot be denied that the causes of international friction have been vastly multiplied by the ravages of the protectionist spirit in Europe during the last two decades. The repeal of the reciprocity treaties negotiated under the influence of Cobden's propaganda marked the beginning of a state of commercial war in Europe, which has caused as much international exasperation and almost as much suffering as many an armed conflict that the histories dwell upon as calamitous. Until this proscriptive spirit of commercial hostility and jealousy passes away, or wears itself out through sheer absurdity, you may open as many inter-oceanic canals as you please, but you cannot persuade sensible people that your talk about their significance for international good feeling and the general love of peace is anything but a bit of transparent insincerity.

THE SEVENTY AND ITS SUCCESSORS.

THE farewell address of the Committee of Seventy is a very modest document, containing as it does the record of a great political revolution. We doubt if many of the handful of earnest reformers who set on foot the meeting in the Madison Square Garden concert-hall on the evening of September 6, 1894, were sanguine enough to hope for anything approaching the remarkable results which followed. They were determined to make an effort to organize the non-partisan sentiment of the city into a movement for the overthrow of Tammany, but there were few indications at the time that they would be successful. The city was well filled with critics then, as it always is at the outset of such undertakings, who were sure nothing could ever come of it, and who were never tired of asking the reformers if they really believed they could accomplish anything. Some of them were at the meeting, and volunteered their profound conviction that it was sheer folly to attempt to defeat such a powerful organization as Tammany Hall with an unorganized mob of reformers who had nothing but sentiment to fight upon.

Yet look at the outcome! Tammany Hall routed and practically excluded from all branches of the city government for three years. The Tammany police bench, with its thugs, liquor-dealers, and semi-criminals, abolished for ever. Two Tammany candidates for the higher courts defeated, and two upright and able men elected in their stead, both going upon the bench free of all political pledges, and without paying an "assessment" to any political organization as the price of their nomination. In addition to these great gains, we have a model Street-Cleaning Department, a model Police Board, and a collection of officials at the head of other branches of the municipal service who, while some of them might be of higher character and ability, are none of them ex-criminals or the ex-companions of criminals.

For all these advances towards genuine reform in municipal government we are indebted to the Committee of Seventy. It is impossible to overestimate the patriotic devotion of the members of this committee to the work placed in their hands. They were all busy men, and every moment which they gave to the public was a sacrifice of the time and energy needed for their private affairs. If the Legislature had been equally patriotic, if it had been its own master rather than Tom Platt's property, the record of the Seventy's work would have been far more impressive and the results far more enduring than they are. We should have been able to add to the list of achievements a thoroughly reformed public-school system and a thoroughly reformed police system. The blame for the failure of these two reforms rests primarily upon Platt and his Republican Senators, but the Democratic Senators are almost equally guilty. They could, by combining with the few anti-Platt Senators, have secured the passage of both measures, but from the beginning to the end of the session they were almost solidly arrayed with the Platt men against all reforms.

So much for the past. The committee's record is a shining one and will hold a proud place in the history of the city. We are unable to say why objection was made at the final meeting to the simple statement of fact regarding Mayor Strong's approval of the bi-partisan police bill. That act was a part of the record, it was a notable fact in the history of the committee's work, and it should be set down with the other facts. Nothing could be more absurd than to imagine that it could be abolished from history by omitting it from the record, or the consequences of it be avoided by calling attention to other facts in the Mayor's administration.

In regard to the future the deliverances of the committee are wise and impressive. They say truly that "only a beginning has been made," that a "long and arduous struggle still confronts those citizens who desire to see the affairs of this city administered solely in the interests of its inhabitants," and that permanent victory can be secured "only by a general recognition of the truth that the efficient administration of local government demands an entire separation from the field of national politics." The task of conducting the work on these lines they leave to the Good Government clubs and the City Club, and we are glad to be able to say that preparations have been made already by these organizations to continue it. What we must have is a city party, distinct from all other parties, which will appeal for membership on city issues alone, and it is the intention of the City Club and the affiliated Good Government clubs to lead the way for the formation of such a party in the immediate future.

The present year affords an exceptionally good time for such a movement. We are to have our first election under the new constitutional provision for separate municipal elections. We are to hold it at a time when questions of municipal administration are attracting unusual attention, and when the experiment of conducting a non-partisan administration on a multi-partisan basis is being made with only partial success. Every thoughtful man, while admitting that Mayor Strong's achievements are probably as great as we had any right to expect from an executive elected as he was, is convinced that the method of his election was a necessary first step towards a really non-partisan nomination and election, and as such cannot be repeated, but must be used as a basis for advance to better things. The city is full of voters who are ready to be led into a genuine non-partisan city organization, and if that leadership be undertaken in the proper spirit, as we are confident it will be, its success cannot be doubted. It is fortunate that so many judicial nominations are to be made this year —three new judges of the Supreme Court, two General Sessions judges, and two City Court judges. The voters are more interested in non-partisanship on the bench than anywhere else, and a list of judicial candidates of the highest character, not a man of them associated with any partisan faction or organization, would be a strong rallying-ground upon which to muster strength for a city party.

THE BRITISH OPIUM QUESTION.

LONDON, June 12, 1895.

EVERY country has its weak points. There is, however, this difference between the failings of the United States and those of the United Kingdom: with you, the institutions of the country are in the main absolutely fair, as between man and man; if they are not fairly worked, it is the fault of individuals or localities. Here, on the contrary, each citizen who does not protest is partly responsible for institutions and laws which are often most unjust. The United States has kept steadily clear of foreign complications. The United Kingdom is widely involved therein. Only those who have had opportunities of looking below the surface of affairs can realize how every British voter, by the nature of the empire, is constantly being involved in shady transactions and frequently in crimes of the deepest dye. One of the most flagrant has been the opium traffic. Wars to legalize and extend the use of this drug in China are among the worst crimes on record. The grass soon grows over the graves of men slaughtered in battle, and internecine wars are almost forgotten after a cen-

tury or two; but the miseries and demoralization engendered by a vice like the use of opium are endless. Posterity will regard it as almost incredible that the wealthiest nation in the world, boasting itself the greatest and freest, should have waged wars for such a purpose—that the sunny lawns of thousands of English homes, the rose-covered porch of many a parsonage and many a trim Sunday-school, owe their erection to and have drawn much of their support from the degradation of "brethren" and "sisters" abroad in opium dens and bagnios. No subject has more disturbed the "Nonconformist conscience." Late developments have drawn increased attention to it.

Opium is a Government monopoly in British India. The cultivation of the poppy, permitted only in certain narrowly prescribed areas for convenience of oversight, is carried on under license by means of Government advances. The product is manufactured into opium and sold by Government. Ninety per cent. is exported to China and the Straits Settlements. During the first ten years of the century, the exports amounted to 2,500 chests, value £250,000. By 1851 the trade had increased to 53,000 chests, value £5,459,000; by 1861 to 59,000 chests, value £10,184,000; and by 1871 to 89,000 chests, value £11,790,000. It appeared to have reached its maximum between 1876 and 1880, when it rose to about 102,000 chests, value £12,640,000. Finding they could not keep out foreign opium, the Chinese have taken to growing and manufacturing themselves. The export has now declined to 76,000 chests. It is appalling to learn that the present import amounts to only one-seventh of the quantity consumed in China. The average area under cultivation of the poppy in British India for the decade ending 1862-'3 was 338,000 acres; 1872-'3, 475,000; 1882-'3, 519,000; 1892-'3, 513,000. The net opium revenue to the India exchequer, which in 1880-'1 was RX8,450,000* (£7,042,000 in gold), has now fallen to RX5,123,000 (£2,775,000 in gold). This latter sum forms 14 per cent. of the total revenues of the country.

The evils of opium are patent. Its use in most civilized states is permitted only under restriction and regulation. China, in her treaties with other nations, has stipulated against the introduction of the drug. The Japanese are strong enough to prevent its importation. As in the case of slavery, before the opium trade had become a great interest, and while, after becoming important, it was at its chief centre not seriously threatened, all were ready to acknowledge its injuriousness, and to profess a desire, if possible, to restrict it. In 1817 the East India Company, writing to the Governor-General, expressed their wish "to restrain the use of the pernicious drug. . . . Were it possible to prevent the use of the drug altogether, except strictly for the purpose of medicine, we would gladly do it in compassion to mankind." From that period until recently, recurrent official opinions of equal weight were uttered as severely condemnatory of the trade. The licensing arrangements regarding the growth of the poppy and the manufacture and sale of opium may at first have aimed at checking the evil. But as license fees and duty became a valuable source of revenue, the sale was doubtless fostered, whether consciously or otherwise, and by the lower if not the higher officials. An immediate result of the Chinese war was to enlarge the demand. When Burmah was annexed, the sale of opium was there legalized, despite strenuous protests from the inhabitants. Meanwhile, thoughtful public opinion at home gradually strengthened against the increasing imperial implication in the traffic. Anti-opium associations were formed, four of the principal of which at present act in hearty union. Sir Joseph Pease, Bart., M.P., a member of the Society of Friends, has led the movement. In 1885, the use of opium having been fixed upon China, she was, under the Cheefoo Convention, theoretically enabled to lessen at discretion the importation from India; but considerable passive difficulties were left in the way of her doing so. The continued opposition of the Burmese and the pressure of public opinion at home compelled the Indian Government to institute new regulations there in 1894. The possession of opium, except for medicinal purposes, is now forbidden *to Burmans*. The rule is absolute in upper Burmah; in lower Burmah, natives were allowed some months within which those who had contracted the opium habit might still register themselves as consumers. Its use is still permitted in Burmah to Chinese and other foreigners.

The anti-opium movement appeared nearly successful in 1891, when, on the 10th of April, in the House of Commons, the following resolution, moved by Sir Joseph Pease, was carried:

"This House is of opinion that the system by which the Indian opium revenue is raised is morally indefensible, and would urge upon the Indian Government that they should cease to grant licenses for the cultivation of the poppy and sale of opium in British India, except to supply the legitimate demand for medical purposes, and that they should at the same time take measures to arrest the transit of Malwa [native-states] opium through British territory."

In the course of the debate, Sir James Ferguson, speaking as Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs on behalf of the Government, made the following satisfactory announcement:

"The Chinese at any time may terminate the treaty on giving twelve months' notice, and to protect themselves they may increase the duty to any extent they please, or they may exclude it altogether. This I think I may say, that if the Chinese Government thought proper to raise the duty to a prohibitive extent, or shut out the article altogether, this country would not expend one pound in powder and shot, or lose the life of a soldier, in an attempt to force opium upon the Chinese."

Mr. W. H. Smith, leader of the House, stated that the policy of the Government of late had been to diminish the area of cultivation of the poppy.

Next year the Conservatives were defeated and the Liberals came into power. Six members of the new Cabinet and ten other members of the new Government had voted with Sir Joseph Pease. On June 30, 1893, the anti-opiumists in the House moved for a royal commission to inquire into the means by which the resolution of April 10, 1891, should be carried into effect. This was met by a motion on behalf of the Government, by Mr. Gladstone, for a royal commission to inquire into the question and (practically) to report as to whether the resolution of April 10, 1891, should be or could be acted upon. Great pressure was put upon the followers of the Government, and Mr. Gladstone's motion was carried by 184 to 105, the anti-opiumists voting against it. A commission of nine was appointed; evidence was taken in London and India. The final report recently appeared, evidence and report extending to 2,500 pages of foolscap folio. The report, agreed to by eight of the nine commissioners, is regarded by the pro-opiumists as an unequivocal triumph. Its conclusions in effect are: that it has not been proved necessary or desired by the Indian people that the manufacture and sale of opium should be prohibited; the import into China is permitted and regulated by treaties deliberately accepted by the Chinese Government; no action tending to destroy the trade should be taken; the refusal to permit the transit of native Indian opium through British territory would involve the necessity for pecuniary compensation and a heavy loss of revenue to the Government of India; the finances of the country are not in a condition to bear such loss, nor the cost of preventive measures, nor the loss of revenue resulting from the adoption of a general policy of prohibition; there is no evidence of extensive moral or physical degradation from the use of opium in India; it is extensively employed for non-medicinal and quasi-medicinal purposes, in some cases with benefit and for the most part without injurious consequences. "We are not prepared to make recommendations [towards its abolition] without careful study of details."

The anti-opiumists, though disappointed, are not discouraged, and are mustering their forces with renewed ardor to the attack. They take their stand upon the minority report of Mr. Henry J. Wilson, M. P., which traverses nearly all the conclusions of his fellow-commissioners. The majority report is discounted by the manner in which the commission was captured and nursed by the Government in India, and the extent to which, through the influence of this Government, evidence in favor of the trade was put forward and evidence against it minimized or suppressed. The Government of India, the interested party, did not stand neutral, as it ought to have done. The commission, on landing, was met by a letter from the Viceroy pointing out the difficulties which the abrogation of the trade would entail upon the Government. The members were guests of the Viceroy in Calcutta, and of local authorities elsewhere. Since the appearance of the report, the commissioners have been thanked for it by the Indian Government. The result is much the same as if, forty years ago, a commission had gone South to inquire into the evils of slavery and the possibilities of abolition, and been guided and coached by Southern officials and entertained by Southern governments. Only men of very clear moral insight and independent judgment could stand such an ordeal. This is the third occasion on which, within the period of office of the present Government, the Indian bureaucracy has shown itself able to circumvent the deliberate conclusions of the British Parliament on questions of Indian policy. (1.) It has checkmated the decision of 1891 regarding opium. (It has, through this report, pronounced that Sir James Ferguson was mistaken when he asserted that China had it in her power to terminate the present agreement, and that Mr. Smith was wrong when he stated that the area of poppy cultivation was materially decreasing.) (2.) It has reversed the decision of 1893 regarding simultaneous examinations in England and in India for the higher Indian civil-service appointments. (3.) It has evaded the directions of the home Government prohibiting the regulation of vice. "It is most important," says Mr. Wilson, "to emphasize the fact that not only do the Maharajah of Darbhanga and Mr. Haridas Viliaridas [the native Indian members] agree with me in certain very important particulars, but the evidence in India was unanimous, and the com-

* RX signifies "tens of rupees." When the rupee was worth two shillings, RX1=£1. In 1881-2 the rupee stood at 1s. 8d. It is now worth only 1s. 1d. Indian financial statements are made out and presented to Parliament in tens of rupees (RX).

missioners are unanimous, in condemning the *smoking* of opium; and inasmuch as nine-tenths of all the opium produced in British India is used for *smoking* in China, the Straits Settlements, etc , it is clear that even the majority report has gone a long way towards proving the traffic is morally indefensible."

Although the House of Commons has by a large majority practically endorsed the report of the majority, the anti-opium movement is likely to progress and gather strength. "There is something distinctly humorous," says one of its ablest leaders, "in a call to draw down the curtain on an agitation of fifty years' steady growth, carried on by men many of whom are more deeply versed in the question than any of the commissioners, because . . . of the conclusions of nine gentlemen who have been taking evidence under the auspices of the Indian Government." British anti-opiumists will not have Indian native opinion on their side unless they are clear upon one point. The trade has been fostered and developed in India by the British people for the supposed benefit of the British Empire. On the British, not on the Indian, people should fall any loss resulting from its abolition. D. B.

DURHAM DOCK LABORERS AND PITMEN.—II.

ENGLAND, May 10, 1895.

BETWEEN trimmers and all the Dock workmen in Class I. and the pitmen of Class II. there is completest distinction in every way. Even when living in adjoining houses, they rarely know or speak to one another. The old feeling that a pitman is in most cases a brainless "Geordie," only fit to work in darkness and dirt, strongly survives; and many pitmen feel this as a real grievance, which, however, in their eyes excuses their drunken freaks. Houses are generally provided by pit-owners for their workmen—long ugly rows of one-storied buildings; and this has tended in times past to make them shy of any society but their own. And the work is so different from anything above ground—it means such unseasonable hours, and, in the old days, such terrible risks—that many a trimmer looks back with shame on the time when as a boy he "went down pit." The danger no longer exists, for most careful precautions are now taken against all preventable accidents; with the happy result that fewer men are now injured in coal-pits than in what is generally considered the less dangerous work of the ship-building yards. But pitmen do not change their nature all at once. For generations they had been the least taught and most neglected class in England. They have only within twenty years given up cock-fighting; their chief sport still is the degrading and disgusting practice of rabbit-coursing—which enables us to understand how the hideous cruelties once common could be perpetrated upon the ponies in the pits. Even now there is nothing which seems more to deaden the finer feelings of a boy of fourteen than to be sent to drive "tubs" while his father is "hewing" coal for a colliery.

The pay of hewing pitmen would be considered good by any who knew how to spend and how to save. The full-blown "hewer" is paid according to the amount he hews and sends up from the "face" or solid wall of coal. The amount he can hew depends a great deal upon the nature of the "cable" or position in the pit he has won; for the hewers all draw lots for their "cables" every quarter. If he has a hard, difficult face to work on, he may earn only twenty-five shillings a week; if he has been lucky and has drawn a spot where the coal is soft and shelvy, ready to split, he may earn as much as £4 a week. Every pitman has his "marrow," or mate, whose account runs in common with his own, and who takes his place at the face when the first shift of seven hours is over and the back-shift men succeed. A pit is thus working continuously throughout the week. Hewing is hard work at any time in the close though equable air 500 feet below ground, which allows the men on the face to take off all their clothes but their shorts and shoes. It is doubly difficult when, as in some cases, the hewer cannot stand up or sit up, but lies on his side to hew at a seam of coal which is perhaps only a foot deep. The habit of walking along low galleries makes most pitmen stoop, and gives to them all a wondrous knack of sitting upon their heels.

But if the work is exhausting, the hours are not long. The rule throughout Durham is that seven hours from "bank to bank," *i. e.*, from going down the pit-mouth to coming out again, comprises the pitman's day. Frequently, when landed at the bottom, he has three miles to walk or ride before he reaches his work, and the same distance back ; so that five hours' hewing may often represent the amount of work done. In addition to money wages he has considerable privileges. He lives rent-free in a house which his pit-owners provide, and which, if not large, is generally water-tight, and often has a useful garden attached, which he usually refuses to dig. Coal, also, is supplied free to every house in which any member is working in the colliery, and though no wife ever lights more than one fire, she consumes a ton of coal every fortnight, for she never lets that one out. The last duty before going to bed is to put three or four bucketfuls of coal in the grate which may burn up for breakfast. Besides this, the pitman is insured by the company, out of his wages, and a doctor is provided.

With such resources, one might well suppose that pitfolk should be comfortable. Yet the standard of comfort in pit villages is very low indeed. There are many cottage homes in agricultural parts of Norfolk or Essex where the united wages of the family is never more than 15s. a week, out of which rent has to be paid for house and garden, and coals bought, which are yet more neat and clean, and supplied with better furniture, than most pitmen's houses. There is no comparison between the two so far as luxury and refinement are concerned. Yet the income of the northern home is often five times as much as the other. The son of the pitman rarely leaves his home until he is married, and not always then. The mother of a family has thus very frequently not only the wages of her husband but also the wages of two or three of her sons to depend upon for keeping house. A son of fourteen years may be earning 15s. and another twenty years old may earn £1 a week, while the father's wage probably averages £2. This gives a total weekly income of £3 15s., with house rent, rates, taxes, water and coal free—or a third more than the stipend of an ordinary curate; and this is by no means a rare case. But economy is unknown, and the waste of food is very painful to see. A pitman must be well fed, for he believes that if a man will not eat, neither shall he work. So, also, must his inevitable rabbit-dog. This must have its mutton chop though his child go barefoot for it. Yet if the women knew how to manage, they might humor the most absurd whims of their husbands and yet save. Some of the more knowing ones contrive to do this through the coöperative stores. These stores allow interest, which may be claimed at the year's end, upon the total amount spent with them. The wise women allow their husbands to forget that for every shilling spent at the stores a penny is returnable, and instead of drawing out their share at the year's end, leave it to accumulate as a nest-egg. This is the process which they name "eating themselves rich." Whether for this or for other reasons, co-operative stores are particularly prosperous in pit districts, though it is almost always allowed that you pay more in them for an article which is equally good in a shop.

No one who had not seen it would believe in the picturesque savageness which a pitman's house presents in the afternoon when father and sons return from their work. They come in black all over with coal-dust, their blue stockings and half-shoes smeared thick with pit-clay, their hands grimy with blasting powder. Without washing a finger or an inch of their faces, they sit down at once on the wooden settee before which the deal table is drawn up. Without a word of greeting or question of any sort, the mother draws from the oven the boiled duff and mess of meat—five or six pounds in all—which is the unchanging meal. Boys and father eat all up, plum duff first, then meat, then gravy with bread, and wash all down with perhaps a pint of water. Though at the fortnight's end or pay Saturday he may drink beer and spirits—one hewer told the writer that to get drunk once a fortnight was his favorite form of medicine, better than salts or pills—the pitman rarely drinks anything intoxicating at his meals. Then the pipe is filled and lighted, and the working portion of the family take it in turn to wash.

This again is a peculiar ritual worthy of notice. The mother or sister brings a large tub full of warm water, a towel, and some cakes of soap, which she deposits in front of a roaring hot fire. The man then slowly divests himself of shirt, shoes, and stockings, rolls up his shorts full six inches above the knees, and seats himself naked, except round his middle, on a wooden "crocket" or stool, with the water-tub between his legs. Slowly he plunges his arms in, and leaves them to soak for three or four minutes, then draws them out and soaps them, his chest, neck, and shoulders. His legs and feet he leaves till last, and his back he refuses to wet at all, lest water should make it weak. At the end of twenty minutes he considers himself clean, and calls to his wife or mother or sister to bring him a towel. All this goes on in the principal room of the house, which opens immediately upon the street, which is kitchen and bedroom and bake-house and bath-room all in one, where the chickens run about picking up crumbs and the litter of greyhound puppies quarrel over a bone. His bath over, the pitman as leisurely dresses himself, in full view of his family and the passers-by; then lights his pipe, whistles to his dog, and goes to lounge away the rest of his time in the reading-room or at the street-corners until bedtime comes. The hours at which he begins work again vary considerably according as he is on a fore or back shift, and so a regular "caller" is always paid to go round and wake men at the proper hours. On the door of every pitman's cottage you may see chalked up a notice of the hours of calling.

One reason for the thriftlessness of many of the pitfolk is the unstable nature of their work. It might be thought that when houses and gar-

dens are provided there would be security for continuance. This is not so. The signed contract-note between manager and workmen in the pits binds the two parties for only a fortnight. Cessation of work means also leaving their house. When trade falls bad, managers are often reduced to the necessity of paying off fifty men a week until times are better, and even continue to do this until none but the "viewers" or foremen inspectors are on their books. Under these circumstances men move about the country very frequently in search of work, and many try America or Australia for a time, though they generally gravitate back to the place where they were born. Besides the fluctuations of trade, there are peculiarities proper to mining which make work precarious. The seam of coal may give out, or become so inferior in quality as to be no longer worth working; water may come in in such quantities that no pumping can keep the pit workable. Thousands of pounds are spent in trying to conquer this difficulty; and if all fails, five hundred families are sent adrift to get work where they can find it. A whole village of two thousand people is left empty and deserted, while grass grows in the once populous streets, and sheep feed in the once fertile cabbage-gardens. There is an instance of a company which, to keep its men employed and not to lose custom, actually contracted to deliver some thousands of tons to a Swedish railway *freight-free* for six shillings a ton. This happened within the three years last past. Possibly after some years a speculator buys pit, plant, and houses for an old song, succeeds in pumping it dry, or discovers some new process for making it pay; and in six months the original workers are crowding back from all parts of England, to inhabit again the houses they had left, as quickly as mason and carpenter can make them habitable.

One economical law is brought home very clearly to any one who studies social questions among such classes. It is crystallized into the North Country proverb, which says, "It is not what a man addles [earns], but what he saves, that makes him rich." And you are only likely to save when you know what your income exactly will be. Then can a man calculate his expenses beforehand, and decide how much he can afford to lay aside every week for a rainy day. When wages vary as much as ten shillings every week, the standard of comfort is apt to be ruled by the lowest receipt, while excesses over this are spent in extravagance. Security and fixity with an income of twenty-five shillings a week is more conducive to comfort and thrift than a higher average income, say, of two pounds a week, which comes in irregular instalments. All the thinking workmen see the truth of this, but they could not if they wished (and perhaps they would rarely wish) free themselves from the competitive contract system. It is demoralizing to their character, and makes them old men years before they need have been. They lose the peace of mind which comes from doing work well because it is your duty, irrespective of the pay, but they gain the pleasure of feeling more direct pecuniary interest in the work they do, and the delight of finding sometimes that they have earned more than they expected.

The third class, the casual Dock laborers, firemen, and seamen, are not in any way peculiar to the district. They live on the smallest and most doubtful wages, very frequently in one room and generally in much dirt. There are many of them verging on the line of the "submerged tenth," bankrupts in health and character and purse, living from hand to mouth, falling into excess of every sort after any windfall of wages. Some, the lowest of all, do not do twenty days' work in the year, and yet have wives and families. How they manage to exist is an insoluble problem. The craze for drink and tobacco is said sometimes to be so overpowering on men who spend half the year in a workhouse, that so soon as they have earned fourpence by an hour's work, at unloading a timber-ship, they will draw their pay, buy a glass of beer and half an ounce of tobacco, and do nothing more that day. For these there is no moral help. They are a residuum who can only be treated as children or lunatics. W.

CARDUCCI—TASSO—FERRARA.

BOLOGNA, June, 1895.

ON the 12th of May, the day chosen by Ferrara to commemorate the third centenary of Tasso's death, Zanichelli published Carducci's "Ode to the City of Ferrara," which will assuredly be placed among the first and greatest of his poetic works. The concentrated vigor of conception, the exquisite form, the resonant melody of the second portion (in Saphic metre), the majestic distichs of the first and third parts, require a Longfellow to render even in blank verse; but the whole poem is so complete a history of Ferrara, from its birth till the hour when the "accursed Vatican she-wolf" assailed, wounded, and seized upon its prey—the figure of Tasso there in his youth and glory driven to madness not by love for "Leonora, senz' amore virgine matura," not by the persecution of the Duke of Este, who was throughout his best friend and protector, but by the moral and material terrors of the Vatican, stands out in such strong relief—that the ode given in prose cannot fail to charm. Carducci's numerous classical and mythical allusions are so frequent that one has to take one of his own "cold baths of erudition," and hence the need of occasional notes. At the end of the poem we read what here follows:

"In these verses the history of Ferrara and also its mythical pre-history—even the geological and psychological conformation of its province—are introduced to represent the preparation and the development of the epopee which was destined to illustrate the city. Poetry may, peradventure, yet hold its own in this field. The present belongs to the drama, the novel, the newspaper; the future to God; the past, the *doloroso* glorious past, may yet belong to poesy, especially in a history so complex, made up of so many elements, as is that of Italy."

Carducci, in his lectures delivered in the University of Bologna, 1868-71, on "The Development of National Literature," places its fifth era towards 1490,

"the year of the first foreign invasion, when the greatest poet, Ariosto, the greatest prose-writer, Machiavelli, were in their prime. This era comes to maturity about 1530, the year of the fall of Florence, the death of Sannazaro and Andrea del Sarto, preceded by that of Machiavelli in '27, Leonardo da Vinci in '19, Raphael in '20. Then in '33 dies Ariosto, Correggio in '34. The fertile period continues until 1559, when the peace of Cateau-Cambrésis confirmed the dominion and predominance of the Austrian house of Spain in Italy handed over to foreign lords, and may be said to end in 1565, a year after the Council of Trent, which effected Catholic renovation, suffocated freedom of thought and speech till then enjoyed—tolerated if not actually sanctioned. These last years in art were full of the old age of Titian and Michelangelo in literature, of the flower of the minor prose-writers. Guicciardini died in '40. Bembo in '47, Fracastoro in '53, Vida in '66. Torquato Tasso was born in 1544."

In the third volume of the critical edition of Tasso's Works (seventeenth volume of the "Library of Italian Writers," Bologna: Zanichelli, 1895), our poet prefaces the "Aminta" and "Torrismono" with a critical review and an appendix on the minor poems. Still, it is to his lectures one must revert to find Tasso's place in Italian literature, the ambient in which he evolved his poems, their reception by his contemporaries, their influence on future generations. After a tersely brilliant description of the fifth century in the other States of Europe, quickened by the confirmation of their separate nationalities by the Reformation and battles for freedom of conscience, he continues: "Italy had only her federal traditions and organizations. The whirlwind of religious passions that enveloped the German Alps failed to disturb the solemn quietude in which she elaborated the last development of her national and political organization, of her popular conscience in thought and in art." He shows the impossibility of the Reformation, as understood in Germany and England, taking root in Italy:

"Is it possible to imagine a Lutheran Renaissance in Italy, a Zwinglian Ariosto, a Puritan Machiavelli, a Calvinist Raphael, a Quaker Michael Angelo? Verily, no! the life and soul of Italy was federation in politics, rationalism in philosophy and religion, naturalism in art. What fault was hers if in those times she was the freest, most beautiful, the wealthiest, nay, the happiest of European nations?"

Then popes and emperors joined hands to crush her, their united forces barely sufficing. Crushed, strangled, finally, she was not violated.

"Tasso began to think and write at the moment when Latin Europe seemed bent on Catholic renovation in opposition to Protestant reformation. All Christian Europe felt its civilization menaced by the Ottoman Empire. The clash of the battle of Lepanto, that last great Christian battle in which the Italians took so large a part, the last glorious encounter between East and West, yet echoed from the seas. The time was opportune, and Tasso, well fitted to become the poet of Catholic renovation, of Christian civilization, gave Italy a religious and heroic poem, 'Jerusalem Liberated.' No other figure as serious and noble as Torquato Tasso did the sixteenth century produce. He is the legitimate heir of Dante Alighieri: he believes, and reasons out his faith philosophically; he loves, and comments love doctrinally; he is an artist, and writes dialogues of scholastic speculations which would fain be platonic; he innovates and theorizes. And, even as Dante, he ever finds something in himself which his Catholic conscience blames; a spiritual and moral allegory presides over his poem, which yet is essentially religious and chivalrous. Still he fears ever to have rendered it too profane, he rewrites it purified. Not even then content with his revision, he finishes with the 'Poem of the Creation.'

"He is the only Christian of our Renaissance, in which, however, he participates so largely that in his work sensualism blends with mysticism, and for this he grieves and repents while the people delight in it. But this two-fold element of his nature undulating between sensualism and idealism, between mysticism and art; this discord between the life he is condemned to live—he, the knight of the middle ages, the heir of Dante, mazed in the midst of the Renaissance between Ariosto and Machiavelli, Rabelais and Cervantes—of this two-fold element, this discord, he, innocent, suffers the penalty; suffers so intensely that it drives him mad. The wailing, heart-rending cry of the elegy which, athwart the chords of the epic trumpet, bursts sadly yet voluptuously from his heart, proclaims him the first in order of date among modern poets. Tasso has the malady of transitory eras, the malady of Chateaubriand, of Byron, of Leopardi. And thus, in discord with the times in which he lived, he was able to gather in his own breast the latest breath of chivalry and religion.

"It was the final attempt. After Tasso, neither the reaffirmation of ecclesiastical authority, nor the monarchical tradition which

commenced with the establishment of one powerful foreign dynasty in the south, another in the north, could succeed in exciting or reviving among us a chivalrous or religious movement."

This is Carducci's synthetical appreciation of Tasso's work. As the years go by, and Carducci's adoration for classical purity of form in which to express the wider aims and expanding horizons of the spirit of his own times is intensified, even as his spirituality increases, so also does his abhorrence of Roman Catholicism augment. His maledictions on the Vatican harpies "accursed by Dante and *through* Tasso cursed" proceed from his ever-deepening conviction that only to the greed and foulness of the Papacy, the constant summons of foreigners by the Popes, are due Italy's three hundred years of slavery and degradation. J. W. M.

BARRAS'S MEMOIRS.—II.*

PARIS, June 10, 1895.

BARRAS, after the reception he had had from Robespierre when he went to visit him on his return from Toulon, was convinced that he was doomed and condemned. There is nothing in his memoirs so dramatic as the history of his struggle with the Dictator, a true struggle for life. Robespierre, all-powerful at the Jacobins' Club, had almost ceased to go to the Convention, and it was on the benches of the Convention that Barras began to recruit his allies.

One day Barras was called to the Committee of Public Safety, as having been more particularly mixed up with the military operations. Fouquier-Tinville showed him a list of generals who were to be taken before the Revolutionary tribunal; on the list were Kellermann, Hoche, Championnet, and others. After a moment of stupor, Barras dared to defend these men. "Fouquier-Tinville," he says, "on hearing my observations, gave a nod of his head which showed complete assent. He took a pen from the table and struck off the names of these generals. It was the first time I had seen Fouquier-Tinville; his physiognomy, which I had represented to myself as sinister, his eyes, which I thought those of a tiger, assumed an air of humanity. . . . The Committee made up its lists every day, and he was only the executor. These lists were made up by the whole Committee, in a sort of tumult and without deliberation." Fouquier-Tinville showed him another list, of civilians classed as Girondins. "I saw on it the names of the best patriots." It is probable that Barras used the information thus received in order to increase the number of the opponents of Robespierre. He found his warmest allies in the persons of Tallien and Fouché, who were treated by Robespierre with marked contempt; he would never even speak to them, and "there was in the silence of such a man—of a man who held in his hand the sceptre of death—something more terrible for the imagination than open threats. The mysterious and awful Robespierre had turned everybody against him in the Executive Committee of Public Safety except his blind admirers, Couthon and Saint-Just."

Fouché, who was to play afterwards such an extraordinary part, had then made himself notorious only by his Terrorist measures in Lyons and in the South; he had been so cruel that Robespierre once told him that "his face was the expression of crime." He had been turned out of the Jacobins; he dared not show himself at the Convention; but "he rose early in the morning, and he ran about all day buttonholing Deputies of all opinions, and telling them all, 'You will die to-morrow if he dies not.' To the friends of Danton who survived, he said, 'To-morrow you can have your vengeance.' Robespierre's contempt for Fouché arose from the fact that Fouché had taken advantage of his proconsulate at Lyons to fill his pockets. He was one of the first who began to 'faire de l'argent' at a time when nobody thought of it, either from the effect of the Terror, which was not indulgent to robbers, or from a sentiment of true probity which was dominant among the citizens, occupied and preoccupied only with the defence of the Republic." It was said that at Lyons the *citoyenne* Fouché (an ex-nun who was living with Fouché) had carried away coffers full of things stolen in a convent. Fouché, notwithstanding the extravagance of his Terrorism, had incurred the displeasure of Robespierre; a note of his had been found addressed to a colleague in the Convention: "Before a fortnight, Maximilian will have ceased to exist, or we shall."

The crisis approached; on the 8th Thermidor Robespierre made in the Convention a vague, mysterious, and threatening speech, one of those utterances calculated to remind such of its hearers as had read Tacitus of the "longa et verbosa epistola" which Tiberius used to send to the Senate. On the next day, the 9th Thermidor, Vadier dared to open the attack. Saint-Just replied; Collot-d'Herbois, who had accompanied Fouché to Lyons, happened to preside—a vigorous man, capable of facing even Robespierre. He made it impossible for Robespierre to speak. The Dictator in vain called for the help of the "hommes purs"; the phalanx led by Fouché, Tallien, and Barras, called him "Tyrant! Catiline!" and would not allow him to speak. In vain did he scream finally, "President of assassins, I demand the floor." Can anything more dramatic be imagined than this struggle between assassins? A decree of accusation is voted against Robespierre, against Saint-Just, against a few others; the Dictator is arrested and "the terror inspired by his name is such that in two prisons whither he is transported, at the Luxembourg as well as at the Conciergerie, the doorkeeper refuses to open the doors." Robespierre had to insist he wished to be brought to trial; unfortunately for him, his partisans, hearing of his arrest, rescued him and brought him triumphantly to the Commune. Henriot marched against the Convention; the struggle now was between the Commune and the Convention.

Barras was appointed commander-in-chief of the troops in Paris; he confesses having felt at first some hesitation. "I say frankly that this sort of hesitation came from the knowledge which I had of the individual value of the men of the two parties. What was really the shade which distinguished the members of the committees who were hostile to each other? Did their feelings of humanity differ? What did Saint-Just and Robespierre have against Billaud and Collot? What did Collot and Billaud have against Saint-Just and Robespierre? . . . They were all equally guilty in their cruel and pitiless system against all human kind, in the perpetual use they made of the instrument of death against the most innocent creatures. . . . I really saw nothing which could determine a choice between Robespierre and Billaud." Barras says, however, that if the wickedness was equal on both sides, the more dangerous of the two was Robespierre, who had more prestige. "These tumultuous thoughts, which I now analyze with a cool head much better than I then could, induced me to make my choice as a soldier, and to march against Robespierre, to the death. . . . Death, and again death, was the necessary consequence of the struggle." To do him justice, Barras showed much resolution in the struggle. As soon as he accepted the command of the troops which defended the Convention against the Commune, with his little army he attacked the Hôtel de Ville, which was already then, as it was in 1871, the headquarters of the Commune. Barras accepts the legend of the suicide of Robespierre. "Robespierre, with one of the pistols of Lebas, had broken his own jaw." Many historians say that Robespierre was shot by a gendarme. *Adhuc sub judice lis est.*

When Robespierre, with Couthon and Saint-Just, was dragged before the Revolutionary tribunal, in order merely that their identity might be proved, great was the embarrassment of Fouquier-Tinville, the public prosecutor, "the man who, till that moment, even yesterday, used to go to take from Saint-Just and Robespierre orders of execution against all the unfortunate people whom they sent to the scaffold." Barras perceived his emotion. "'Well, Citizen Fouquier,' said I to him, in an imperious voice, 'the Convention has charged me with the execution of its orders. I give you the order to proceed at once to the execution of your mandate. To-day you must show yourself a patriot and send immediately the guilty to the scaffold.' Fouquier did not make me speak twice; he went to his room, took his little cloak, his hat *à la Henri IV.*, called the judges, gave them the fatal order against Robespierre, Saint-Just, Couthon, and their execrable friends, with as much decision as he did the day before when he received the order from Robespierre." Barras ordered that the car which took Robespierre to the Place de la Révolution (now called Place de la Concorde) should pass before Robespierre's house. "The prediction of Danton must be accomplished!"

The 9th Thermidor was a day of deliverance. Barras prides himself much on having immediately afterwards made a visit to the Temple, in order to see the unfortunate son of Louis XVI. and his sister. In his first version, written at the time, he says: "I found the young Prince in a cradle in the middle of the room asleep; he woke with difficulty. He had on pantaloons and a vest of gray cloth. I asked him how he was, and why he did not sleep in the big bed. He said that his knees were swollen and suffered at the joints when he was up; he liked the cradle better. I examined his knees; they were much swollen as well as the ankles and the hands; his face was swollen and pale." The rooms of the Prince and Princess were very filthy. Barras gave a few orders, but learned afterwards that they had not been carried out.

During the siege of Toulon, Barras had become acquainted with Bonaparte. After the 9th Thermidor he inquired for him and learned that he had left the army of Italy and was in Paris. He had made the acquaintance of the younger Robespierre and of Clarke, who was a clerk of the Committee of Public Safety. "I reproached him on the subject of his conduct, and told him that it was no longer the fashion of the day; that he must remain a patriot, but be less Robespierrist. Bonaparte answered me, 'At any price, I must have employment; if I cannot obtain some service, I will go and ask for it in Constantinople as an artilleryman.'" He desired to be presented by Barras to the Committee of Public Safety. A

* 'Memoirs of Barras, Member of the Directorate.' Volumes I. and II. Harper & Brothers. 1895.

struggle was preparing between the Convention and the sections, where the royalists had become very ardent since the 9th Thermidor. Barras organized against the sections a force composed chiefly of the men who had been imprisoned during the reaction which followed Thermidor. He had about 1,500 of these "patriots," and called them the "Sacred Battalion." The royalist sections were openly preparing an attack on the Government. Barras thought of offering a command to Bonaparte; he had some difficulty in finding him, and intimates that Bonaparte had been negotiating with the section of the Rue Lepelletier. When Bonaparte arrived, he said to him: "My positions are commanded by the officers who arrived first; you will be one of my aides-de-camp." He himself examined all the positions.

The struggle was not long; at the psychological moment, "Bonaparte, taking me by the coat, whispered, 'What is your decision, General?' 'Take to Brune the order to fire the guns.' 'All is saved,' answered Bonaparte; 'the victory is ours.'" The guns were fired in the Rue St. Roch, and the Church of St. Roch long bore the marks of the bullets. The members of the sections fled in all directions; the royalist movement was crushed without much difficulty. Barras showed on this day of Vendémiaire, as he had on the 9th Thermidor, much decision. There was something of the regular officer left in him. "We have," he says, "for the 13th Vendémiaire, posthumous historians who would give to their hero [Bonaparte] the sole glory of bringing about the 13th, as well as the gendarme Meda, historian after his death of his own acts, who finds himself making the 9th Thermidor by his intrepidity, conducting his troops against the Commune, entering there first, killing Robespierre with his own hand, exercising the supreme command on that day, all in compliance with an order which he had received from the Committee of Public Safety, an order which never existed." "I have said frankly, completely, all that Bonaparte did in person on the 13th Vendémiaire; he accompanied me in the morning, but he could not always accompany me, as I was on horseback and he was on foot, and it was only when I had the last orders to send that, fearing lest, with all his vivacity, he might not arrive in time, I had a horse given to him."

It has been said that when the sections were disarmed, a boy presented himself at Bonaparte's headquarters and offered the sword of his father, who had commanded the armies of the Republic; that this boy was Eugène Beauharnais, who became afterwards viceroy of Italy; that Bonaparte gave him back the sword of Beauharnais, and that the next day Madame Beauharnais came to thank him. Such is the accredited version of the first relations of Bonaparte and Josephine. Barras comes across this sentimental story. He knew Josephine, who belonged then to Madame Tallien's set; he recommended her as well as her son to Bonaparte, whom he had appointed *commandant de l'intérieur* in his own place. The visit of the boy to Bonaparte is, if we must believe him, a mere fable.

The Memoirs of Barras, although they have suffered various additions, suppressions, changes, and, so to speak, transformations, will be valuable to the historian when he comes to speak of the events in which he had to take a prominent part. His account of the 9th Thermidor and of the 13th Vendémiaire are the most important parts of the first volume.

Correspondence.

THE DIRTY DOG.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial of the 20th inst. your praise of the dog at the expense of the horse seems so unjust that I am led to say a few words on the matter. You speak of "the advantages enjoyed by the dog" as "man's friend and companion" and the intelligent co-operation thence developed. Allow me to ask if "the advantages enjoyed by the dog" have tended to diminish in the course of ages in the very least degree the filthy and disgusting habits of the dog, which ought by good rights to make him repulsive to every person that is endowed with any culture or refinement? Can one imagine a horse to be guilty of such outrages against common decency, even among animals? Other animals yield only to the pressing needs of the moment. Dogs jump at every chance to gratify a degraded and prurient nature. The dog is the only animal that eats his own excrement, and that from preference. Can one imagine a horse guilty of such an act? Yet it is the continual custom of the dog, and has ever been since he "returned to his own vomit again," as in the days of Solomon.

You speak of the intelligence of the dog. Have ages of familiarity with man succeeded in teaching him not to lie down in the middle of the street, instead of at the side? Have they taught him not to eat the hot biscuits and slabs of plum-cake that foolish masters and mistresses are always giving him? Have they taught him not to howl at night and rend the sky with discordant yelps and cries, compared with which the shriek of a steam-tug is melodious bliss?

There are no less than 174 lines in Shakspere in which the dog is mentioned, and in every case coupled with a contumelious epithet, from "blasphemous, incharitable dog" in the "Tempest," to "O Spartan dog! More fell than anguish, hunger, or the sea," in "Othello." All honor to Shakspere for his appreciation of the truth and his courageous tribute to the same. In the Bible we find the same opinion of the dog, from Moses to Christ, when he said: "Give not that which is holy unto dogs." In all literature it is the same. The dog is ever associated with the degrading and derogatory, from "dogged" and "dog's ears" to "doggerel" and "dog's-bane." To "go to the dogs" is to be irretrievably ruined, and "the dog-days" represent the condensed and hopeless misery of perspiring humanity. "The dog in the manger" is only equalled by those that "bark and bite, for 'tis *their* nature to."

Nature has made the dog a dirty animal in all his habits and sympathies. A pig is a sybarite in comparison. No ages of artificial and unnatural association will ever make him other than what he is, more filthy, more greedy, more annoying, and more repulsive than in that wild state into which he so easily relapses, and that without the least reluctance.—Pray believe me,

Yours with respect,

Howard Payson Arnold.

No. 156 Beacon St., Boston, Mass.,
June 22, 1895.

HOME-MARKET LATIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I see, by the latest issue of the *Nation*, that the Minister of Education for Ontario keeps on advertising, on this side of the boundary line as well as on the other, for a Professor of Latin for University College, Toronto. His obvious purpose is to obtain for the college the very best Latinist that the widest inquiry can discover for the salary offered. But suppose that "best" should prove to be not a Canadian, nor even an Englishman, and possibly an American! Nothing less than a symposium by those eminent internationalists, Senators Morgan and Lodge, and the diplomatic editor of the *Tribune*, could adequately express the abasement of feeling and conduct in the Minister of Education that alone could lead to such a climax.

Well! This is a Canadian question after all. We may rest in the serene confidence that our statesmen, mingling habitual patriotism with accustomed culture, can always be trusted to call for the primest specimen of American Latin, with total exclusion of the foreign article. C. F. B.

Washington, June 22, 1895.

MR. RILEY'S DIALECT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of June 13 (No. 1563), in the very interesting article entitled "The Novelist on his Travels," reference is made to James Whitcomb Riley's dialect poetry, and Mr. Maurice Thompson is quoted as saying that the people who speak it do not exist. He is very wrong; Mr. Howells hits nearer the mark. Mr. Riley says his poetry is written in the Hoosier dialect—hence it is distinctly Indianian; but it is more, for I have heard it spoken, precisely as he has written it, in southern and western Iowa and in some counties in eastern Nebraska. The two dialects are so similar that I was positively startled when I first began to notice them, and I greatly wondered at the trouble and study it had cost Mr. Riley to catch all those quaint tricks of speech. He is not just perfect, as Mr. Howells is quoted as saying, especially in the children's dialect; but he is so near it that we forego criticism.

Respectfully yours, T. G.

Council Bluffs, Iowa, June 21, 1895.

A MODIFIED GRIEVANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to apologize for the hasty and unwarranted criticism upon the *American Journal of Semitic Languages* (published in the *Nation* for June 6) and the gentleman referred to as its managing editor (although he is only an associate editor). I desire also to make the following corrections:

(1.) Four years ago I proposed to the gentleman above mentioned that he should join me in editing an Assyrian Dictionary. The proposition was declined. My former statement in the *Nation* that the proposition originally came from him was misleading.

(2.) I find that my statements concerning the review were incorrect. The proofs, as is evident from the supplementary note in the *Journal*—overlooked by me—were held for the revised edition, and the reviewer had both the first and second editions in hand at the time of writing. I desire, therefore, to withdraw all the reflections cast upon the managers of the journal in question.

(3.) I wish to state also that the first edition of my Dictionary was withdrawn at the suggestion of the above-mentioned gentleman be-

cause of the inconsistencies which he kindly pointed out to me.

(4.) I wish to withdraw the slurs implied in the use of the phrases "ostensibly written" and "cold-blooded attack."

Yours respectfully, W. MUSS-ARNOLT.

CHICAGO, June 22, 1895.

Notes.

LONGMANS, GREEN & Co. are preparing a series of English classics for use in secondary schools in accordance with the system of English study recommended by the Committee of Ten. Prof. G. R. Carpenter of Columbia will have the general editorship of them.

Chautauqua text-books for 1895-96 in the press of Flood & Vincent, Meadville, Pa., are 'The Growth of the American Nation,' by Prof. H. P. Judson; 'The Industrial Evolution of the United States,' by Carroll D. Wright; 'Initial Studies in American Letters,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers; 'Some First Steps in Human Progress,' by Prof. Frederick Starr; and 'Thinking, Feeling, Doing,' by Prof. E. W. Scripture.

Macmillan & Co. have ready the first of a series of contributions on philosophical, psychological, and educational subjects issuing at irregular intervals from the department of philosophy and education of Columbia College; and in press a history of the Seventeenth Lancers, by the Hon. J. W. Fortescue, and 'The Flower of England's Face,' by Mrs. Julia C. R. Dorr.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish this month 'The Story of the Plants,' by Grant Allen, and 'A Study in Prejudices,' by George Paston.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will bring out immediately 'Impressions and Memories,' by J. Ashcroft Noble; 'Earth Work out of Tuscany,' impressions and translations of Maurice Hewlett; and 'Israel among the Nations,' by Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu.

'Clan Traditions and Popular Tales of the Western Highlands and Islands,' collected by the Rev. John Gregorson Campbell (London: Nutt), will prove an acceptable addition to the folklorist's library. It forms vol. v. of the "Waifs and Strays of Celtic Tradition," to which we have already called attention. That part of the present volume which deals with clan traditions has the greater attraction of novelty; the popular tales of the other parts are variants of themes familiar to most readers in folklore. The introduction, by Mr. Alfred Nutt, upon the work and character of the collector, Mr. Campbell (now, alas, deceased), has also a scholarly value.

We are less favorably impressed with 'The Brehon Laws,' by Laurence Ginnell (London: Unwin; New York: Scribners). Various surface indications lead us to the suspicion that the writer is inadequately qualified for his task. How can any scholar of the present day assert (see p. 2) that "the originals [of English laws] in Saxon times were always in Latin," or that the records in legal proceedings continued to be written in Norman French "down to the middle of the eighteenth century"? Ireland and its literature have, it is true, been shamefully neglected in more ways than one; but it is scarcely good policy to try to awaken factitious interest in Ireland by underrating other countries. With the writings of Sir Henry Maine and the volumes of the Brehon Commissioners before one, it ought not to be insuperably difficult to present to the ordinary reader the general distinctive features of Old Irish law. But spurious Irish history is of no value except in a treatise upon comparative mythology. The present volume is not to be read with the implicit faith due to a legal treatise.

Prof. Alfred Wiedemann's little book on 'The Ancient Egyptian Doctrine of the Immortality of the Soul' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) will be of interest to several classes of readers—to the man possessed of curiosity as to the subject in general, to the comparative religionist who desires a concise statement of the Egyptian doctrine of man and his hereafter, and to the Biblical student who would compare his own belief with that of one of the most highly civilized and developed peoples of antiquity. For the specialist in Egyptology the work has little importance. It is brief, its statements are as clear as the subject allows, and the various matters included in the topic are set forth with sufficient fulness for ordinary purposes; but the author has not here made any appreciable addition to the fund of knowledge which we have already at our command. The chief value of the book consists in its being a convenient and lucid compendium. After a few remarks on the Egyptian religion, Prof. Wiedemann takes up the delineation of man and his component parts, which, according to Egyptian conception, were scattered at death, each one of them being, however, separately immortal in itself. The part played by each, and the process of their reunion in the completed celestial being, are considered briefly in the light cast upon the subject by native texts. The Egyptian eschatology is not very satisfactorily considered, but some curious beliefs are outlined. The work is a translation, and is well done. The translator has added a number of pertinent illustrations portraying a variety of funerary scenes and objects.

Two pamphlets come to hand which are worthy of a note of reference as authentic testimony on minor matters of interest in the civil war. The first contains an address before the Confederate Survivors' Association of Augusta, Georgia, by Gen. M. C. Butler of South Carolina. Gen. Butler gives his personal knowledge of the evacuation of the lines of Yorktown by Johnston's army in 1862, and fixes the interval before McClellan's forces became aware of the retreat. The second is a narrative by John Mead Gould, acting Adjutant of the Tenth Maine Volunteers (now cashier of the National Traders' Bank of Portland, Me.), giving in detail the circumstances of time and place attending the fatal wounding of Gen. Mansfield at the battle of Antietam, with an excellent map of part of the field. Both pamphlets are in the best vein of careful statement of matters within the personal observation of the writers at the time, that of Mr. Gould being scrupulously verified as to topography by subsequent visits to the battle-field. They are precisely the kind of evidence the student will prize.

Pierre Loti's 'Le Désert' (Paris: Calmann Lévy) is neither a novel nor an exciting book of any sort whatever. It is a languorously told, dreamy, ineffably fascinating, softly colored account of a trip in "the deep, sonorous desert" of Arabia Petræa. The peculiar charm of Loti's style is felt all through the book; the vagueness, the vaporousness in which he loves to enwrap his thoughts and the scenes he beholds, are over the whole of this volume. It is all the more interesting in that certain passages, taken in conjunction with the closing lines of the prefatory note, hint at a possible evolution in Pierre Loti himself.

M. Paul Hervieu is a literary artist, as every one knows who knows anything of contemporary French literature. But he has not given proof in 'L'Armature' (Paris: Lemerre) of striking originality in the choice of subject. He writes very well, he describes very cleverly, but we are so sick of that cosmopolitan society of immoral habits and filthy ideas that all the literary skill of the author cannot make us swallow another dose of the stuff without a protest.

A unique contribution to the prevailing Napoleon literature is John Grand-Carteret's 'Napoléon en Images' (Paris: Didot), consisting of a series of English caricatures of Napoleon I., chronologically arranged and extending from 1796 to 1816. Of these burlesque and satirical representations of scenes from the life of the victorious Corsican, 271 are described and 130 reproduced in facsimiles of the original drawings by Gillray, Rowlandson, Cruikshank, and other eminent caricaturists. The series begins with the marriage of Napoleon and Josephine, and ends with a sketch of the corpulent Louis XVIII. climbing a greased pole (*mât de cocagne*) in order to seize the crown of France. The obese Bourbon is standing on the shoulders of Austria, Russia, and Prussia, who are all three supported by England.

The Leipzig publishers Breitkopf & Härtel have issued a circular withdrawing from sale the German version of Präger's volume of reminiscences entitled 'Wagner as I Knew Him,' on the ground that many of the letters and other communications contained in the volume are not genuine, as has been shown conclusively by competent critics, and especially by the Vienna Wagnerite Chamberlain, in his strictures on the work printed in the *Bayreuther Blätter*.

We have received from Sheehan & Co., Ann Arbor, a 'List of Books recommended for a High-School Classical Library by a committee of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club.' Any high school might be proud of such a library, little as it could or would be used on the more scholarly side.

While the literature of imagination and of sympathy with Japan is multiplying, it is good to note that the storehouse of regulative fact is easy of entrance. The Transactions and Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Japan have now reached their twenty-third volume. They constitute a body of literature, unique in value, concerning man, nature, art, and literature in the chain of islands reaching from the Kuriles to Formosa. Under the auspices of the Council of the Society, Mrs. Garret Droppers has, with taste, industry, and ability, completed a general index of subjects and authors, with analyses and cross-references. Prof. B. H. Chamberlain leads the list of contributors. The corresponding secretary may be addressed simply Tokyo, Japan.

The Report of the Central Sanitary Bureau of Tokyo for 1891, just issued, compels contrast with the days not yet a full generation past when infectious, contagious, and hereditary diseases were rampant, and the population of Japan was, as to numbers, stationary. Certain diseases like smallpox tend steadily to diminish, but dysentery and syphilis are still persistent, and may be called national, though progress towards thorough control is being made. Besides abundant facts of interest, we note the care exercised in thorough governmental inspection of patent medicines, of food-products and their coverings, and of the linings of cooking-vessels, as well as in licensing practitioners in medicine and salesmen of drugs and chemicals.

The leading article in the Leipzig *Deutsche Medicinische Wochenschrift* for April 25 gives the results of a long series of clinical experiments conducted by Prof. Rudolf Emmerich and Dr. Hermann Scholl for the purpose of curing cancer by means of *Krebsserum* or *Erysipelserum*. During the last ten or twelve years physicians have repeatedly noticed the remarkably sudden alleviation and rapid healing of carcinoma and sarcoma in consequence of the intercurrence of erysipelas. These observations indicated that in the struggle for existence between pathogenic micro-organisms, the microbe of erysipelas attacks and destroys the microbe of cancer. In 1886 Prof. Emmerich proved also that the microbe of milzbrand or anthrax (*Bacillus anthracis*) is effectually checked in its ravages by the microbe of erysipelas (*Streptococcus erysipelatis*) and the disease healed within forty-eight hours, and sometimes even sooner. The *Krebsserum* or specific for cancer is procured by bleeding a sheep infected with a pure culture of the microbe of erysipelas, and preserving the blood for some time in a sterilized vessel; the microbe is then eliminated, and the residue of blood-serum is the aforesaid specific, which has been applied by Prof. Emmerich to six cases of advanced and aggravated cancer in Munich, Bavaria, apparently with complete success. Whether in these inveterate cases the disease has been wholly cured or only temporarily checked, it is as yet impossible to determine; but Prof. Emmerich is firmly convinced that his serum will prove to be an infallible remedy for carcinoma, sarcoma, and all kinds of malignant scirrhous tumors, if taken in their early stages.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for May opens with an account of the ascent of two of the principal volcanoes of Guatemala by Dr. K. Sapper. A paper upon the earthquake of October 27, 1894, in Argentina describes it as purely tectonic, no trace of volcanic disturbance having been discovered. The editor notices favorably the projected balloon voyage to the North Pole of S. A. Andrée. From the paper submitted by the latter to the Swedish Academy, success appears to depend upon the fulfilment of four conditions: the balloon must be large enough to carry three persons, ballast, instruments, and provisions for four months, and be capable of remaining suspended at the height of 250 metres for thirty days; it must be inflated at some point in the arctic regions, and have a steering apparatus. The car is to have a dark-room for the purpose of developing photographs. It is proposed to start from Spitzbergen in the summer of 1896, and the projector hopes to reach the Pole in forty-three hours. The plan is not that of a mere visionary, but one carefully considered and based on scientific principles. Herr A. Nobel has contributed $5,000 towards its expenses, and it is also stated that King Oscar will subscribe $7,500.

The title "Abenddämmerung," given by Franz Xaver Kraus to his article on Maxime Du Camp in the *Rundschau* for May, might easily lead the reader to turn the pages too hastily and thus lose some bits of information concerning the Prince Napoleon, General Boulanger, and one or two other historical personages. The story of Cardinal de Bonnechose's twice-repeated offer of the imperial crown to the Prince, in exchange for a promise of his support to the papacy, and of the Prince's categorical "Je ne veux pas," the writer of the article believes has never been made public. Boulanger's postprandial "give-away," "Eh bien, je ferai la noce," in reply to the question what he would do when he had become Emperor, was the springing of a trap which Du Camp, with the aid of a lady friend, had set for that pretender.

The *Archivio Storico dell' Arte*, which, for want of subscribers, threatened to founder, has reappeared triumphantly with the first number of a new series containing several interesting articles and documents. The most important contribution is one by Signor Supino, who, after a careful study of various descriptions dating from the 15th century, comes to the conclusion that Giovanni Pisano's pulpit in the cathedral of Pisa orginally was supported on eleven columns, and only *one* sculptured group. The remaining groups, which, if they formed part of this pulpit, would in truth make it grossly over-elaborated, Signor Supino ingeniously proves on both documentary and stylistic grounds to have belonged to the tomb of the Emperor Henry VII., begun in 1315 by Giovanni Pisano's pupil Tino di Camaino, and to have been added to the pulpit during the rearrangement of the cathedral and its monument that took place at the end of the fifteenth century.

In the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts* for June Mr. B. Berenson calls attention to the magnificent Botticelli discovered last winter in the private apartments of the Pitti. He describes the picture, which represents, in life size figures, a goddess taming a centaur, as a political cartoon painted to celebrate the triumph of the Medici and their good government (clearly symbolized by the goddess) over the Pazzi and their mad attempts (as clearly symbolized by the centaur). Besides its importance as a work of art, being in fact inferior to none of Botticelli's works, it is invaluable as furnishing a further and much-needed point of departure for the study of this great Florentine's evolution.

The present month has been signalized by the launching of two noteworthy enterprises in French periodical literature, which appeal, one indirectly and the other directly, to foreign readers. We name first the *Revue pour les Jeunes Filles*, issued on June 5 by Armand Colin & Cie., 5 rue de Mézières, Paris. This is a very handsome magazine, without illustrations, and having a serious aim to encourage profitable reading among French girls, who, say the projectors, are deplorably unused to cultivate their minds in the years between school and matrimony. Fiction, humor, poetry, art, travels, female education, employment for women —such are some of the ingredients of this *Revue* as already shown in the first number. The contents will be scrupulously clean.

The second venture is a *Revue Franco-Américaine* (New York: International News Company), which so far falls in line with the foregoing that it professes to honor the American "conviction that a man should not read the tales he will not let his daughter read." This magazine too is very handsome in its typography, but it is also freely and elegantly illustrated, each department by a single hand, with Caran d'Ache for the "Fantaisies," in addition to half-tone views of the several contributors in their respective studies, etc. This gives us portraits of Tolstoy, Clémenceau, Daudet, Catulle Mendès, Mallarmé, Paul Adam, etc., etc. The contents are hard to define, and the physiognomy of the *Revue* not seizable at a glance.

As the *Portfolio* is a periodical consisting of monograph issues, so *American Politics*, announced by Charles H. Kerr & Co., Chicago, will in each number be devoted to some one "important study of live political issues." Silver will be the theme of the first three numbers.

At this year's Presentation day of the University of London, the Lord Chancellor of England, who is also Chancellor of the University, was called on to recognize an unusually large contingent of women, many of them being on the honors list. Miss E. A. S. Dawes (Girton College, honors in classical tripos, examinations for women, Cambridge) was the first woman to receive the degree of Litt.D., being presented to the Chancellor by the University's first recipient of that degree, Mr. R. F. Weymouth. Another woman, Miss F. Higgins, was announced as the first feminine bachelor of music, having two male colleagues. Of the 253 bachelors of art, 80 (or nearly one-third) were women, while women students received 8 of the 29 M.A., 10 of the 81 B.Sc., 8 of the 77 B.M., and 10 of the 47 M.D. degrees conferred. Of the five "honors" granted in the arts, theory, and history of teaching, the majority (three) were women teachers.

It is announced from Berlin that Dr. Bosse, the enlightened Minister of Education for Prussia, has just sanctioned the admission of the daughter of an ecclesiastic to the "Abiturienten" examination at the Prussian Gymnasium. As the Minister's decision overruled that of the provincial pedagogic board which refused the application, it has an important bearing on the future status of the higher education of women in Prussia; this *Abiturienten-examen* being the "open sesame" to every German university, "and to other privileges in certain professions," notably medicine.

We are reminded that Dr. Bosse last May issued regulations for the examination of women candidates for the title and post of head teacher (*Oberlehrerinnen-examen*), which posts had been entirely monopolized by men; it was at the same time provided that in future, in all girls' schools of which the principal is a man, a woman must be associated with him in the management, and that a woman should have charge of at least one of the three upper classes. The conditions of admission to this higher women teachers' examination are a certificate of having passed the "Lehrerinnen" (or ordinary female teachers') examination, "and having taught five years since." But, as the examination includes no Latin, Greek, or mathematics, naturally it could be no substitute for the "Abiturienten-examen." Friends of women have come forward with funds for starting (in Berlin, Leipzig, Carlsruhe, and Munich) gymnasia or classical schools for girls, which should supply the necessary instruction in classics and mathematics.

—Of the 806 pages which make up the fifth and concluding volume of Mr. Larned's 'History for Ready Reference and Topical Reading' (Springfield, Mass.: C. A. Nichols Co.), 424 are devoted to the United States. The remainder are occupied mainly by a "Supplement," containing, besides a number of chronological and genealogical tables, "some passages translated from German and French writings, touching matters less competently treated in the body of the work, where the compilation is restricted to the literature of history in the English language." Some of these are so greatly superior to the articles in the body of the work that it is to be hoped that the editor and publisher will prepare a slip to be pasted into the first volume advising their readers of the "more competent" treatment of certain topics to be found later. There is also a selected Bibliography, with annotations from Freeman and others, which seems on the

whole well done, though we do not observe in any of the lists either the 'Deutsche Verfassungsgeschichte' of Georg Waitz or the 'Histoire des Institutions Politiques de l'Ancienne France' of Fustel de Coulanges—both of them "epoch-making" works in their different ways. This concluding volume does but confirm the opinion we have already expressed as the earlier ones appeared. The compilation witnesses to a great deal of intelligent drudgery, to catholic interests, and to a painstaking struggle towards completeness. To the real scholar it will occasionally be convenient. It may—we hope it will—contribute to the diffusion of information among the general public; certainly every newspaper office ought to possess it. But it is full of danger for the college boy and college girl. "Topical" reading (if we could only get over the adjective, which reminds us too much of "topical" songs) had, at any rate, this advantage—that in digging out bits from really considerable historians there was always a chance that the reader might be compelled or attracted to read a little more than the bit he was in search of. Coming for mere information, there was just a chance he might find inspiration. But now that the bits of information are already picked out, the reader may think he has nothing further to do than to look in Mr. Larned's volumes under the proper letter of the alphabet. So expeditious a method strikes most people, perhaps, as business-like; but we think that after all we should prefer to increase rather than diminish a lad's temptation to browse over Gibbon and Grote and Mommsen for himself.

—In reprinting 200 copies of a 'List of Early American Imprints belonging to the Library of the Massachusetts Historical Society' from the Proceedings of that society, its author, Dr. Samuel A. Green, has conferred a distinct benefit, not merely in the preparation of the list, but also in putting it into this more accessible form. Though the title does not say so, the list is practically limited to Massachusetts incunabula printed between 1643 and 1700, not half-a-dozen of the 308 titles given having been printed outside of Cambridge and Boston. So limited, the list is naturally largely made up of the curiously half-political theology of the period, which found its chief political function in the election sermon, and shaded from that by indefinable gradations into the catechisms which were prepared by request of the General Court, in the hope that religious unity might in turn produce a united policy in civil affairs. The Mathers come first in this list, Cotton being represented by 31 titles and Increase by 30; Willard contributed 20; and then, in various numbers, Chauncy, Danforth, Lawson, Norton, Oakes, Sewall, and Shepard make up the remaining bulk of this class. Of books falling outside of this category, the almanacs and laws constitute more than one-half, but there are stray examples of a more literary character, poetry having its representatives in Wigglesworth and Bradstreet, biography in Norton's 'Life of Cotton,' and history in Mather's 'Brief History.' Even in science we find the earliest American medical treatise, 'A Brief Rule to guide the Common People of New England, How to order themselves and theirs in the Small Pocks, or Measles' (1677); and Mather's 'Essay on Comets' (1683). The morbid tendency of the Puritan mind finds exposition in an 'Arrowe against Profane and Promiscuous Dancing,' in several works on witchcraft, and, with unconscious humor, in a work on the Quakers entitled, 'Little Flocks Guarded against Grievous Wolves,' which is somewhat reversing the commonly accepted ideas of the relative character of the "Independents" and the "Non-resisters." In contrast, the finer qualities of these same Independents are markedly shown in the large production of books intended to Christianize the Indians, and in Sewall's 'Selling of Joseph'—the first printed New England protest against slavery, though that iniquity had been already "testified" against by the Quakers of Philadelphia. No copy of the 'New England Primer' and no early copy of the 'Bay Psalm Book' are given in the list, which are pitiful gaps in so distinctive a New England collection. The collations and notes are careful and lengthy, and a title-index is added.

—A few weeks ago it was announced that Nicolaus Oesterlein of Vienna had sold his Wagner Museum for $20,000, and that it was to be transferred at once to Eisenach, where a special building has been purchased for it, and Herr Kürscher, the well-known Wagnerian scholar, secured as curator. The Wagner Museum, which includes valuable manuscripts, books, pamphlets, newspaper articles, photographs, busts, and all sorts of curios, is perhaps the most extensive collection of its kind in existence. If any one doubts this, let him examine the four volumes of Oesterlein's catalogue ('Beschreibendes Verzeichniss des Wagner-Museums in Wien'), of which we have just received the fourth volume from Breitkopf & Härtel. These four volumes enumerate all the objects gathered in the Museum, to the number of 10,387, but only those belonging to the years 1813–1883, leaving those relating to the years after Wagner's death to be catalogued by the new curator. Oesterlein's classification is rather over-elaborate, but otherwise his volumes are of extreme value to future essayists and biographers. By way of making his catalogue more interesting, he has quoted a few pithy sentences, here and there, from newspaper articles difficult of access or from manuscript letters. Thus we learn (p. 45) that the famous *al-fresco* performance of "Lohengrin" on the lake of Starnberg before the King's palace, where a real swan was used, was not planned by the romantic Ludwig, but was arranged by the bandmaster as a surprise for him. He liked it so well, however, that he had it repeated the next evening. In one of his annotations Oesterlein gives the information that Wagner's fifteen letters to Frau Wille, which contain such interesting details of the romantic friendship between the composer and the King, are now accessible in book-form (Berlin: Paetel).

—The *Journal of Hellenic Studies* for 1894 (Vol. 14, part ii.) offers a highly important dissertation, by Mr. Arthur J. Evans, on "Primitive Pictographs, and a pre-Phœnician script from Crete and the Peloponnesus," the substance of which was read before the British Association last year, and was summarized in the *Nation* of September 20, 1894. The number of symbols is now increased to eighty-two, and of linear characters to thirty-two. The abundant illustrations and comparative tables of symbols which accompany the article make clear at a glance the interest and novelty of Mr. Evans's discoveries. The tables illustrate the process of transition from pictographs to linear hieroglyphics, which are apparently the ancestors of the Cypriote syllabary, and are, in some characters, identical with it. Some of the forms seem also to have influenced the Phœnician alphabet, as well as the type of certain archaic Greek letters in Cretan inscriptions. This Aegean or Mycenæan system, though containing occasional resemblances to Egyptian hieroglyphs, was evidently developed independently of Egypt; it was in the first place framed to fit some Semitic group of languages, but later became the common property of the Mycenæan civilization, and of Hellenic tribes on the coasts of the Aegean. We can hardly err in referring to it the "deadly characters" (*Iliad*, Bk. vi., line 169) which Prœtus traced in a folded tablet to be carried by Bellerophon to the King of Lycia.

—Other articles of interest are Mr. E. A. Gardiner's proposed restoration of the paintings by Panænus on the throne of the Olympian Zeus, and Mr. A. G. Bather's ingenious explanation of the myth enshrined by Euripides in the "Bacchæ." In this play, and in the legends generally, the cult of Dionysus is represented as coming from abroad, from Thrace and from Asia Minor. Mr. Bather, however, recalls the fact that the worship of a vine deity was indigenous in various parts of Greece, and maintains that, in later times, this native deity became identified with the stranger from Thrace and the East. The Pentheus who, in the "Bacchæ," is dressed in woman's clothes, suspended from a tree and subsequently torn in pieces by the Mænads, his head being carried home in triumph, is no other than the image of the vegetation deity of the old year, borne out of the village, treated with indignity and stoning, and replaced by another figure of the new god, which is carried back in procession from the woods. From the custom of the annual inbringing of the new deity is derived, as Mr. Bather reasons, the myth of the introduction of an alien Dionysus. When a myth is perpetuated by a festival, we may assume in general that the ritual is older than the myth, and indeed gave birth to it. Now every one of the details just mentioned in the story of Pentheus is paralleled by modern folk-customs connected with May-day festivals in Russia, Bohemia, Lusatia, and Italy—in fact, from one end of Europe to the other. The spirit of them all is expressed in the song of the Bohemian maidens: "Death we draw out of the village, Summer we draw into the village"; and this is the meaning of the mummery of Pentheus. He is the old god carried out of the city; he is sacrificed as a scapegoat for the people, his head is nailed upon the triglyphs as a talisman against evil spirits. He is represented either by an actual human victim, or else by a lay-figure dressed as an old woman; after this is pulled to pieces, the women search in the woods for a new Dionysus, and carry his statue to the village. It is not, of course, pretended that Euripides himself knew he was describing a primitive religious rite; his mind was occupied with the myth, its human pathos, and its ethical significance.

ROMAN AFRICA.

L'Afrique Romaine: Promenades Archéologiques en Algérie et en Tunisie. Par Gaston Boissier. Paris: Hachette et Cie. 1895. Pp. 322.

SINCE the appearance in 1812 of Eustace's 'Classical Tour in Italy' there has always been a demand for books connecting scenes of modern travel with whatever in ancient history, archæology, and classical literature refers to the places visited, or may be grouped about them. Gaston Boissier (for he has reached a position where, in his own country, it is a tri-

bute to drop the "Monsieur") has written several such books, which have been deservedly successful and have become a sort of superior Baedekers for cultured tourists. It is not easy to surprise the secret of their composition. Boissier always approaches his subject with a superabundance of material. He has not merely an endless capacity for delightful talk, but far more facts, and thoughts upon them, than suffice for his purpose; and he has that fine French tact which knows just when the reader will need a change, either of subject or of treatment. He aims at supplying something for all refined tastes, without becoming irksome to any; in short, he embodies in his work the golden rule of *ne quid nimis*. So much is clear; but the practical carrying out of such a purpose lies not in every man's hand to do.

The reader will not long remain in doubt in what field Gaston Boissier is most at home and most delights. When he is treating of archæology or history, we acknowledge that he is laying before us, most attractively and faithfully, the latest results of archæological or historical studies. He is wonderfully "up to date," and he shows at once a masterly grasp of the whole subject and a surprising familiarity with minute details. But in this field he is no originator; and his chief merit is that the authorities whom he frankly follows are sure to be the best, and the material which he borrows is always the most effective for his purpose. It is needless to say that he gives credit to his authors for what he borrows, and not only to the famous ones—the Mommsens, the Tissots, the Cagnats, the Perrots—but also to the humble army officers and employees who have done so much for archæology in Africa. On the other hand, when he enters the field of classical literature, we have before us an original thinker familiar with the whole ground *a teneris unguiculis;* and we find here in abundance precisely those personal and independent contributions to the subject which we miss in the other field. Whenever he finds his opportunity to do a bit of pure literature, whether *ex professo*, as in his chapter on African literature, or incidentally, as when he describes some beautiful site like Constantine or Cirta, or where he inserts one of his graceful historical cameos, the tragic death of Sophonisba, or the romantic history of Cleopatra's daughter Selene, or the grewsome duel of Juba and his friend Petreius, he exults in conscious power, and quickens his pace like an old war-horse at the sound of the clarion.

One feels inclined to wonder, or even to regret, that the writer should approach the archæological side of his book in a spirit so humble as to suggest an intentional abstinence from all original work beyond the mere selection of materials and their artistic arrangement. Thus, when he is noting the exceedingly mixed character of the present population of North Africa, he seems to forget what must, nevertheless, have been in his mind, that, long before Tissot or Mommsen, Voltaire had made his *Ramire* say to the African Princess, *Zulime*,

"Je sais qu'en vos climats
Où vingt peuples mêlés ont changé tant d'États," etc.

Again, when, on page 197 of this book, he mentions the curious fact that the municipal officers in Roman Africa paid heavily for their places, and had office thrust upon them often in spite of their best efforts to avoid it, we might expect some reference to the younger Pliny's correspondence with Trajan on a similar state of things in Bithynia, of which the inscription from Miletus, just published in the *Revue de Philologie*, gives such an interesting example. And so, when he speaks of the provincial origin of the cultus of the emperors, we are a little surprised to find him modestly stating as an inference what he might have proved by the authority of the third book of the 'Annals' of Tacitus. But on further examination we see that the author has gauged his own powers with consummate good judgment. It is in the archæological department that Boissier is vulnerable, and he does wisely to rely upon others. His literary bias is itself a hindrance to him, for it inclines him to follow fancy rather than cool judgment. Thus, for example, when, on page 29, he sees in the mausoleum of Juba II. and Cleopatra a combination of Greek and Egyptian architecture and a touching reminiscence of the two nationalities dear to the fascinating daughter of the great queen of Egypt, the sober archæologist will be more likely to see in the monument, as Boissier describes it, just what we might expect *a priori*—a somewhat modified imitation of the mausoleum of Augustus at Rome, of which, to be sure, the precise form is not known to us, but which must have corresponded with this ruin in its general character. Again, when a certain anti-Semitic prejudice leads him (p. 39) to attribute the building of a stronghold like Carthage to the hatred inspired by the Phœnician traders, does he not forget that every nation which has traded with uncivilized countries has found it useful to establish factories and to fortify them against a sudden attack from natives who would rather steal than buy? It is this same somewhat romantic bias that leads our author to seek in the independent spirit of the indigenous Africans an explanation of the fact that no Romance language remains in that province as a memento of the Roman occupation. The parallel cases of South Germany and Britain seem to prove that the true reason lies in the incompleteness of the conquest relatively to the mass of the people speaking substantially the same tongue, especially when that language belongs to a different family from the Latin, as is the case with the Berber dialects.

And, lastly, to dismiss the chapter of fault-finding, this book is not free from a defect too common even in the most serious manuals of archæology, a lack of perspective. If a biographer should jumble together what happened to his subject at times distantly remote, we should be greatly shocked at such a proceeding. But when the average archæologist says that "the Ancients" did thus and so, all ages of antiquity are too often projected, as it were, on one and the same plane, and we cannot even feel quite sure that he has not taken out of Plautus or Terence, as a Roman custom, what is there merely because it is Greek. Thus, on page 93, in reference to the year 42, the *procurator Cæsaris* is spoken of as bearing the official title of *Egregius*, which was certainly true in the age of Constantine and as certainly not true in the age of Caius.

This latest work of Boissier's differs from its predecessors in having a political side. The author justly thinks that, in their efforts to solve the problem of Algerian occupation, the French should endeavor to learn something from the Romans, who, with a force of 27,000 men, held a larger territory than that which the French can barely keep in subjection with an army of 48,000. He shows how those wise old Romans allured the savage by the display of elegant and sumptuous civic architecture at the very outposts of civilization, whereas the towns built in Algeria by the French are conspicuous only for their utilitarian ugliness and sordid vulgarity. He shows from the very interesting researches of Cagnat how, under this far-sighted policy, a family of natives (the example is taken from the ruined city of Cillium) abandoned their barbarian names for Roman appellations in the course of three generations, the grandfather calling himself Masac, one of his sons Saturninus, and the grandson blooming forth into the full Roman name of Flavius Fortunatus. The author finds in religion one strong reason for the difficulties experienced in so much larger measure by Christian nations in similar endeavors. This is reasonable enough, and the wonder is that the author has made no use of such confirmatory instances as might have been found in the Gentile occupation of Judæa and in the relations of the Romans with the Druids.

The reader will not find in this book a continuous history of the African province. No notice is taken, for example, of the religious troubles of the fourth and fifth centuries, although the author's observations come down to the Vandal conquest, and the Donatist disturbances must have caused much of the existing desolation and may certainly be regarded as a large factor in the success of the Vandal invasion, or indeed as the original cause of it. What there is of history in the book is there for literary purposes; and those episodes alone are made prominent which offer an opportunity for artistic treatment. It is perhaps no longer very high praise to say that Boissier, while he properly trusts Mommsen for his facts, has discovered, like most students of history, that the political bias of the learned Berlin professor makes him an untrustworthy guide beyond the mere verification of facts, even when it is not easy to detect the connection between his conclusions and the underlying prejudice. But we may add that when our author allows himself an original generalization in the historical field, he gives evidence of large views and great synthetic ability.

We have considered this book from the point of view which its title suggests. The literary part will be relished by all readers of taste; but an adequate discussion of it would call for a separate article. There is an index to the volume, and four plans, two of Carthage and two of the Roman city of Timgad (Thamugadi), the ruins of which have been studied with care. These plans are carefully designed, but rudely executed, in marked contrast, for example, with the accurate and elegant maps in Mommsen's 'Roman Provinces'; and, as is usual with the majority of French books, even those issued by the best houses, the volume before us is marred by typographical defects which an American publisher would regard as a disgrace to his name.

McMASTER'S HISTORY.—II.

A History of the People of the United States, from the Revolution to the Civil War. By John Bach McMaster. Vol. IV. D. Appleton & Co. 1895. Pp. xiv, 630, maps.

THE influences of paper issued upon little or no credit were at work in many directions, and the connection is not appreciated by Mr. McMaster. The readiness to take chances was fostered by the facilities of obtaining credit and getting beyond the punishment due to bad faith. Conditions in Europe, where the armies of the Napoleonic wars were being disbanded, led to a great movement in population to America. The rapid rise of communities in the Western country was an immediate result; a secondary effect was the demand for better

means of communication between the East and the West, and a recognition of the political influence and commercial importance of the Mississippi Valley. If an individual could "create" wealth by issuing his paper, the State could do the same; and, as the guardian of all, the State was bound to employ its power for the benefit of its citizens. From this followed a wish for the State to undertake what had hitherto been performed by local or individual efforts. Immigration was to be assisted and encouraged by grants of lands; States were to enter into extensive schemes of internal improvement, involving the expenditure of vast sums of money on the betterment of roads and the construction of canals. The Federal Government was to enter into this work, either directly by the construction of post-roads, or indirectly by grants of money to the States. The readiness with which schemes could be floated on paper credit—and even the national loans were paid for by local issues—greatly encouraged those political statesmen who sought to build up local influence upon national bounty. The manufacturers believed their interests to be a proper subject of national care, and in 1816 the first really protective tariff was urged upon Congress.

Mr. McMaster has largely drawn the material for his chapter on this tariff from the "Address of the American Society for the Encouragement of Domestic Manufactures to the People of the United States." This is very much as if the recent bond sale for gold was to be described by the aid of "Coin's" financial untruths, or by the speeches of the extreme advocates of silver. It is unfortunate that, in so important a matter, the author should expose himself to the suspicion of special pleading. The close of a war which was distinctly a commercial war, following closely upon years of trade hampered, and at times almost destroyed, by hostile measures of England and France, would in itself be sufficient to explain an unusual movement of export and of import. The decrees of Napoleon and the British Orders in Council, enforced as they were by blockading fleets, shut in domestic and kept out foreign products and manufactures. Naturally domestic industries arose. These restrictions removed, the tide of trade swelled in both directions; and as if to make good in a single year the long deprivation of markets, merchants, domestic as well as foreign, overtraded enormously. Mr. McMaster draws a harrowing picture of over-importations of British goods into the United States, of the tricks of importers, of the extent and evils of the auction system, and of the dangers threatened to such industries as had sprung into existence or had been encouraged to expand during the war. He points out the losses of the American manufacturer and the American merchant, setting against them the gains of the foreigner. Following his main authority, he believes them to have been the result of a studied policy on the part of England to crush out the manufactures of the United States. He includes a sentence from one of Lord Brougham's speeches to this effect, which has done service in every tariff contest in the United States from that time to 1888, when, though genuine, it disappeared with sundry forged extracts from English papers.

Had the writer looked into any account of the situation of industry and commerce in England at this time, he would have been quick to recognize not only how impossible such a policy was, but how severely the merchants and factors of that kingdom suffered through those very exportations. An expectation of the opening to trade of the continent of Europe had led to overtrading in 1814, and the disastrous effect of the extravagant speculation led to numerous failures in 1814-1816. The same miscalculations were made in the American trade, and exports of manufactures were encouraged by the abundance of labor, by the progressive employment of machinery in nearly every branch of production, and by lower freights and lower insurance, no longer at war risk. That "the bulk of the commodities exported brought very inadequate returns" was the general conclusion of the English exporter. In the United States other conditions favored overtrading. Prices were high, because expressed in paper money; the banks favored speculation, and merchants believed in the existence of an unlimited market for foreign commodities. Miscalculation and inflated credit are sufficient to explain the situation. The plea of the manufacturer was based upon selfishness, and was only a part of the current opinion of the day—that the Government should make good the errors of unrealized hopes. The influence of Pennsylvania upon protection to native industries has been great, and it will not be the first time it has proved sufficient to color historical writing.

A national bank was authorized in 1816 with the hope of introducing some system and order into the currency. This hope could be realized only by crowding out State issues. The Bank of the United States opened its branches in different States and supplied a circulating medium that was redeemable at any branch. It accepted notes of such State banks as promised to redeem their issues in specie, and then demanded their redemption. This brought pressure upon the State banks, and they in turn called in their loans, and so brought the crisis to the individual farmer, who had mortgaged his farm, and merchant, who had traded on credit. A popular outcry against the Bank of the United States vented itself in attempts on the part of State Legislatures to restrict and intimidate this bank in the expectation of neutralizing its efforts.

The long period of paper promises had blunted the general ideas of honesty. Resort was had to stay and replevin laws—measures that aggravated instead of curing the evils complained of, for they struck at the origin of all credit. In the cities the suffering was the most intense, and the subject of pauperism and its causes forced itself on the public notice. Commissions reported a great increase of the poor, and the charitable, in answer to their appeals, opened soup kitchens, gave money and clothes freely, and in the end almost offered a premium on idleness and begging. Foreign immigration was looked at askance. Intemperance was pointed out as the leading cause of pauperism, but the share of gambling, lotteries, and ignorance was recognized. The remedies suggested were many, and among them schools, restrictions of dramshops, and savings banks. A wave of reform passed over the land. The pitiable condition of debtors, whose situation could hardly be made more miserable than it was, and the demoralization of the prison system, in which the corrupting influences more than compensated for any benefit to society from the punishment of the criminal, were fields demanding the best exertions of those interested in the welfare of the community. The cruelties of imprisonment for debt were mitigated, but the idea of reclaiming and reforming rather than punishing the criminal was not yet accepted as the true basis of a penal system. In such a "moral awakening" were established Bible and missionary societies, and the free blacks were to be colonized somewhere without the United States. The contest over the admission of Missouri into the Union brought the people to the realization of a sectional conflict on slavery which filled them with dire forebodings for the future.

So far as the general reader can determine, errors of statement on the part of Mr. McMaster are few. Proper names suffer not a little. Huddy is spelled Huddie, and Conyngham is printed Connyngham. The maps do not correspond with the text. For example, the following differences are shown, the spelling in the text being given first: Rameau and Ramea; Epervier and Epervior; Coosa and Coosee; Talladega and Talladagee. There are some tricks of expression which might be omitted, as they tend to exaggerate or to give a wrong impression. "Swords without number" could hardly have been voted to Perry; nor does a town-meeting give expression to the political beliefs of the population of a State; nor is it true to speak of Liberia as going "steadily forward on a prosperous career."

The errors of method are more notable. In giving to each subject a chapter, the connection of events is destroyed, the continuity of narrative marred, and the relation of cause and effect obscured. The chapters read as if they had been prepared for a magazine—essays on special topics, afterwards thrown into a volume with a slight connecting bond. It may be questioned, too, whether history can be written from the ephemeral productions of the day, such as proclamations and addresses, or the average communications to the daily press. Like a party platform, they are produced for a certain purpose. They constitute an appeal to passion rather than to reason, and, too often concealing the real motives of political agents, are not fit expressions of public feeling. It is true they lend themselves to Mr. McMaster's mannerisms, and enable him to produce a very readable and at times truly novel chapter. But history demands something else. The prominent actor, the leader or moulder of public opinion, is an important feature. Personality is an interesting and a truly vital force, lending a vivacity to the story which no tricks of style can give. With Mr. McMaster the person counts for little. Madison, Monroe, Gallatin, Clay, and other prominent leaders of the day are introduced as puppets; their names occur at intervals, but there is no attempt to analyze their motives or their characteristics. The summaries of their speeches are made in a perfunctory manner, and lose the glitter and force of argument which they have even in the mangled condition in which they have come down. It may be questioned whether Mr. McMaster's work will be accepted in the future on any other ground than for its extensive research and studies of particular incidents. As a history it falls short of what has been done before in this period, and certainly short of what should be demanded in the future.

Handbook of Birds of Eastern North America, etc. By Frank M. Chapman. D. Appleton & Co. 1895. 1 vol., 8vo, cloth, and smaller copies in flexible morocco, pp. xiv, 421, pll. 20, figs. 115.

THIS is far and away the best book of the kind which has appeared in this or any other country for many years; it is easily first, and with a long interval among numerous recent competitors for public favor; it is one which would menace the long-established position of

Coues's 'Key,' were its scope not restricted to Eastern North America. As indicated on the title-page, it includes artificial keys to the orders, families, and species; descriptions of plumages, nests, and eggs; statements of geographical distribution, breeding ranges, and migrations; brief accounts of haunts and habits; with introductory chapters on the study of ornithology in its scientific, philosophic, economic, and sentimental aspects, and on the identification, collection, and preservation of birds, their nests, and eggs. There is a list of the principal authorities cited, and a good index. The absence of a glossary is explained by the fact that none is needed, for the author uses only words which can be understood by any one who has learned the difference between a bird's head and its tail. "I have not," says he, "addressed an imaginary audience, nor have I given my prospective readers what, theoretically, I thought they ought to have, but what my personal experience with students of birds has led me to believe would meet their wants." In this practical, sensible aim the author has scored a brilliant success; his prescriptions can be taken from cover to cover with the assurance that they will cure any case, short of invincible ignorance, *celere, certe, tute, atque jucunde;* his book is one to be put in the pocket when we go afield for birds, just as we put on a hat and take up the gun.

This Manual will not promote Mr. Chapman to the first rank among American ornithologists, for the simple reason that he is already in that enviable position, fairly won by years of industrious, enthusiastic, well-directed work, both in the closet and in the field; but it will assure his permanent place among the masters of birdcraft, if he never does anything more. The highest qualifications of the technical scientist are often supposed to be incompatible with those of the field-naturalist; and this supposition may be true to the extent that few persons show equal faculties of reflection and observation, or the ability to hold the imagination in the leash of reason. Mr. Chapman is exceptionally well constituted in this respect; he holds his ardor steadfastly, with the result of something about his ornithology which the present reviewer has often called "sweet reasonableness." The work he now gives us is a model of all that a handbook should be, without a single objectionable or even undesirable feature. The fact that it reaches us with all the weight of authority which the author's position in the American Ornithologists' Union can confer upon this ripe fruit of long experience may be an official voucher for its eminent excellence, but that does not weigh a feather in a case of such obvious intrinsic merit. It would make its way in the bird-world as a text-book if it were anonymous. Failing to find anything to criticise on a careful first reading, we deliberately read it through again for typographical errors, without finding any to speak of. The book is not amenable to criticism in any respect; neither does it need any bush; there is not a pin-feather in it.

Mr. Chapman's limitation of himself to an area east of the ninetieth meridian will keep his book out of the "North American" lists, and put it distinctively in the line of "local" avifaunæ; but the region whose birds are treated is still so extensive, and includes so large a proportion of the whole number of persons who are interested in birds in this country, that his *clientèle* can hardly be appreciably affected by the restriction. In its own field it will stand for an indefinite period without a possible rival.

The pivotal point about the book is the idea of ready identification of specimens in hand—and often of birds in the bush—by the system of artificial "keys," without which no book professing to teach ornithology now has much chance of success. Mr. Chapman's keys are so well constructed that they unlock the mysteries with great ease, and lead us speedily to the more detailed technical characters of every order, family, and species—excepting those of the latter which are mere stragglers or accidental visitants, such being only mentioned. Being thus assured of our bird, we are given a biography in brief of each species—and very telling are these pen-and-ink portraits. Besides being true to the life, they are written in great good taste; they show fine feeling which never sinks into sentimentalism, and are dainty without jauntiness. To one so full of his subject as Mr. Chapman the danger of spilling over is immanent; but he always holds himself steadily in hand. Some of these miniature pictures are by other hands; if some seem to suffer by the juxtaposition, we may recall the adage about comparisons. Mr. Brewster, at all events, is Mr. Chapman's peer in this and other respects. Many of the songs of birds are expressed in musical notation, besides the more or less happy attempts to imitate them phonetically in words. This is a matter for which Mr. Chapman is probably more gifted by nature and better equipped by practice than any other ornithologist now seeking public favor. The numerous illustrations are in every way worthy of the text. They are of two kinds. The full-page plates are mostly half-tones, beautifully done; though on the whole the whippoorwill picture, of a different character, is perhaps the best. The small cuts are telling ones, of what may be called the "rough-and-ready" sort, illustrating the particular points in the text which the author wishes to emphasize; every one has thus its own duty to do, in showing up a diagnostic mark of bill, head, wing, tail, or foot. Mr. Tappan Adney is to be congratulated upon his success. All the illustrations are new; one of the most original is that showing on which arm of the cycloidal curve the goldfinch says "per-chic-o-ree" as he flies. The well-considered color-chart is a valuable feature—what Mr. Chapman calls his "mental palette" for putting his tones and shades of plumage into print.

If we seem to have thus dwelt needlessly upon the merits of a book so well able to speak for itself, we may plead the sheer pleasure it gives us to praise it. We imagine that few will lay hold of it without wondering how they ever got along without it.

The Humour of Russia. Translated by E. L. Voynich. With an Introduction by Stepniak. [International Humour Series.] Charles Scribner's Sons.

One is somewhat puzzled, at first, over the choice of pieces which are here presented to him as fitly embodying the different types of Russian humor. Assuredly, Von Vizin ought to have been included, and Gogol's 'The Inspector' would have been more comprehensible to the general foreign public, unacquainted with the fine lights and shades of Russian character and customs, than 'A Madman's Diary' and his 'Marriage,' which Stepniak justly praises in the Introduction. Ostrovsky's "Incompatibility of Temper" is sufficiently characteristic, and his "A Domestic Picture" exhibits the Moscow merchant's code of morals as admirably, in a small way, as any of his great series of comedies; but a more celebrated play than the former and a more humorous play than the latter might have been found in his extensive theatre. The truth would seem to be, that the translator has set herself the task of avoiding things which have previously appeared in translation, and things which run beyond a certain length, with the object of affording specimens from as many writers as possible. It is a pity that she did not seize the present opportunity of collecting the very best examples possible, without regard to the conditions just suggested. The pieces to which we have referred possess the universal quality of wit which can be appreciated by all nations, without special initiation into Russian habits of thought and life, whereas it is to be feared that many readers will miss the very delicate shades of the essentially national humor in many, perhaps the majority, of these cases. "Shchedrin's [Saltykoff's]" political satires are well chosen, and much more intelligible to the foreigner than most of his work. Dostoevsky's fantastic tale of 'The Crocodile' furnishes a very plain clue to the fact which the student of Russian humor must always bear in mind, namely, that all *tchinovniki* (officials) and the whole bureaucratic system are lawful, perennial objects of ridicule. Mr. Stepniak modestly admits that his "The Story of a Kopek" is a bit of early work, and, indeed, it is built on the pattern of tales told to small children, and is not readily to be comprehended even by one familiar with Russian ways, though its political drift is plain enough.

Although there is no doubt that a more popular volume might have been prepared, the attentive reader will find these sketches replete with national touches which will well repay his study. The translation is truly remarkable for its accuracy and spirit, and the book is decidedly one which should be added to any collection of Russian literature. If Mr. Stepniak or the translator had superintended the illustrations, the absurdity of the *samovar* as here depicted, and of the deacon clad in a European overcoat and chimney-pot hat, would have been avoided.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbey, Edwin A. The Quest of the Holy Grail. R. H. Russell & Son.
Abraham Lincoln: Tributes from his Associates, Reminiscences, etc. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Bartlett, G. H. Water Tramps; or, The Cruise of the "Sea Bird." Putnams. $1.
Bishop, W. H. The Garden of Eden, U. S. A.: A Very Possible Story. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. $1.
Björnson, Bjornstjerne. The Heritage of the Kurts. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
Booth, Charles. Life and Labor of the People in London. Vols. V. and VI. Macmillan. $6.
Browne, Rev. G. F. Off the Mill: Some Occasional Papers. Macmillan. $1.25.
Burdett's Hospital and Charities Annual. 1895. London: The Scientific Press; New York: Scribners.
Clark, S. C. Pilate's Query. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Courthope, W. J. A History of English Poetry. Vol. I. Macmillan. $2.50.
Dwight, T. F. Critical Sketches of Some of the Federal and Confederate Commanders. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Easel, Jack. Our Square & Circle; or, The Annals of a Little London House. Macmillan. $1.75.
Fearing, Blanche. Roberta: A Novel. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Gibbes, Emily O. Reflections on Paul. C. T. Dillingham. $1.25.
Goth, Amos. The Reign of Lust. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Green, Anna K. Doctor Izard. Putnams. $1.
Gunter, A. C. The Ladies' Juggernaut. Home Publishing Co.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. An Errant Wooing. Century Co. $1.50.
Henderson, W. J. The Elements of Navigation. Harpers. $1.
Howells, W. D. My Literary Passions. Harpers. $1.50.
Hoyt, H. W. The Story of Hunt's Mills. Providence: Snow & Farnham. 50 cents.
Hudson, W. C. Should She have Left Him? Cassell. 50 cents.
Hume, Fergus. The Third Volume. Cassell. $1.
Humphrey, F. P. A New England Cactus, and Other Tales. Cassell. 25 cents.
Jones, Rev. Harry. Fifty Years; or, Dead Leaves and Living Seeds. Macmillan. $1.50.
Kindell's African Market Manual. 1895. London: Mathieson & Sons.

Kovalévsky, Sónya. Recollections of Childhood. Century Co. $1.75.
Laurie, Prof. S. S. Historical Survey of Pre-Christian Education. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Legras, Jules. Au Pays Russe. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Leland, C. G. Legends of Florence. First Series. Macmillan. $1.75.
Lemcke, Gesine. European and American Cuisine. Appletons. $2.
Lentz, Max. Stifter's Das Heidedorf. American Book Co. 25 cents.
Lesuer, Daniel. A Force d'Aimer. Paris: Lemerre.
Life and the Conditions of Survival. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. $2.
Longus's Daphnis & Chloe. Traduction d'Amyot. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer Bros.
Loti, Pierre. Jean Berny, Sailor. Cassell. 50 cents.
Maspero, Prof. G. Manual of Egyptian Archæology. New edition, revised and enlarged by the author. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: Putnams. $2 25.
Miller, Ellen, and Whiting, Margaret C. Wild Flowers of the Northeastern States. Illustrated. Putnams. $4.50.
Molesworth, Mrs. Leona. Cassell. 50 cents.
Mooney, Margaret S. Foundation Studies in Literature. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.25.
Moulton, Prof. R. G. Four Years of Novel-Reading: An Account of an Experiment in Popularizing the Study of Fiction. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 50 cents.
Muir, Prof. James. Agriculture, Practical and Scientific. Macmillan. $1.25.
Mummery, A. F. My Climbs in the Alps and Caucasus. London: Unwin; New York; Scribners. $7.50.
Murray, D. C. The Martyred Fool. Harpers. $1.25.
Palmer, Julius A. Again in Hawaii. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Paston, George. A Study in Prejudices. Appletons. $1.
Perry, Bliss. The Plated City. Scribners. $1.25.
Phillips, Claude. Antoine Watteau. [*Portfolio* Monographs.] Macmillan.
Prentice, Dr. Chalmer. The Eye in its Relation to Health. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Prowse, D. W. A History of Newfoundland. Macmillan. $8.
Pugh, E. W. A Street in Suburbia. Appletons.
Rideing, W. H. In the Land of Lorna Doone. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Roberts, C. G. D. The Canadian Guide-Book. Complete in one volume. Appletons.
Savage, P. H. First Poems and Fragments. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Schallenberger, V. Green Tea. A Love Story. Cassell. 25 cents.
Shaw, W. A. The History of Currency 1252 to 1894. London: Wilsons & Milne; New York: Putnams. $3.75.
Shearman, T. G. Natural Taxation. Putnams. $1.
Snow, C. E. Sister Gratia. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 25 cents.
Thomas, Annie. Utterly Mistaken. Cassell. 50 cents.
Tracy, Dr. R. S. Hand-book of Sanitary Information for Householders. Appletons. 50 cents.
Wagner, C. La Vie Simple. Paris: Colin & Cie
Waterloo, Stanley. Honest Money. Chicago: Equitable Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Wood, J. S. Yale Yarns. Putnams. $1.
Wright, Mabel O. Birdcraft: A Field Book of Two Hundred Song, Game, and Water Birds. Macmillan. $3.00.
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